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Note from the Editor

This journal has often trodden in areas where few reputed journals venture and delved into areas that are often overlooked by others. One such area is covered in this issue, that of “sexuality”, in an African contest, but with a twist. Mafongoya Owen reports a case of “female rapists” in the city of Harare in his “When the Hunter Becomes the Hunted: An Exploratory Study on the Proliferation of Female Rapists in Harare, Zimbabwe” in which he tackles the issue of gangs of women enticing men, largely weary “defenceless” travellers, in the bus stations and “raping” them for an even more bizarre purpose of harvesting semen. Whether a sexual act perpetrated on men by women can be called a rape is a matter of legal definition, the Zimbabwean law doesn’t call it so, but of far greater interest is the matter of collecting semen by these women forcing men to use condoms and collecting these for some later use. The author is at a loss to untangle the mystery as to the purpose of such collection and from the interviews with knowledgeable respondents ventures to suggest that the semen may either be sold in some market or used by traditional healers or magician for some unknown practices. What may be the actual purpose remains untold in this study.

Further studies in future may uncover the secrets of such practices but the issue of newly found “sexuality” and such bizarre behaviour in a developing country normally with so many taboos against the same do raise interesting questions. Due to the onslaught of the West dominated media, social media inclusive, sex and human sexuality, and their aberrations, which had remained largely a private matter in the countries of Asia and Africa are now finding new and increasingly open public outlets. Not that some such sexual behaviours were not practiced earlier in these lands, Kama Sutra comes from ancient India, but that sexuality, and bringing it in the open, seem to be equated these days with the liberal and democratic thinking both within these countries and vigorously preached in the West, particularly in the USA and Western Europe. You are not liberal and democratic enough if you object to the such. Russia’s refusal to accept “gay marriage” and the subsequent backlash from the Western media is a case in point. Development, modernization, liberalism and democracy are ideas imported from the West but imposition of the same on other cultures has never been an easy matter, infringement and deviations are bound to result. The case of female rapists, for whatever hidden purpose, may well have resulted from such imposition of the Western media.

This issue of the journal, however, largely focuses on the question of “leadership”. Four articles, three of which deal directly with the question of leadership in varying contexts, while the fourth looks at entrepreneurship in the context of industrial development, cover a range of issues. First, Nghamula Nkuna and Mokoko Sebola take up the issue of the “leadership persona” in administration and how leadership change with each regime can affect the nature of administration and the whole process of development in their “Coping with Leadership Persona in South African Public Administration Practice: Implications on Macro-policy Initiatives and Implementation”. Using the case of South Africa in the recent times, they show how the “practice of public administration cannot be separated from the persona of those in charge of leadership”.

Johannes Tsheola and Phophi Nembambula take up the issue of “transformational leadership” focusing again on South Africa in the historically disadvantaged universities (HDUs) in their “Governance and Transformational Leadership Dilemmas for Merged Universities in a Democratic South Africa”. They define transformational leadership as “diametrically inconsistent with over-bureaucratization and managerialism, because its qualities, principles and roles are characterised by charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration”. These qualities of leadership are best suited for the mergers of HDUs but, they argue that, “the state has incrementally legislated for extension of its powers over higher education sector, thereby creating inherent dilemmas for transformational leadership”.

The third in line of leadership studies is “An Empirical Research on Relationship between Quality of Work Life and Leadership Styles in SMEs”. T S Nanjundeswaraswamy and D R Swamy also focus on the transformational leadership style and in their study of mechanical manufacturing SMEs around Bangalore, India, find that “Under Transformational leadership style employees enjoy high level of Quality of Work Life”. The research itself is a first in associating quality of work life with leadership style.
The next study delves into the question of entrepreneurial leadership. Salahu Saliman Tunde in his “Entrepreneurial Social Work: The Position of Professional Practitioners for Industrial Development in Nigeria” argue that under globalization “entrepreneurship still denotes skilful manipulations of opportunities, which have hitherto culminated in corporate and individualised exploitation, in the name of profit maximisation and industrial development”. Instead, industrial development, particularly in Nigeria, they feel, requires the kind of entrepreneurial social work which is gaining momentum in the developed world. The paper, therefore, “challenges the fundamental requirement of entrepreneurial social work and the practice of pragmatic social entrepreneurship, where professional social workers could be exposed to theoretical bases and empirical research as a bottom-up approach to address industrial development imbalances”.

In the past we have covered a number of issues related to education, particularly students’ achievement levels in the school. This time around, Mohd. Zia-Ul-Haq Rafiqi looks at the vulnerable region of Jammu and Kashmir state and the contrast in school achievements between the nomadic tribal students vis-à-vis the students from more settled communities. Rafiqi argues that the needs, strength and interest of each learner are unique and determined by the socio cultural and demographic background and circumstances. Through a multivariate test of his data Rafiqi finds that the tribal students in general have poor achievement scores but the nomadic tribal students are even worse off in their school achievements.

Basing his study on the labelling theory by Erving Goffman, Adeyemi Johnson Ademowo, in the next paper on “Stigma, Violence and the Human Agents on the Motor Park Space in Ibadan Metropolis, Southwest Nigeria”, seeks to understand the process and the consequences of “stigma” associated with the motor parks in Ibadan. Using participant observation and key informant interviews they “provide explanations for the sustained violence image of the motor park, the ability of/attempt by the marked to live with/rise above the marked expectations and why the public is so imbued with the negative stereotypes that they have refused to appreciate the likely effects of the sustained label on urban development, crime control and security of the state”.

The next three studies are of Bangladesh. Mohammed Faruque Uddin tackles the rather sensitive issue of “Access to Food Transfers and Social Protection in Bangladesh”. Uddin in his paper addresses the issue of targeting, participation, and accountability in governance for food transfer programs in Bangladesh. The targeting and participation issue in social policies, he argues, “is crucial to achieve an efficient outcome”. The study finds “the prevalence of notable errors in targeting, participation and accountability in governance” regarding food aid provisions for the poor. Shahadat Hossain Shakil and Tazrina Habib Ananya look at the Effectiveness of the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) in Bangladesh. They feel that EIA system in Bangladesh is on the right track with effort being made by the government through establishing basic legal and administrative setup, though the EIA system is still far from fulfilling good practice requirements. Md. Roknuzzaman Siddiky looks at the effectiveness of training imparted by Korea’s Technical Cooperation to Develop the Skills of the Trainees of the Bangladesh-Korea Technical Training Centre. The study found that vocational training as a whole was effective to develop the skills of the trainees of the BKTTC. But the training was not very effective due mainly to the lack of alignment between trainees’ needs and government’s policy, along with the shortage of absorptive capacity.

The issue, therefore, continues to explore new areas as well as encouraging young, often first time, authors to contribute, thus fulfilling one of our avowed objectives. The other objective, that of building up a sociology of Bangladesh is also well on its way and we are planning to take out a volume of articles published in this e-Journal over the last eleven years and beyond, fulfilling a long felt need. Towards this end we encourage authors to send in fresh articles on Bangladesh, on areas that we may have left uncovered so far.
Coping with Leadership Persona in South African Public Administration Practice: Implications on Macro-policy Initiatives and Implementation

Nghamula Nkuna and Mokoko Sebola

Abstract: This article seeks to expose the element of leadership persona in shaping the state of the practice of public administration in South Africa since the advent of democracy by outlining its implications on the consistency of the implementation of macro-policy initiatives as well as the precision in terms of commitment and coherence thereof. It is argued that the practice of public administration cannot be separated from the persona of those in charge of leadership within a given regime in South African context. Each regime that assumes office brings along a new team of leadership that initiate new macro-policies instead of marshalling the existing ones for full implementation and coherence. Such constant changes have an adverse impact on the continuity of strategic policy implementation and this article attributes that to the persona of leadership that assume office at a given stage. The article concludes by asserting that South Africa have not yet had a societal position that can be mandated to the state in order to enable the system of governance to remain focused even if there are regime changes in the form of leadership. In consequence, South Africa is stalled in a vicious circle of policy incoherence that stalls development in that the recurring leadership persona tend to obscure policy implementation and coherence to protect leadership personalities.

Keywords: Leadership Persona, Types of Leadership, Macropolicy, Public Administration Practice, South Africa

Introduction

The practice of public administration has a longer history and a wider geographic range than almost any other aspect of government and it has been an instrument of ancient empires, monarchies, democracies and dictatorships, of both developed and developing countries (Coetzee, 1988; Hanekom and Thornhill, 1994). Yet there is still a debate on the issue of a landmark article of Woodrow Wilson (1887) written way back over a century ago as to who among them best understood Wilson’s contention of the politics-administration dichotomy wherein others dismissed the notion variously as

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fiction, intellectual aberration, or political rationale; yet the dichotomy's persistence may have its foundation in the nature of the decision-making processes of large bureaucratic organisations (Gawthrop, 1998; Svara, 2006, 2008; Overeem, 2008; Skelley, 2008; Demir and Nyhan, 2008) that is as well underpinned on the persona of those who lead them and context; yet one of the simple facts about leadership is that one cannot be a leader by oneself (Nall, 2011). Fundamentally, leadership involves complex human interactions that is by nature comprised of multiplicities and varying contexts (Nkuna and Sebola, 2012). It is undisputed fact that Woodrow Wilson (1856 –1924), just like any other contemporary head of state in the current wave of development, brought with him an element of persona that shaped his ideology and ontological stand in his leadership style, hence his contention at the time that politics can be separated from administration. However, none of those still debating Woodrow Wilson’s (1887) contention appear to shift the lens and view his contentions from the perspective of his persona in that other than being the President of America at the time, Woodrow Wilson (1856 – 1924) was also a scholar. Same principle applies to those who are hailed as pioneers of Scientific Management like Frederick Winslow Taylor (1856 – 1915) who was an engineer by profession; Max Weber (1864 – 1920) who traded in between law, politics and sociology; Johan van Goethe(1749 – 1832) a German poetic writer, politician and scientist; Karl Max (1818 – 1883) who was a German philosopher, economist, sociologist, historian, journalist, and revolutionary socialist and others one can mention.

In as much as the latter were not state leaders like Woodrow Wilson (1856 – 1924), the philosophic positions they brought along in the discourse of public administration practice is arguably in principle based on their persona as thinkers within their own right. For example, Max Weber (1864 – 1920), is regarded as the father of bureaucracy yet he was a Sociologist who has grownup hating the strife of command line that was subjected to him by his parents and family background (Gane, 1992) and was regarded as distinct from other thinkers as representing something of sophisticated and agnostic. As for the pioneers of Scientific Management, consideration need to be made that they were engineers, and they were looking for the best way to simplify the job for productivity purposes (Feguson and Lohmann, 1994; Schein, 2004) wherein the status of endogenous epistemic ways that was informed by situations of various setups in the globe was comprised as such was pursued with high precision to influence leadership persona towards scientifi city (Fideler, 1998; English, 2002).

South Africa was fortunate to have leaders like F. W. de Klerk (1939 - ) who beyond the odds of his fellow conservative nationalists concerted to the unconditional un-burning of political parties during 1990 and brokered for negotiated settlement to democracy (Turok, 2008; Maharaj, 2008; Maharaj, Desai and Bond, 2011). As a sanctification Nelson Mandela (1918 – 2013) who became the first democratic president of South Africa with an idealistic persona that had been derived from being a lawyer and political activist before receiving military training as one of the founders of “Umkhonto we Sizwe”, who had remain visionary principled despite the undue conditions the apartheid government subjected him to for nearly three decades in prison (Maharaj, 2008; Turok, 2008) to an extent of advocating for reconciliation of the purposefully fragmented nation. The same ideal he advocated for
during his Rivonia Trial address he lived up to it to voluntarily stepping down as the country’s first democratically elected president. So it is the same of other leaders, who assumed office on their schematic profile that had shaped their thinking, while in public office either in Africa as a continent or some parts of the world. The article put forward a debate that South African state of public administration practice, in whatever situation it found itself, remains factored on the persona of those in office within a given term of office. Wherever so far President Mandela (1918 – 2013) has served his term of 1994 – 1999; President Thabo Mbeki (1942– ) served during 1999 – 2008 while President Jacob Zuma (1942– ) served 2009 to the time of this manuscript.

This article conceptually explicate on issues of leadership persona on policy coherence and sustainable implementation thereof within the South African context. This is done by providing the background and rationale of the debate followed by conceptualising persona for public administration practice engagement. The argument is based on the notion that persona is shaped by personal development that is premised on the schema or schemata that one draws knowledge from together with the phases that define such person’s systematic progression throughout life as a human agent. For relevancy in a complex domain like that of public administration practice, one does not need to use common sense as it is through persona that is easily espoused through competencies that one have developed overtime; and that tend to be the case in leadership within the South African polity if not probably Africa as the whole.

**Background and Rationale**
Public Administration has been declared an eclectic discipline that borrows its scientific strands from other existing theoretical positions (Coetzee, 1988; Hanekom and Thornhill, 1994; Botes, Brynard, Fourie and Roux, 1996), with a critique that it has totally disregarded the African endogenous knowledge to remain relevant within the authentic values of the continent errand to the Western project of civilisation (Amoah, 2012; Nyamnjoh, 2013). This is strongly justified due to the range of activities involved in the field that inform whatever approach can be adopted in its practice that has transcended beyond the inherited systems from the colonial past in the case of the African continent (Mamdani, 1996; Kuye, 2008; Nyamnjoh, 2012;Amoah, 2012). Such wholeness even resulted in various paradigms that have put the discipline in quandary for over a century (Henry, 1975, Coetzee, 1988; Hanekom and Thornhill, 1994; Botes et al, 1996) based on the progress that was benchmarked on the Western pace of development as African endogenous knowledge was not factored in (Mamdani, 1996; Nyamnjoh, 2004; Amoah, 2012) and exacerbated by the apartheid past in the case of South Africa (Maharaj, 2008; Ngapah and Mhlaba, 2013) that have reduced the spatial settlement of the black majority to cheap labour reserves. Of course given the history of the field, the exercise is probably regarded as a sign of health while on the other hand self-scrutiny can be overdone to the detriment of the field and practice thereof. Just like the mathematician, John von Neumann (1903 – 1957), once described the state of a discipline that had become far too involved with self-study by coining the term “baroquism” that simple means a re-examination by public administrationists of
where the field has been and where it is going appears worthwhile (Henry, 1975, Rosenbloom, 2008) and tend to be occupied by such without making meaningful progress in addressing its loci.

Not surprisingly that in as late as 2013 there are still debates as to whether Woodrow Wilson (1887) was either misunderstood or misquoted in his article on politics-administration dichotomy (Svara, 2008; Uwezeyimani, 2013). This is also applicable to other pioneers in the field that are continuously being interpreted without regard of the element of persona that have a bearing on their nature as human agents with internal structure (Stacey, 1996; Nkuna and Sebola, 2012). Such is becoming evident on the leaders of the contemporary regimes as they surface more especially in Africa with South Africa in particular in this case. It remains a matter of empirical curiosity as to how President Mandela's (1918 – 2013) regime of 1994-1999 has been a factor of his persona as a leader, same to President Mbeki (1942 - ) during 1999-2008, and President Jacob Zuma (1942 - ). The manner in which policy directives are rolled out with a given precision in an administrative state is also influenced by the element of persona for those leading the regime at the time. Such can range from an independent thinking of leaders in their own right to a judgemental guidance and ideological stance they offer to party in power in the case of partisan democratic system like that of South Africa. A wave of the first generation of leaders that liberated some parts of Africa barely reflect the persona that they have in steering the nations to the level where they have achieved (Mamdani, 1996; Nyamnjoh, 2004) in that such independences were short lived before a spate of internal conflicts sponsored by disposed colonial masters.

This paper explicate the extent of coping with leadership persona in relation to the consistency of rolling out implementation of policy initiatives in South Africa drawing from the position of other prominent scholars that forms the basis of analytical thinking within the discourse of public administration practice. The paper focuses on South African scenario but drawing on examples from other randomly selected administrative states within the globe to reinforce the debate with a bias to African continent in particular. A prototype example being that of the boldness that President Yoweri Museveni (1944 - ) of Uganda had to enact a policy position that suites the Ugandan people despite the noise from other corners of the globe. Is it a matter of personal arrogance that President Robert Mugabe (1924 - ) of Zimbabwe appears to be controversial among his counterparts in the region? The ontological stance of the argument is that while there is on-going engagement in public administration discourse and draw the basis of theoretical disposition empirically, it is important to consider persona that provide a complex blind sport for rational thinking especially where leadership is a factor.

**Conceptualising Persona**

In the practice of management, data and their relationships are incomplete, and decisions in all functions, levels of an organisation and external relationships as from top management to specialists, workers, suppliers, customers and others as are based on mix of fact and judgment calls (Gummesson, 2006; Alkahtani, Abu-Jarad, Sulaiman, and Nikbin, 2011). The mix of facts and judgment calls are influenced by leadership's persona in the case of public administration practice.
Persona refers to the aspects of a person’s character that they show to other people, especially when their real character is different, or the role one assumes or display in public or society (Hornby, 2006; Alkahtani et al., 2011) while on the other hand personality can be defined as the complex of characteristics that distinguishes an individual (Nall, 2011). It is a style made up of many or multiple behaviours that we become aware of through style or temperament type to help identify individual strengths and weaknesses. So far South Africa has seen how President Mandela’s (1918 – 2013) persona has brought about peace and reconciliation within a previously divided nation. People who have different backgrounds have different attitudes, values and norms do reflect their cultural heritages, which are, in fact, different (Alkahtani et al., 2011; Nyamnjoh, 2013). These differences result in different personalities of individuals that determine their actions and behaviours with some people have strong personalities in that they can influence others to act and do things (Nkuna, 2007; Alkahtani et al. 2011). Others, who have certain type of personality, can determine the way the organisations behave like those assuming the office of leadership within a given time.

It is eminent as to how governance issues have evolved during the regimes of the three leaders in South African polity, with the interim space of President Kgalema Motlante (1949 – ) that have not done much except preparing the stage for the 2009 regime change. In public administration context, persona may be seen as a role, a task, a skill, ability, or a personality trait which one displays while assuming public office. Due to different backgrounds, attitudes, values and norms and cultural heritages, a systematic history of each human agent as a leader took effect within the realm of complex terrain that is beyond predictability (Stacey, 1996; Cilliers, 1998; Nkuna and Sebola, 2012). Virtanen (2000) refers to such competences as distinct to qualifications. A competence is seen as an attribute of an employee referring to a kind of human capital or human resource that can be transformed into productivity, while qualification is understood as requirements of a certain class of work tasks or job. Such competencies determine to a large extent as to how leadership steer institutions or organisations towards the intended objectives. In other words competencies that are required from an incumbent to fulfil certain leadership position within the practice of public administration are derived from such incumbent’s persona.

**The Making of Persona**

Individual agents are schemas or algorithms representing the world that they act into (Stacey et al, 2000). They manipulate and process information according to their schemas as the basis of their interaction and display differing competencies that end-up being the making of leadership persona. A schema consists of a set of rules that reflects regularities in experience and enables a system to determine the nature of further experience and make sense of it (Stacey, 1996; Nkuna and Sebola, 2012; Ntayi, Ngoboka and Kakooza, 2013). Much of the leadership development comes from the opportunities that an individual takes advantage of throughout life (Nall, 2011; Ntayi et al., 2013). The element of disciplinary exposure is also eminent in providing such schema hence it becomes necessary to relate to leaders like Woodrow Wilson (1856 – 1924) and Karl Marx (1818 – 1883) as they were not foreign to acquiring a disciplinary background that helped frame their thinking. So if the
practice of public administration had to be left to those who apply common sense, which is not that common in anyway, polities like South Africa might be heading for demise. Leaders within the field of public administration practice as agents interact through the application of different schemas or displaying different competencies. Such is also applicable to leaders when assuming office within specific regimes in a polity. Hence it is a matter of discourse on the extent to which leaders are either described as democratic, authoritarian or dictators. Even Marx Weber (1864 – 1920) in his writings had views on leadership being charismatic, traditional, and legal-rational in exercising authority (Hennessey, 1998). Of course such also emanate from the premise that an average public organisation or public institution has to obey to different professional, legal, economical, management, political, scientific, technical, environmental and civil demands, wishes and expectations (Hennessey, 1998; Van der Wal and Van Hout, 2009). Managers and professionals in public organisations as leaders are also confronted with various “wicked” impossible situations and have to apply various competencies that they possess or acquired overtime. Such competencies vary in relation to contexts and organisational setups that can be escalated to the level of even leading administrative states like that of South Africa.

As mentioned earlier, of course leaders as human systems are characterised by internal structure in that they bring to their respective areas of responsibility their cultures, emotions, personal preferences, attitudes, genders, experiences, skills, and abilities (Stacey, 1996; Nall, 2011; Nkuna and Sebola, 2012; Ntayi et al., 2013), but it remains folly for leaders due to their wicked persona to hide behind those normative issues like culture when confronted by governance challenges within the practice of public administration. It however remains a challenge as to whether it is possible to determine a boundary on the leader’s persona and the practice of public administration especially on policy coherence within a culturally diverse society like South Africa happens to be. The fact that a leader assuming office within a defined polity had to rationally be divorced from a cultural base that is instrumental to the making of the persona remains questionable.

**Various Types of Leadership Competencies**

Virtanen (2000) put forward an argument that the vital competences of the personnel in modern organisations are increasingly value competences and that these should be understood as commitments (see also Mouton, 2009; Brynard, 2010; Nall, 2011; Ntayi et al., 2013). The moment there are value issues within the analytical space in the discourse, the rational premise of scientficity falls short (Fideler, 1998; English, 2002; Nkuna and Sebola, 2012) and it is such contentions that preclude the exogenous African way of doing things (Mamdani, 1996; Amoah, 2012; Nyamnjoh, 2013). Brynard (2010) put that one almost ambiguous factor in policy performance is commitment. What determines factors such as commitment? What is the relationship between these factors? The key to any initiative is the commitment of everyone concerned to ensuring the successful roll-out of the initiative (Mouton, 2009; Brynard, 2010). In essence, commitment refers to an ability to maintain the focus on an initiative from its inception through to its delivery. Such remain questionable in South African polity as each time the new regime take office there are major changes that even veer away
from the principled position of the parties involved to protection of leadership persona than a system. The rush and emotional changes of constitutional position of the African National Congress (ANC) as the ruling party during December 2007 followed by similar move by the South African Communist Party (SACP) is a prototype example.

Gruban (2003) as cited in Pagon, Banutai and Bizjak (2008) defines competencies as the ability to use knowledge and other capabilities, necessary for successful and efficient accomplishment of an appointed task, transaction of work, goal realisation, or performance of a certain role in the business process. By implication competencies encompass knowledge, expertise, skills, personal and behavioural characteristics, beliefs, motives, and values. Such competences or commitments may be classified in five areas, namely, task competence, professional competence in subject area, professional competence in public administration, political competence, and ethical competence (Virtanen, 2000; Dunn and Legge Jr, 2001; Pagon et al., 2008; Ntayi et al., 2013). The mainstream public administration sees competences of leaders as a generic profession and the differences between private and public sectors are not directly addressed. In a complex arena like public administration practice this poses a challenge. Virtanen (2000) identifies such competencies being task competence, professional competence, political competence, and ethical competence.

Task competences and professional competences are in many ways the same for both sectors, but leaders within the public administration landscape have political and ethical competences that make an important difference (Virtanen, 2000; Dunn and Legge Jr., 2001; Ntayi et al., 2013). The competence areas are the same for non-managers, but since public managers have subordinates and larger formal responsibilities; the contents of particular competences differ from those of other public servants with the task competence being more concrete of the five areas. The criterion for task competence is performance. Goals and means are given and the task has to be accomplished. The value competence is motivation on why one has to perform the task with the instrumental competence being the ability to do the job. All the other competence areas have impacts on social reality through the interface of behaviour structured by task competence (Virtanen, 2000; Dunn and Legge Jr., 2001, Pagon et al, 2008; Ntayi et al., 2013). The extent to which leaders are competent to do their tasks within the practice of public administration will structure the social reality created which will be impacted upon by other competences. The prototype example can be given on the extent to which a public official or leaders is able to communicate at various levels and the ability to read and interpret statistical data as well as to delivery preparatory policy notes or speech where necessary.

A leader has to be competent either in the substantive field of the line organisation or portfolio on defined services or in a specific task field in techno-structure of the organisation like a direct deliverable (Virtanen, 2000; Dunn and Legge Jr., 2001; Blanchardand Donahue, 2007; Ntayi et al., 2013). The professional competence will be in the subject area of such defined services, the value competence will be the extent to which one is able to control the policy object as societal phenomenon of the subject area or field. The know-how of the policy object of such particular field will
be the instrumental competence in the case of this debate. A leader also has to be competent in public administration practice as distinguished from politics and policy (Virtanen, 2000; Dunn and Legge Jr., 2001; Ntayi et al., 2013) more so if the objective is to steer within a complex arena like that of the public administration practice. Public administration in this context may be reduced to narrow administration of execution of a policy given by politicians. Controlling policy programmes becomes a value competence while the know-how of cooperation is instrumental. Virtanen (2000) regard professional competences as articulating modernism in that they are based on continuous doing better by controlling the object of the work (see also Dunn and Legge Jr., 2001; Blanchard and Donahue, 2007; Ntayi et al., 2013). The criterion of professional competence is development in the aspects such as policy object within defined services; subject know-how such as better mastery of legislative guidelines; policy programme such as fewer mistakes in service delivery; and know-how of cooperation such as better efficiency, also in the implementation of service cuts. Without professional competence there is no long-term quality improvement, although good task competence may lead to high productivity occasionally (Virtanen, 2000; Dunn and Legge Jr., 2001; Ntayi et al., 2013). In essence, relevant professional competence is a cornerstone for a leader to succeed within the area of responsibility assigned. It remains questionable in South African public administration practice if that is a matter for consideration.

Political competence has to do with values and power (Virtanen, 2000; Dunn and Legge Jr., 2001; Ntayi et al., 2013). The ideology and interests of a public manager set the value competence and they have effects on the creation and authorisation of the goals and means of a public policy. Ideological beliefs and interests are partly determined by social background, also for those who are neutral in terms of party politics which appears to be fading in the case of South African public administration practice whereby those having access to public office are to be politically aligned irrespective of other preceding prerequisite competencies for discharging relevant mandates. Possession of power becomes instrumental competence (Virtanen, 2000; Nkuna, 2007; Dunn and Legge Jr., 2001; Ntayi et al., 2013) and due to a particular persona such may be discharged in a manner that counter progressive due to ulterior personal motives for those holding office and be subjected to informal or shadow manipulations (Stacey, 1996; Nkuna and Sebola, 2012). It is derived from the power of the office and official authority, but it has to be maintained in day-to-day practice in order to give opportunity to make real decisions. The possessed power may also be ethically unjustified, for example it might be greater than formal authority. With power a leader can create and allocate resources for preparation of public policies. Without political competence, leaders are not able to contribute to politically acceptable outcomes, no matter how good the output is in terms of developing professional quality and performance (Virtanen, 2000; Dunn and Legge Jr., 2001; Ntayi et al., 2013). There are of course divergent views on how to create commitment to policy initiative (Mouton, 2009; Brynard, 2010) within the range of competencies. The trend that have played itself during the introduction of macro-economic policies during the era of President Thabo Mbeki in South Africa with an irony that among the team that initiated such policies were those involved in drafting the RDP, GEAR and continue to be involved in the National Development Plan (NDP) as late as during
President Zuma’s term of office. One view is that political backing is needed, implying that commitment is mainly a top-down issue; while others regard commitment as something that has to be developed from the bottom-up. The latter view focuses on the attitude of the employees who have to implement the initiative at the ground level (Blanchard and Donahue, 2007; Mouton, 2009; Brynard, 2010). The political arena is also complex in that each moment requires a certain skill of handling it and that tend to shift with context. There is no accurately defined political competence that may be regarded as that one has to have to be competent hence the arena is highly manipulated.

Ethical competence refers to conforming to moral values and moral norms that prevail in culture (Virtanen, 2000; Ntayi et al., 2013). Morality becomes the value competence with the prevailing conception of what is right and what is wrong refers to administrative morality. It takes the constitution and the laws determining the general rights and obligations of public managers. Argumentation a process of reasoning in terms of ethics becomes an instrumental competence. It is needed for the ethical review of policy goals and means. Without ethical competence, leaders do not use their political, professional or task competence in right ways (Virtanen, 2000; Blanchard and Donahue, 2007) the trends that aroused this debate in relation to South Africa. But ethic also develops from a societal background that a given leader developed from. The manner in which one is raised in a society will also determine the ethic of such a person. South Africa has a variety of ethnic cultural groups which are protected constitutionally. Other than professional ethics that one acquires from the professional discipline, there are cultural ethics that triggers massive controversies in South Africa due to its diverse nature. Those cultural ethics develop from the traditional cultural background of the ethnic group that form an endogenous knowledge base that tend to be ignored within the modern conception of leadership within public administration practice. The resilience of such customs due to the nature of internal human structure in public administration creates shadows (Stacey, 1996; Nkuna and Sebola, 2012) or what Hanekom and Thornhill (1994) refer to as an informal organisation (see also Stacey, 1993; Hanekom et al., 1996; Schein, 2004; Nkuna, 2007). The persistence in nurturing such shadows or informal organisation cripples the leadership ethos and reduces the stature of their persona to be unsuitable for public office.

Policy Inconsistencies and Leadership Changes

The article has so far devoted the engagement on leadership persona with varying examples within a polity, it is, however, necessary to further alludes as to the extent of its role within the policy landscape in the practice of public administration. Ndletyana (2013) has with specific reference to South African macro policy incoherence attributed such inconsistencies to ideological conflicts. The notion which this article argues from the angle of leadership persona as South Africa has since its inception of democratic dispensation is ruled by the same party being the African National Congress (ANC); yet each time there are changes in the government’s executive that appears to affecting policy persuasion as every time a different leader is assigned a different portfolio, he or she tend to introduce new policy direction despite the manifesto for the term of office. The veering of policy position that manifests itself in terms of the point of regime changes creates a phenomenal vacuum
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that also find expression when there is an executive reshuffle that transcend even to the point of ensuring functional agents reforms within the term of the regime that tend to stall progress with the adversaries of the principle of “cadre deployment” that create administrative instability and poor retaining of institutional or organisational memory.

The changing of programmes as a result of each leader assuming office in different portfolio might from another point of analysis be regarded as way of covering the failing trend of the regime to other questionable areas of the discourse. A prototype of the number of times the country’s has been reshuffled during President Zuma’s term of office remains a factor in destabilizing macro policy implementation flow. A contention that need further engagement as to whether President Zuma as a leader’s persona has what it takes to have a self-internalized philosophy that would have been derived from his competency to consider steering and navigating the country’s executive towards coherent policy stability. Of course this can be linked to the parody of having to escalate the number of the executive portfolios from 24 to 34 upon assumption of power during 2009 that juxtapose the rationalisation project that follows President Mandela’s (1918 – 2013) Presidential Review Commission of 1998 that find expression during the term of President Thabo Mbeki (1942 - ).

**Government Structural Stability since 1994 to 2013**

In the dawn of South Africa’s negotiated settlement the ANC embarked on preparations for the assumption of power in government as stakes were clear that majority of South Africans were going to vote for the party. Policy positions informed by discussion documents like “Negotiations - A Strategic Perspective” of 1992 (ANC, 1992; Maharaj, 2008) laid foundations that has later informed all policy bifurcations that the party opted as well as the “Ready to Govern” policy document of 1992. The basic objectives of those policies were fourfold in that they were firstly, to strive for the achievement of the right of all South Africans, as a whole, to political and economic self-determination in a united South Africa; secondly, to overcome the legacy of inequality and injustice created by colonialism and apartheid, in a swift, progressive and principled way; thirdly, to develop a sustainable economy and state infrastructure that will progressively improve the quality of life of all South Africans; and fourthly, to encourage the flourishing of the feeling that South Africa belongs to all who live in it, to promote a common loyalty to and pride in the country and to create a universal sense of freedom and security within its borders (ANC, 1992; Turok, 2008; Maharaj, 2008). These objectives were however not mutually exclusive goals as the future of the country by that time depended on harmonious and simultaneous realisation of all objectives as outlined. The advancement of the majority of people’s will, in the medium-and-long-term, release hitherto untapped and suppressed talents and energies that were supposedly to both boost and diversify the economy. Developing the economy in turn provided the basis for overcoming the divisions of the past without creating new ones. Finally, the achievement of a genuine sense of national unity depended on all South Africans working together to overcome the inequalities created by apartheid (Turok, 2008; Maharaj, Desai and Bond, 2011). In real world however, this has proved to be impossible to delineate public-administration from neither politics nor reducing it to finite rational science due to its complex holistic nature destined towards
addressing the welfare of a society. More so, if such society is within the endogenous landscape like that of Africa which is characterised by rich diversity and multiplicity of cultural basis.

**From RDP, GEAR, New Growth Path, and NDP**

The founding policy intentions of the ready to govern provisions were encapsulated to Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) that served as election manifesto of the ruling party during the first democratic elections (Adelzadeh, 1996; Blumenfeld, 1996; Turok, 2008; Maharaj, 2008). It is argued that the persona of leadership at the time had a bearing on the extent how such policy position was conceived and implemented. It was not surprising for the policy to find expression in statutory governance through the pronouncement of the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) of 1994 as published in terms of notice number 1954 of 1994. The RDP was the primary vehicle through which the new Government of National Unity (GNU) sought to address these challenges (Blumenfeld, 1996; Weeks, 1999). In the early days of the GNU, the programme, which set out a broad framework for socio-economic reform, attracted virtually universal political support. But, however, within two years the programme had become so discredited that the separate RDP ministry that had been created in the President's own office was abolished. The openness of the RDP to different interpretations was both its strength and its weakness; it enabled all major social, political and economic interest groups to unite in support of the programme's broad aims; at the same time, it obscured the lack of consensus about specific and often controversial policy issues (Blumenfeld, 1996). Consequently, after the first year, when the GNU's general incapacity to deliver on its election promises in the developmental field became apparent, the RDP became an equally potent symbol of that failure. The release of the RDP White Paper in September 1994 signified the first major point of departure from both the goals and the ethos of the initial RDP document (Adelzadeh, 1996). It unsuccessfully attempted to reconcile the original Keynesian approach to the RDP with a set of policy statements and recommendations that were inspired by the neo-liberal framework that had long been the alternative offered, even if in different variants, by big business, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank, and, not least, the apartheid state itself in its twilight years in the form of the Normative Economic Model (NEM).

The key policy framework which has determined the trajectory of the post-apartheid economic transformation is the Growth, Employment, and Redistribution (GEAR) policy that the Department of Finance, now the National Treasury, introduced in June 1996 (Weeks, 1999; Heintz, 2003) and that was during the term of President Mandela (1918 – 2013). However Bond (2011) put that just as the world failed to shake the ‘Washington Consensus’ during the height of the September-October 2008 world economic crisis, South Africa could not shake ‘Mbekism’ at the same moment in that perhaps no South African talked left and walked right with more confidence and eloquence than former president Thabo Mbeki, who ruled not only from 1999-2008, but arguably also from 1994-99 as Nelson Mandela's deputy. The contention that this article asserts to be is a factor in both President Mandela (1918 – 2013) and President Mbeki (1942 - ) persona to afford space for competencies informed by validated schematic framework than common sense (Maharaj et al., 2011). At the same
time it needs to be noted that the responsible Minister at the time was Mr Trevor Emanuel, who was involved in drafting the RDP and later charged to be responsible for the Ministry of Planning in the Presidency during the era of President Zuma (1942 - ). The same unit that spearheaded the development of the National Development Plan (NDP) that it will later be outlined how it is viewed as a catalyst to take South Africa forward.

The GEAR policies were launched in an environment in which the rand was depreciating and foreign exchange reserves were at an extremely low level. The strategy proposed a set of medium-term policies aimed at the rapid liberalization of the South African economy (Weeks, 1999). The low acceptance mode of GEAR by trade union federations eventually relate to the commitment on the will of practitioners that had to ensure that it is reduced to practice. The state of readiness of the public practitioners to drive implementation of such policies remains a matter to be questioned. That is where the notion of separating politics from administration becomes an issue in relation to a variety of definitions as expounded above. Introduction of the New Growth Path during 2009 that culminated in the development of the National Development Plan (NDP) also did not survive evoking contentious debate from the union federations and alliance partners. Comprehensive as it is the NDP run the risk of being another ambitious project introduced by politicians that can suffer poor implementation due to administration antagonism by practitioners. That asserts the issue on debate that in as much as politicians may introduce grand policies, the leadership persona that run office at a given time have an impetuous on the extent that such policies find expression for implementation.

**Conclusion**

This article has empathetically articulated on the notion of persona within leadership in the context of South African public administration practice landscape. However examples from other states have been made as well as in relation to renowned thinkers within the field of Public Administration to justify that their thinking were partially informed by the schematic positions that shape up their persona in discharging their duties and eventually their competencies. The fact that each leader within a polity assume responsibility as an agent that have an internal structure that determines attitudes and ethos is paramount to such leader’s commitment and asserting a position that can take the governance forward without the trial and era fixation nor modifications of a policy to suite personal related egoism ulterior to intentions. The conclusion is that in the South African context, leadership persona has created policy incoherence phenomena of late to an extent that it is not clear that those in power really practice what they preach. The extent of shifting from one macro-policy to another reflect a situation wherein leadership have no idea as to at what stage will the polity stop to be becoming. From the layman’s point of view that can be easily translated by the application of common sense within the complex policy landscape, yet such common sense is not that common. If there is a time that South Africa or Africa in general had to consider putting leaders in office with competencies that it takes for one to assume such office, it cannot be at a right time than now. The South African experience can serve as a point of reference as the system is currently likened to the powder keg that can break at any time unless some meaningful intervention can be done. Of course this needs to be
considered within the realm of complexities that characterise the phenomena within Africa as a whole where endogenous systems have been disregarded in favour of the Western civilisation. That eventually created a vacuum for leaders to hide in-between the quagmire as it softens to their advantage. In this regard there is a need for self-reflection for Africa to chart its way forward.

References


Governance and Transformational Leadership

Dilemmas for Merged Universities in a Democratic South Africa

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Abstract: The relationship between higher education institutions, the state and society has always been precarious. Restructuring of South Africa’s higher education placed onto the agenda the type of institutional leadership required to drive transformation, especially for mergers and incorporations involving historically disadvantaged universities (HDUs). Simultaneously, universities experienced leadership instability, public contestations, paucity of academic leadership, internationalization and globalization imperatives, mushrooming of virtual, private and corporate universities as well as “growing corporatization, rampant managerialism and state control”, all of which colluded to render governance and transformational leadership of HDUs virtually intractable with dilemmas. State control of higher education appeared to contradict the requirement to adopt transformational leadership. But societal expectations for higher education institutions’ performance have entailed leadership that is “all things to all”. Whereas “pack” leadership is assumed to embrace qualities of team work, the ultimate responsibility for performance and/or non-performance of higher education institutions resides with individual leaders, whose freedoms of action are however tempered with, due to the extension of state powers. By definition, transformational leadership is diametrically inconsistent with over-bureaucratization and managerialism, because its qualities, principles and roles are characterised by charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration. This article asserts that a democratic South Africa’s restructuring of the higher education landscape was designed to establish parameters for enabling governance environment and transformational leadership, especially for merged HDUs. However, the state has incrementally legislated for extension of its powers over higher education sector, thereby creating inherent dilemmas for transformational leadership.

Keywords: Transformational Leadership; Governance; Historically Disadvantaged Universities; Mergers; South Africa

Introduction

Dominguez-Whitehead (2011, p.1314) characterizes a democratic South Africa’s higher education environment as a “climate of dissatisfaction … (and) hotbed for strike and protest activity”.

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Concurrently, as Cassim (2005, p.653) observes, post-1994 South Africa “has seen unprecedented changes in the higher education landscape” as restructuring policies of the democratic government were increasingly applied. A generally shared view of higher education is that the sector is by necessity in “a permanent state of change” because the state and society expect universities to generate solutions for perennial challenges and problems (Nolte, n.d.; Jansen, 2003; Vinger and Cilliers, 2006). Transformation, or even crevise change (unplanned), is “an inseparable part of organizations”; and, that in higher education has received intense and diversified consideration in recent times (Vinger and Cilliers, 2006, p.1). Universities are, per nature of their core business, required to be creative and innovative, ahead of both the funding-state, civil society and private business (Jansen, 2003; Mkandawire, 2005, 2011). Commonly, the state-university conflict revolves around authoritarianism, institutional autonomy and academic freedom (Jansen, 2003; du Toit, 2014); and, the African University has in general been subjected to “the incontinent insistence on conformity and sycophancy by authoritarian rulers” (Mkandawire, 2011, p.15).

Simultaneously as the South African tertiary institutions landscape was subjected to deep restructuring under circumstances of turbulence and uncertainty. To this extent, higher education governance entails ongoing exercise of principles and roles of transformational leadership necessary for ensuring that there is shared vision, team work and an enabling environment (Jansen, 2003; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). Also, there are restructuring micropolitics as well as internationalization and globalization imperatives that shape universities of different histories, cultures, capacities and ideologies (Jansen, Habib, Gibbon and Parekh, 2001; Jansen, 2003; Jack, 2007; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). Restructuring of a democratic South Africa’s higher education landscape, especially the merged HDUs, has entailed leadership that had to be, as it were, “all things to all” actors, inclusive of those internal and external to the institutions as well as the state. In this competitive and unforgiving environment, leadership of the HDUs has been challenged to “find the niche that is most compatible” with their institutions’ “inherent strengths” and “opportunities” (Nolte, n.d., p.135). Leadership of the HDUs is required to be transformative under the most testing political, economic, social and global contexts, and to create “learning organization”. Hence, Dr Mabelebele, CEO of HESA, notes that South Africa’s higher education sector involves “a complex and ever-changing” phenomena wherein “much is at stake” (cited in du Toit, 2014, viii).

In practice, “globalization affected institutional behaviour, processes and structures” (Levin, 1999, p.383 cited in Jansen et al., 2001, p.32). In consort with global trends, the post-apartheid democratization honeymoon of co-operative governance between the South African higher education institutions and the state became ephemeral (Jansen, 2003; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010; du Toit, 2014). Mergers in South Africa heralded complex institutional challenges because these institutions are “meant to redress past imbalances” out of institutions which entrenched inequality (Jack, 2007, n.d.). Besides, as Toni (2011, p.187) observes, “The higher education system was a reflection of how the South African society at large was to be politically administered".
Beyond the production of human capital and manpower, universities poignantly epitomize development and nation-building vision (Jansen, 2003; Beckman and Adeoti, 2006; Mkandawire, 2005, 2011). Regarding the African University, therefore, the limiting “material infrastructure and academic freedom” have made the continent so opaque (Mkandawire, 2011, p.15). For the same rationale, political change in South Africa entailed complex transformation challenges for the higher education system (Nolte, n.d.; Jansen, 2003; Jack, 2007; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). To this extent, merged universities were required to foster “new institutional culture and identity” under exceedingly complex challenging internal and external circumstances, especially the reluctance of the former Department of Higher Education to fund mergers (Jansen, 2003; Jack, 2007, n.d.). The historical legacies were compounded by the merged universities’ thin resource base (Jansen, 2003; Jack, 2007). There is no precedence for a democratic South Africa’s fragmentary racial higher education landscape, and the post-1997 restructuring has become a process of “groping in the dark”. Inevitably, restructuring of the governance of the higher education sector has experienced endless policy and legislative shifts from the 1996 “co-operative governance” framework to the 2012 amendments that extended the power of the state (du Toit, 2014). This article argues that governance of the post-apartheid South African University, especially the merged HDUs, is straddled with the oxymoron of co-operative governance, extension of state powers, institutional autonomy, academic freedoms and the requirement for transformational leadership, innovativeness and experimentation. The article will demonstrate that as democratization grew older, this oxymoron intensified.

Governance of Higher Education Institutions for Transformational Leadership

Leadership of HDUs is faced with public contestations at all levels, including students, staff, community and so on. To this extent, a combination of phenomenology, interactionism and critical reflection theoretical approaches is appropriate for analysis of the complex terrain that leadership of the HDUs has to negotiate and navigate. Leadership of HDUs entails judicious mix of “pack” and individual capabilities. This theoretical approach is pertinent to determining the transformative character of leadership of the HDUs as well as to understand the governance environment within which they operate. Leadership is itself, notwithstanding assertion to the contrary, an exercise of individuated capabilities and qualities, which are themselves products of “everyday lived experiences” of interactions with those who are being led. HDUs, as social systems, consist of different personalities and characters, including those that may seek to halt and disrupt progress, be destructive without even knowing it, complaining about self-created problems, cause divisions and conflict, create wrong impressions, deluding themselves of roles and the perfectly honest, genuine and committed stakeholders. Whereas phenomenology caters for understanding individuals’ dependence on “subjectivities” to experience life as they do, the latter is intricately intertwined with transformative leadership’s “lived” experiences of formal and informal interactions in the processes of which interventions and transactions are made to redress historical legacies of injustcies and inequity at HDUs. Furthermore, leadership of HDUs in South Africa should be understood in the context of both internal and external geopolitics; and, pragmatism dictates that a strong bias towards phenomenology
is imperative. Hence, the turmoil, instability and uncertainty embedded with transformative leadership of HDUs has been associated with continuous policy shifts and unending legislative changes that did not support the creation of learning organizations.

A series of factors shape and reshape higher education across the world; and, these include globalization, internationalization, reduction of public fund social investments as well as heightened focus on spending accountability and knowledge management approaches (Nolte, n.d.; Jansen, 2003; Jack, 2007; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). Theoretically, response and restructuring of universities would be expected to take variable trajectories because of the historical, cultural and ideological uniqueness of each institution. Commonly, universities have adopted nuance governance and managerialism approaches (Nolte, n.d.; Jansen, 2003; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). To this extent, leadership of universities translates directly into successful institutional response or obsolescence. Thus, leadership of South African higher education institutions, especially the merged HDUs, has been confronted with teething challenges under conditions of turmoil and socio-economic instability as well as future uncertainty, to be constructive, effective, courageous, and bold, as well as to rely on self-belief, common sense, balanced judgment and to take control of the specific tasks at hand whilst remaining generalists (Nolte, n.d.; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010).

From Government to Governance
Globally, the paradigm shift from government to governance has brought with vexed philosophical and ideological challenges for conceptualization of the relationship of the state with public entities such as state-owned enterprises and higher education institutions (Jansen, 2003; du Toit, 2014). Among other dimension of the ensuing conceptual contestations, especially in South Africa, is the notion of institutional autonomy and academic freedom for higher education. These considerations relate to contestations about the preferred form of governance. Arguments that the recent restructuring of the higher education institutions’ governance is an attack on their institutional autonomy are dismissed on the grounds that South African higher education institutions have never enjoyed autonomy, both in principle and practice (du Toit, 2014). The shift in paradigm from government to governance involved reorientation of government as the centre to being “a powerful partner in a multitude of governing arrangements” and as part of “a process of redefining and reconfiguring the state” (Cloete et al., 2002, pp.90-91). The concept of governance hopes to capture the sense of “mutual dependence between state and civil society” (NCHE, 1996, p.172 cited in du Toit, 2014, p.26), especially endeavours to emulate corporate sector practice. According to Cassim (2005, pp.663-664), “As higher education moves increasingly into a more competitive, international ‘education industry’, universities compete for resources by adopting a ‘market focus’”. In this context, the concept of co-operative governance had hoped to emphasise the interdependence of social partners.
Managerialism, Over-bureaucratization, Institutional Autonomy and Academic Freedom

Higher education systems continue to be subjected to multiple factors including globalization, internationalization, technological developments, politics, economics and sociocultural dynamics (Nolte, n.d.; Jansen, 2003; Jack, 2007; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). To a large extent, universities are forced to adopt private market ethos and to adapt to market philosophy, whilst traditional “distinctions between education and business, profit orientation … (and) non-profit orientation, and students as clients, customers or consumers” increasingly blurred as the market gained primacy (Nolte, n.d.). Within this context, the traditional “centralized legal-bureaucratic management” of universities as well as the claim for institutional autonomy and self-management increasingly lost traction (Nolte, n.d.; Jansen, 2003; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; du Toit, 2014).

Based on the notions of institutional autonomy and academic freedoms, universities in South Africa have always sought to adopt “collegiality leadership model” wherein “decisions of academics, in relation to students’ marks, are rarely questioned …. Professors professed; deans led; councils governed; administrators administered; and students studied” (Dominguez-Whitehead, 2011, p.1312-1313). Simultaneously, the concept of managerialism gained popularity wherein private sector business practices and approaches found increased application in public funded institutions such as state-owned enterprises (SOEs) and higher education. Among others, nuance managerialism included the introduction of total quality management, re-engineering, strategic management, continuous organizational renewal, competitiveness, performance management, balanced scorecards, budgeting cost centres, teamwork, setting goals and targets, control and monitoring mechanisms as well as efficiency requirements (Deem 2001, pp.10-11 cited in Nolte, n.d., p.124).

Evidently, new managerialism translated into vexed challenges for university leadership because private sector market philosophy is not entirely applicable to public institutions. Already, there are insinuations that universities have become nuance hybrid of SOEs, notwithstanding the unresolved issues of appropriateness, effectiveness, usefulness and efficiency of new managerialism. Undoubtedly, the cultures, purposes and operational goals of the private and public sectors are divergent and, sometimes, irreconcilable.

The entry and mushrooming of corporate, virtual and private universities, which added complexity to the higher education landscape, is the clearest indication of the tacit acceptance that the private market ethos and philosophy are not entirely applicable to public social investment. However, the attendant shifts in the higher education systems entailed changes in governance and leadership thereof; therefore, “new managerialism rendered leadership and governance competency ‘an imperative for progress’” as well as for survival (Nolte, n.d., p.126). These governance changes have equally entailed changes in academic freedom as well as institutional autonomy and power (Nolte, n.d.; Jansen, 2003; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; du Toit, 2014). That is, university restructuring is a response to both external and internal pressures for positioning and position-making, exacerbated by state-inflicted exposure to the rampant global economic neoliberalism (Jansen et al., 2001; Jansen, 2003; Jack, 2007; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010).
In South Africa too, managerial leadership or managerialism was occasioned by the restructuring of higher education (Dominguez-Whitehead, 2011). Under managerialism, the discourse of higher education blurs with that in corporate environment amidst nuance over-emphasis on “accountability”, “executive management” and “line managers” as part of “university governance jargon”, all of which translate into performance measurement, staff job vulnerability and insecurity, focus on competition and markets as well as “corporate management values, ideologies and techniques” (Gwele, 2008, pp.322-324 cited in Dominguez-Whitehead, 2011, p.1313). Managerial leadership approach has always been associated with tensions, power struggles, risk-prone decision-making and countless political considerations in governance (White, Riordan, Ozkanli and Neale, 2010; Dominguez-Whitehead, 2011; White, Carvalho and Riordan, 2011). Dominguez-Whitehead (2011, p.1325) concludes from a study of Large Merged Universities that “new managerialism apparent at institutions of higher education has disrupted traditional collegial governance structures and has pitted management against staff (including academic staff), leading to antagonism and distrust”.

**Governance of Higher Education Institutions**

Nolte (n.d., p.124) observes that higher education institutions are involved in “the creation and advancement of knowledge” but that they “are generally poor ‘learning organizations’ themselves”. To this extent, Jansen et al. (2001, p.32) draw from Scott (1998) to characterize university as “creator, interpreter and sufferer” of globalization pressures and forces. A democratic South Africa’s restructuring is a direct response to such pressures and forces (Jansen et al., 2001; Jansen, 2003; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). The restructuring of universities through mergers has been complex and challenging, with the result that the requirement to foster new institutional culture and identity is placed on the back seat (Jansen, 2003; Jack, 2007; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). Addressing historical and geographical challenges of merged universities on a “thin resource base” entails “boldness and zeal” in collective “pack” leadership that focuses on institutional goals (Jack, 2007; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). As a result, “provision of leadership in mergers of public institutions is more complex than in the private sector as these are mergers of ‘equals’” (Jack, 2007, n.d.). In South Africa, mergers of HDUs entail creation of “new institutions with new identities, structures, cultures, reward systems, information processes and work designs” (Vinger and Cilliers, 2006, p.2). As Vinger and Cilliers (2006, p.2) put it, “transformation is purposefully planned to change organizational structures and relationships, (whilst) crescive change is unplanned and occurs through a natural course of events”. That is, mergers necessitate transformation, which is a planned enacted change, rather than “crescive change” (Vinger and Cilliers, 2006); however, they both require transactional and transformational leadership and governance.

Besides individual personal qualities, leadership capabilities required to deal with the challenges of HDUs depend on public policy and material resources that involve income, investment and assets allocated to education and research (Marginson, 2010). However, all these necessities are suboptimal
and subordinated to culture, history and geography. Even the knowledge power of HDUs “is partly shaped by history, geography and scale, partly a function of investment and of language power, and affected also by less tangible cultural factors such as the will and the freedom to create” (Marginson, 2010, p.6972). South African mergers created a complex and challenging higher education institutional landscape (Jansen, 2003; Jack, 2007; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). Whether the mergers were “cogent or hazy” (Jack, 2007), they continue to require transactional and transformational leadership.

**Universities: Interstices of State and Society**

Higher education operations are simultaneously global, national and local because they are everywhere “nested in national government” and “shaped by patterns of social investment”, with much decision-making controlled by the state or framed through national public interests and political contexts (Marginson, 2010). But in the modern era, university academia matters “if only because they are significant in the interstices between the state and civil society” (Mkandawire, 2011, p.22). Unavoidably, as Marginson (2010, p.6972) observes, the global higher education landscape is in a state of flux; and, the fragilities in developing countries should not be surprising. Tertiary institutions, therefore, continue to require public funding to be sustainable, amidst a plethora of teething challenges. Working at university is often characterized as “working within a contentious environment” (Dominguez-Whitehead, 2011, p.1313). As a result of their situation in the interstices of state and society, universities are plagued by disruptive protests and strikes occasioned by dissatisfied students, academics and support staff (Oxlund, 2010; Dominguez-Whitehead, 2011). These incidents of protests and strikes add to the complexity faced by universities, with implications for institutionalized managerialism as well as transactional and transformational leadership.

Higher education institutions create space for critical public discourse with the result that universities are, for example, often brutally repressed and financially strangulated under authoritarianism (Jansen, 2003; Mkandawire, 2005, 2011). Equally, authoritarianism and democratic political systems create stressors, albeit of different kinds, for universities. Hence, as Mkandawire (2011, p.22) observes, “The collapse of the educational system, the parlous state of Africa’s publishing industry and the academic rituals and traditions of footnoting and citation, the self-inflicted misrepresentation by the many buffoons that somehow strutted and fretted on the centre stage of African politics … the cumulative effect of all this was tantamount to self-erasure”.

Given that the system of higher education in sub-Saharan Africa consists of enduring colonial and apartheid legacies (Tilak, 2011), it has rendered the notion of self-selection deeply paradoxical as decisions are unavoidably shaped by cultural (relating to legacies of ethnicity and race as destinies), ideological, historical and geographical factors about the establishment and geographic location of universities made (Jansen, 2003; Jack, 2007). It is under the same conditions of changing relationships between the higher education institutions, the state and society that leadership of South Africa’s HDUs has been challenged, sometimes unfairly, to achieve a judicious mix of “intelligence
and experience” as well as exceptional “ability to see (and foresee) diverse components” of their institutions as business, “as a whole and to assess rapidly what is important” (Nolte, n.d.).

Whereas Tilak (2011, p.29) notes that “public financing of higher education is still the best and most prevalent method of developing strong and vibrant higher education systems”; du Toit (2014, p.1) notes that twenty years of concerted comprehensive restructuring of higher education in South Africa have seen the Department of Education (now Department of Higher Education and Training) interventions meet with responses, from stakeholders such as Higher Education South Africa (HESA), that reveal in the process that this country has “reached a critical juncture in the governance of higher education, a belated moment of truth – even if its precise nature remains to be clarified”. Leadership of HDUs has to therefore ensure that universities have to “both remain legible to … various stakeholders and (to) become responsive to a pervasive rhetoric of innovation and entrepreneurship” (Knievel and Sheridan-Rabideau, 2009, p.36). Institutions of higher education are required to achieve specific national and international objectives; and, their leadership is required to create and recreate them into learning organizations (Nolte, n.d.; Jansen, 2003; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). Therefore, leadership of higher education institutions is increasingly placed under complex challenges occasioned by these institutions’ changing relationships with the state, societal and global actors (Nolte, n.d.; Jansen, 2003; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010; Dominguez-Whitehead, 2011; du Toit, 2014).

Transactional and Transformational Leadership
There are multiple types and styles of leadership including transactional, transformational, self-developed, principle-centred, “failing-forward” and laissez faire (Bass, 1998; Northouse, 2001; Vinger and Cilliers, 2006; Jack, 2007; Zuber-Skerritt, 2007; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010; Dominguez-Whitehead, 2011). But nuance paradigm of action learning and action research for leadership development emphasizes the collaboration, personalized relationships, cross-cultural communications, democratization and humanization of the leadership of higher education institutions above rationalization, control and over-bureaucratization (Jansen, 2003; Zuber-Skerritt, 2007; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009). Whereas “pack” leadership relies on the ideals of team work, leading is in the final analysis shaped and reshaped by strengths and weaknesses of leaders, relating to “cognitive, affective, motivational and interpersonal” characteristics (Vinger and Cilliers, 2006, p.7). Leadership is overwhelmingly qualitative and it involves learning and participatory processes, collaborative strategies, humanization and democratization of higher education (Jansen, 2003; Zuber-Skerritt, 2007; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010), which are all slippery and difficult to observe and/or measure with accuracy. In South Africa, state interventionism complicated university leadership due to the pervasiveness of market competition, managerialism as well as internationalization and globalization imperatives.

Transactional leadership involves exchanges of contingent rewards and management by exception between leaders and subordinates (Vinger and Cilliers, 2006). That is, beyond rewards, transactional
leadership relates to active and inactive corrective criticism as well as negative feedback and reinforcement (Northouse, 2001; Vinger and Cilliers, 2006). On its part, transformational leadership inculcates trust, admiration, loyalty and respect for the leaders whilst motivating subordinates to perform more than originally expected through the four basic “I’s”: idealized influence (charisma); individualized consideration; intellectual stimulation; and, inspirational motivation (Bass, 1998; Northouse, 2001; Vinger and Cilliers, 2006). On the bases of these four basic components, transformational leadership communicates an appealing vision with simple symbols and images in order to focus the efforts of subordinates, raise their emotions to emulate and identify with leaders, coach and encourage them with supportive feedback, delegation and advice for their personal development, as well as raise awareness of problems and the requirement for creativity, innovation and ability to take measured risks (Bass, 1998; Northouse, 2001; Vinger and Cilliers, 2006). Inevitably, change leads to anxiety, anger, depression, tension, disenchantment and helplessness (Bass, 1998; Northouse, 2001; Vinger and Cilliers, 2006), among other challenges, which transformational leadership is assumed to be capable of addressing.

Focus on leadership entails that these institutions “embrace well-established management principles and practices”, strategic and “exemplary” human resources management as well as meaningful and suitable organizational control mechanisms (Nolte, n.d., p.135). Among other things, leadership is required to simultaneously be intelligent, experienced, substantially self-confident, effective, progressive, constructive, innovative, courageous, bold, decisive, generalist, specific, directive futuristic as well as being capable of perseverance, taking control, exercising balanced judgment, rely on common sense, taking calculated risk, promote experimentation in uncharted territories, adopt unconventional solutions, defy odds and holding positive mind-set (Nasser and Vivier, 1993, p.154 cited in Nolte, n.d., p.134). Whereas the requirement for effective leadership is self-explanatory for higher education institutions, the expectation to adopt an empowerment approach that motivates, coach, encourage, provide vision and direction is not always an automatic result of effective leadership (Nolte, n.d.; Jansen, 2003; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). Notwithstanding the vogue of “pack” leadership, leading “cannot be shared under all conditions” because some circumstances require “directive” and “task-oriented” qualities in individual leaders.

Taking from Balster (2002), Chipunza and Gwarinda (2010) assert that transformational leadership, which can be traced back to the concept of transactional leadership, provides the framework, principles, character and roles that are required for the governance and management of mergers and incorporations involving South Africa’s HDUs. Whereas transactional leadership relates to exchange and promise of rewards for effort as well as responsiveness to immediate interests of the subordinates, transformational leadership “involves charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration” (Bass, 1990 and Balster, 2002 cited in Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010, p.2). The four characteristics of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individual
consideration encapsulate the qualities, principles and roles of transformational leadership (Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010).

Charismatic leaders are capable of instilling pride, respect and trust in the institution’s stakeholders by vigorously ensuring that the vision and mission are commonly shared (Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). Also, such leaders set and communicate high expectations, use symbols “to focus efforts and expresses important purposes in simple ways” (Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010, p.2). Furthermore, transformational leaders use intellectual stimulation “to promote intelligence, rationality and careful problem solving” (Avolio, Waldman and Yammarino, 1991 cited in Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010, p.2). Finally, Chipunza and Gwarinda (2010, p.2) asserts that “The transformational leader gives personal attention, treats each employee individually and coaches and advises, thus giving individualized consideration to employees”.

Drawing from analyses of the four characteristics of transformational leadership, Chipunza and Gwarinda (2010, p.2) formulates four transformational roles of leaders as follows: developing shared vision and defining its value and principles; communicating strategic direction and clarifying its content and meaning; empowering subordinates by allowing them decision-making authority and access to information relevant for supporting progressive change, as well as rewarding them for risk-taking and innovativeness; and, developing capacity for change, preparing subordinates for readiness to participate in transformation through skills training as well as catering for their emotional well-being. Primarily, transformational leadership inspires subordinates to exert effort and perform in accordance with the change required. A sense of security will enhance self-worth, emotional anchorage, self-esteem and personal strength among subordinates (Zuber-Skerritt, 2007).

Vinger and Cilliers (2006) adjudge laissez faire leadership as a non-leadership style because higher education institutions, as organizations, are involved in change, planned and unplanned. Leadership needs, therefore, to be actively involved in mobilizing, inspiring, instilling confidence and focusing the efforts of subordinates on the vision of the institution. Given that change is itself dynamic, it requires constant management; and, laissez faire leadership “abdicates responsibilities and avoids making decisions” (Vinger and Cilliers, 2006, p.2). Transformational leadership is enterprising, communicative, open-minded, inspirational, capable of pep talks, knowledgeable of macro- and micro-environment, recognizes the significance of continuous information gathering, committed to lifelong learning and education, and able to clearly articulate an appealing vision (Bass, 1998; Northouse, 2001; Vinger and Cilliers, 2006). Institutions are, however, perpetually trapped in red tape, fixed hierarchical bureaucracies, rigid adherence to policies and procedures, avoidance of dysfunctional conflict and taking mistakes and failures as normal occurrences of learning. Equally, being forthright is often criticized for being “inconsiderate, inhumane, disrespectful, unreasonably confrontational, ‘devilish’, not caring, and lacking people skills” (Vinger and Cilliers, 2006, p.6). Notwithstanding the notion that transformational leadership involves acting “too perfectionist” and “compulsive”, Vinger and Cilliers (2006, p.6) argues that “if being forthright was perceived as being genuinely wanting to achieve the organizational objectives, manage change effectively and efficiently, and create functional conflict,
then it constitutes a strength”. Higher education institution literature show that knowledge economy concentrations which refer to “effective synergies between higher education and research, government policies, industry and above all, evolving global cities” (Marginson, 2010, p.6972) are inextricably connected to culture, history and geography. The South African society consists of multiple diverse cultures and histories in all dimensions of life. Hence, democratization has entailed restructuring and transformation of higher education system (South Africa.info, 2014), which was dominated by mergers and incorporations legislated in 1997 (Answers Africa, 2014); and, transformational leadership has been a necessary and sufficient condition for transformation of merged HDUs.

**African University and the Global Knowledge Economy**

With the ascendency of the global knowledge economy, as Tilak (2011, p.5) asserts, higher education in Southern Africa has ironically remained “fragile” with “a weak base”. Simultaneously as Africa recorded the “fastest growing university population in the world”, the vogue of democratization and extensions of greater freedoms in the continent re-invoked philosophical and ideological discourses on education, in general, and the African University, in particular (Mkandawire, 2005, 2011). Democratization struggles renewed interest in higher education, widening “intellectual space for academics”, providing “respite from the suffocating atmosphere of authoritarianism” and giving “greater political protection to universities as institutions” (Mkandawire, 2011, p.24). But expansion of the higher education system in Africa involved “mushrooming of private universities and centres of excellence”, whose intellectual sustenance continues to paradoxically depend heavily on public universities (Mkandawire, 2005, 2011). Universities have, historically, proven to be resilient in the face of instability, turbulence, turmoil, uncertainty, authoritarianism, tribulations and so on, largely due to unwavering commitment and dedication by faculty and students (Jansen, 2003; Mkandawire, 2005, 2011; du Toit, 2014). The African University too require transformational leadership to navigate the dialectical dilemmas occasioned by the internal and external geopolitics.

**Restructuring South Africa’s Higher Education Sector and Extension of State Powers**

With political democratization in South Africa, higher education institutions too came to “grapple with transformation and with reinventing themselves” (Cassim, 2005, p.664) because the sector was exposed to the global knowledge economy (Jansen, 2003; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). Additionally, the sector faced “a plethora of challenges” including national financial aid system, poor graduation rates, student housing and faculty management (Dominguez-Whitehead, 2011, p.1310). Consequently, there was urgent need to establish “a unifying organizational culture, requisite for dismantling cultural, identity and hegemonic boundaries that are residues of the previously racialized South African higher education system of the apartheid era” (Toni, 2011, p.187). After mergers and incorporations, South Africa consists of 23 universities that are classified into three categories: traditional theory-oriented, universities of technology and comprehensive universities (White, Riordan, Ozkanli and Neale, 2010; Tilak, 2011).
Restructuring led to the creation of several mergers of HDUs with previously “white” institutions. Given the diversities of cultures, histories, ideologies and geographic locations of the merged institutions, a variety of teething challenges confronted their leadership. HDUs leadership came to be confronted with challenges relating to student finances, race and gender bias, security, politics and such other operational dynamics. Notwithstanding the renewed focus on teaching and research, leadership of merged HDUs was expected, sometimes unfairly, to open doors for all students who came from poor households whilst having to obey intake quotas, business ethos and limitations of both public funding and physical infrastructure provisions. Furthermore, HDUs leadership was required to ensure that the core business of these institutions proceed unhindered. Importantly, HDUs leadership was required to ensure that these institutions operate and compete at the same level with those of the formerly white tertiary institutions, notwithstanding the uniqueness of their environments, cultures, histories, ideologies and geographic regions.

The major institutional management challenge for merged universities is, according to Nolte (n.d., p.135), finding “the niche that is most compatible with the institution’s … inherent strengths and the opportunities that exist in its environment”. This article holds that leadership of merged HDUs was never a smooth process and that it was clouted with teething challenges. Th restructuring burden was devolved to merged HDUs' leadership amidst paradoxes related to “co-operative governance”, “institutional autonomy” and state control (Nolte, n.d.; du Toit, 2014). Paradoxically, the extension of the powers of the Minister of the Department of Higher Education and Training (DoHET) to intervene goes beyond those institutions that are unable to address their own affairs with management and governance crises to embrace the rest of the higher education sector (du Toit, 2014). Simultaneously, the DoHET further complicates the environment in which leadership of higher education institutions is required to take control, make judgments and use common sense as well as be decisive, responsive and effective, when principles of institutional autonomy, academic freedom, public accountability and co-operative governance are restructured against them. To this extent, leadership has been required to play a critical role in the creation of learning organizations as well as the attendant institutional performance and/or under-performance amidst “conditions of turmoil, socio-economic instability and future uncertainty” (Nolte, n.d., p.134).

**Shifting Higher Education Policy in a Democratic South Africa**

Restructuring of South Africa’s higher education landscape under the democratic dispensation, remains an unresolved moot point. Whilst the restructuring re-invoked questions of institutional autonomy and “co-operative governance”, it has also altered the sensitive relationships between the state and higher education (du Toit, 2014). Jansen’s (2004,p.5 cited in du Toit, 2014, p.2) observation reveals a paradox of a “gradual but systematic erosion of historical standards of autonomy that were ingrained within the institutional fabric of universities, thus redefining conceptions of institutional autonomy as the state systematically acquires new forms of power over the universities through a series of policy and regulatory-based incursions”. Within this testing environment, leadership of HDUs too is required to take control, have self-believe, be decisive, effective and responsive, focus
simultaneously on specifics and the general picture, make judgments, display common sense, demonstrate intelligence and experience, and “be all things to all” in order to create learning organizations (Nolte, n.d.; Jansen, 2003; du Toit, 2014). Whereas notions of “pack” leadership have been commonly flouted for theoretical convenience, pragmatism dictates that leadership of HDUs have come down to individual responsibilities and qualities. It is, therefore, imperative to understand the multidimensional dilemmas that the higher education environment has presented to the leadership of merged HDUs under the democratic dispensation. Accordingly, the Chief Executive Officer of HESA, Dr Mabelebele, has recently called for scholarship engagement in such leadership matters (see du Toit, 2014).

Transformation of the higher education systems in South Africa can be traced back to the 1996 National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE) Report, the 1997 White Paper on A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education, the 2000 Council on Higher Education’s (CHE) Shape and Size of Higher Education Task Team Report, the 2001 National Plan for Higher Education and the 2012 amendment of the laws (Nolte, n.d.; du Toit, 2014). The 1996 Green Paper on Higher Education Transformation culminated in the Higher Education Act 101 of 1997 (Department of Education, 1997). But restructuring of the relationships between higher education institutions, the state and society is specifically traced back to the 1997 White Paper 3: A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education, which was amended through the Higher Education and Laws Amendment Act 23 of 2012 (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2012). The latter instituted major legislative changes in South Africa’s higher education environment, such as the extension of the Minister’s powers to intervene, dissolve Councils and appoint Administrators for higher education institutions under a variety of guises including “poor or non-performance” or “maladministration” (du Toit, 2014). Even with these amendments, the DoHET (2012) however acknowledges the basic principles set in the DoE’s Higher Education Act 101 of 1997 thus: “It is the responsibility of higher education institutions to manage their own affairs... (and that) Diversity and flexibility are important aspects of institutional responses to varying needs and circumstances”. To be precise, the governance and management of South Africa’s higher education institutions was made more complex through the extension of the powers of the Minister of the newly named Department of Higher Education and Training (DoHET) in the 2012 amendment of the laws (du Toit, 2014). The National Working Group on Education of the Ministry of Education (MoE) recommended in 2001 the reduction of South Africa’s 36 Universities and Technikons to 23, which was to be facilitated through mergers and incorporations (Jansen, 2003; MoE, 2003; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). These early changes in legislation marked an unambiguous state intention to regulate and improve the efficiency of higher education (Dominguez-Whitehead, 2011). To this extent, as Barnes (2006) purports, the discourse about restructuring shifted from desirability to feasibility.

The Council on Higher Education (CHE, 2001) describes the proposed plans for mergers and incorporations in the National Plan for Higher Education Policy with the provision that the new universities will require new visions, missions and cultures. Regarding governance of the merged
universities, the MoE (2003) merely stipulates that it is important not to have leadership and management vacuum in the process of executing mergers and incorporations. That is, the MoE’s (2003) primary governance concern relating to mergers and incorporations was focused on managerial leadership. The policy shifts during the democratic era have occasioned fundamental changes in the higher education environment, creating in the process virtual turmoil, instability, uncertainty and unpredictability for leadership of these institutions. Inevitably, these interventions were construed as the Department of Higher Education and Training’s (DoHET) statement of effective interference in the governance of higher education institutions. Rather than create advantage for the leadership of merged HDUs, these legislative measures have instead compounded the dilemmas embedded with the environment that entails transformational leadership and creation of “learning organization”. Equally, these interventions exposed conceptual deficiencies in “the principles of institutional autonomy, public accountability, academic freedom and co-operative governance” (Dr Mabelebele, CEO of HESA, cited in du Toit, 2014, vii). Importantly, they further complicated the duties and roles of leadership of merged HDUs because restructuring of powers had paradoxical discrepancies with the requirements for transformational leadership to take control, be decisive, make judgments, use common sense, be effective and responsive, recognize the general picture whilst acting on specificities of circumstances. DoHET’s 2012 amendments have inescapably altered the dynamics of leadership of merged HDUs, given the precariousness of the relationships of state and society as well as the imperatives of balancing competing demands, interests and goals and challenges of globalization, internationalization and micropolitics.

HESA’s observation, relating to the 2012 legislative amendment of laws governing the higher education sector in South Africa, was that they posed “a threat to the institutional autonomy of universities in an attempt to bring them under the direct control of the Ministry” (cited in du Toit, 2014, p.2). Restructuring of South Africa’s higher education sector placed onto the agenda the type of leadership required to drive the process of transformation, especially for mergers and incorporations involving HDUs. Simultaneously, there was leadership instability, public contestations, paucity of academic leadership, neoliberal globalization, mushrooming of virtual, private and corporate universities as well as “growing corporatization, rampant managerialism and state control” of the higher education system, all of which colluded to render leadership and management of HDUs virtually intractable. Analysing restructuring of the University of the Western Cape (HDU), Jansen et al. (2001, p.35) observe that “The problem with the marketization … and the preparation of a higher education landscape … is that this discourse co-existed with calls from the state for greater cooperation among regional institutions”. Co-operative governance of South Africa’s higher education was proposed in 1996 by the National Commission of Higher Education (NCHE); however, the state appears to have always modified the practice (Symes, 2005, p.25 cited in du Toit, 2014, p.4). In fact, it is often argued that the 1997 White Paper, the 1998 Higher Education Act as well as its subsequent legislative amendments and the 2001 National Plan for Higher Education (NPHE) did not conform to the proposed co-operative governance (Jansen, 2003; du Toit, 2014). In 2002, the Task Team on Governance in Higher Education of the Council on Higher Education (CHE) cautioned that continued
use of the notion of co-operative governance when it no longer applied could cause confusion and hinder policy development and good practice (Jansen, 2003; du Toit, 2014).

According to the Vice-chancellor of the University of Johannesburg, Dr Ihron Rensburg (2013), the net effect of the 2012 amendments is to erode universities’ autonomy and transform them into state-owned enterprises (cited in du Toit, 2014, p. 2). Du Toit (2014, p.3) has however disputed these observations on the grounds that South African universities have “never managed to achieve anything like institutional autonomy, neither in principle nor in practice”. Given that the 1997 legislation provided for co-operative governance of higher education institutions, du Toit (2014, p.3) holds that this foundational framework of the post-apartheid democratic governance of higher education “has explicitly ruled out institutional autonomy as a basic right, just as much as it abjured the state’s prerogative for direct control of universities”. As Domínguez-Whitehead (2011) puts it, one of the major changes in the restructuring of South Africa’s higher education has been in the series of merger of 19 institutions between 2000 and 2005, which have evidently become costly and protracted (Barnes, 2006; Maistry and Ramdhani, 2010; Oxlund, 2010; Domínguez-Whitehead, 2011). Whereas policy shifts have always had an appearance of transformational promise, restructuring of the higher education in South Africa has been bedevilled by experiences of disempowerment (Oxlund, 2010; Domínguez-Whitehead, 2011), which preclude the exercise of transformational leadership. Concluding her inaugural lecture, Mkandawire (2011, p.25) eloquently demonstrates the strong connection between university, state, society and development thus:

“… the crisis of the African university is closely related to the crisis of development. Consequently, ‘bringing development back in’ will require a revitalization of the African University, its internal functioning and its relationships with the global world knowledge. The African University matters to Africa. … All this immediately places a heavy burden on the African University itself. And if Africa will have to run, the university will have to sprint”.

According to Nolte (n.d., p.135), “South African institutions will have to take into account the course charted for higher education in the National Plan … and the new Higher Education Policy”. But the environment for restructuring is disabling because of the inherent multivariate dilemmas.

### Dilemmas of Governance and Transformational Leadership of HDUs

Literature on higher education posits that “the quality of organizational leadership is a critical variable not only in shaping institutional micro-politics but in affecting the capacity of universities to respond to the relentless demands of the state under conditions of globalisation” (Jansen, Habib, Gibbon and Parekh, 2001; Jansen, 2003; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010; Domínguez-Whitehead, 2011). This observation has been true for a democratic South Africa where government has adopted a variety of legislative instruments to restructure the higher education landscape (Jansen, 2003; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010; du Toit, 2014). Domínguez-Whitehead (2011, p.1310) observes that “Higher education in South Africa faces a plethora of challenges” including internal strikes and protests as well as the context of rising expectations” occasioned by “recent higher education policy developments, newly institutionalized managerialism, and broader socio-economic implications”. As the Chief
Executive Officer of Higher Education South Africa (HESA), Dr Jeffrey Mabelebele, notes, higher education balancing act involves a variety of dimensions, including complementary and competing interests, dependent and interdependent goals as well as common and opposed goals between higher education institutions, the state and society (cited in du Toit, 2014). Added to these challenges, as Dr Mabelebele asserts, are the “issues such as increased funding, maintaining academic standards, increased levels of institutional efficiency and effectiveness” and so on (cited in du Toit, 2014, vii). At times, the changing higher education landscape in South Africa as responses to globalization, state and societal imperatives tended to redefine students as customers (Nolte, n.d.; Jansen et al., 2001; Jansen, 2003; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). The most enduring challenge, though, especially under mergers, has been the requirement on the higher education institutions to create and recreate themselves into “learning organizations” through effective or transformational leadership (Nolte, n.d.; Vinger and Cilliers, 2006; Jack, 2007; Zuber-Skerritt, 2007; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). It has been in this context that the role of leadership of higher education institutions has been critically significant over the past twenty years of democracy in South Africa, especially for the HDUs. But HDUs transformational leadership has been clouted with intractable dilemmas.

Mergers and incorporations of higher education sector in South Africa took place under testing challenges, which Chipunza and Gwarinda (2010, p.2) classify into five categories as follows: increased leadership instability; divergent views on leadership roles; conspicuous paucity of quality and credibility of academic leadership at HDUs; absence of minimum systems for implementation; and, “growing corporatization, rampant managerialism and state control”. Whereas the MoE (2003) raised concerns that there should be no leadership vacuum, the merger and incorporation plans of the CHE (2001) did not specify the type of institutional leadership required. For this reason, the principles and characteristics of good governance required by policy for mergers and incorporations involving HDUs was left to the institutional leadership. However, it was always clear what the leadership of the new merged HDUs was required to achieve, because implementation of guidelines for good governance was not an end in itself. Among other things, leadership of mergers and incorporations was required to have the necessary qualities and credibility to successfully manage the process of transformation, address issues of institutional leadership itself. There was acceptance that to be successful, mergers dependent on the leaders’ management of the transformation process, especially in the preparation, communication, support as well as building of leadership commitment and alignment to the imminent changes (Jansen, 2003; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010).

According to Vinger and Cilliers (2006), leadership of South Africa’s higher education institutions, especially under mergers, has become intense and diversified with attempts, in some cases, to distinguish leaders from non-leaders, transformational from ineffective leaders. Notwithstanding acceptance of the potential for success through “pack” leadership, teamwork is not always everything, especially under South Africa’s merged HDUs because of the deep-seated contestations of the higher
education public sector. But “pack” leadership is identified as a unique style for South Africa where it is necessary to almost always adopt a “mixture between benevolent dictatorship, cultivated autocracy” as well as “shuttle collaboration” because the allowance for opposed viewpoints and contestations should make for nuance “perspectives, unusual, counter-trend ideas” rather than marginalization of weaker actors and tolerance of divisive conduct (Nolte, n.d., p.134). The prospects for survival of higher education institutions in South Africa, under circumstances of turbulence, instability and uncertainty, came to be dependent on transformational leadership, without which the sector would become precarious (Jansen, 2003; Vinger and Cilliers, 2006; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). Studies of leadership of South Africa’s higher education institutions show that perceptions about the lack of transformational leadership are not accurate (Jansen, 2003; Vinger and Cilliers, 2006; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). Indeed, merged HDUs may have become precarious if they had lacked “appropriate leadership” (Jansen, 2003; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Vinger and Cilliers, 2006).

South Africa’s higher education institutions have been associated with multiple types of leadership including transformational, self-developed, principle-centered, “failing forward” and pack leadership (Vinger and Cilliers, 2006; Jack, 2007; Zuber-Skerritt, 2007; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010; Dominguez-Whitehead, 2011). The perception that there was lack of transformational leadership in South Africa’s merged HDUs has not been supported by real life evidence (Jansen, 2003; Vinger and Cilliers, 2006; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Dominguez-Whitehead, 2011). The nuance paradigm of action research and learning for leadership development emphasizes collaboration, personalized relationships, cross-cultural communications, democratization and humanization of the leadership of higher education institutions above rationalization, managerialism, control and over-bureaucratization (Jansen, 2003; Zuber-Skerritt, 2007; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009). Jansen et al. (2001, p.37) conclude that “The loss of institutional autonomy is real, given the regulatory framework imposed by SAQA, the CHE and the Department of Higher Education”. The imposition of corporate style management such as in the Executive Deans, has meant that “the regulatory role of the state, the expanding role of markets and the influential role of international agencies” would become prime whilst institutional autonomy and academic freedom are undermined (Jansen et al., 2001, p.37). At the core of managerialism is the nuance requirement that higher education sector be managed as business. But the applicability of managerial leadership to merged HDUs has always been questionable on the grounds that it involves a virtual transplant of principles of the business environment into the public sector. Essentially, governance of merged HDUs required “strong and visionary leadership” (Jansen, 2003; Fernandez, 2005; Louw and Zuber-Skerritt, 2009; Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010). According to Zuber-Skerritt (2007, p.1003), “In higher education in South Africa, as elsewhere, the human heart is the heart of the matter of leadership development”; for this reason, it is imperative to understand how leadership of HDUs “integrate the human dimension with the social and economic dimensions and goals of higher education”. That is, leadership of merged HDUs is expected to “integrate heart and head in a holistic way ... combine soft
and hard" management strategies in order for leaders to "serve as role models, mentors, coaches, co-
learners, co-researchers and co-leaders" (Zuber-Skerritt, 2007, p.1003).

There is justification to assume that transformational leadership characteristics, principles and roles
are pertinent to managing change for merged HDUs. However, the external and internal environment
relating to micro-politics, neoliberal globalization, corporatization, rampant reverence for
managerialism, increased state control, is not enabling. In this context, it becomes virtually impossible
for transformational leadership to find and establish appropriate public spaces for risk-taking,
innovativeness, boldness, decisiveness, self-believe, experimentation and so on. How are
transformational leaders expected to inspire nuance institutional culture of merged HDUs in the
context where there is dearth of appropriate legislation, tacit encouragement of divisiveness,
stimulation of divergent views of the vision and mission as well as deliberate political interference and
state control of governance? Given the insistence on the application of democratic principles,
transformational leadership faces serious dilemmas relating to how to create commonly shared
distinct institutional culture of merged HDUs with, sometimes, contradictory cultures, procedures,
systems and policies held by faculty whose geopolitical self-imaginary remains frozen in the past. As
Chipunza and Gwarinda (2010, p.3) put it, a common cultural identity “develops on the basis of
shared vision and mission, strategy, policies, systems and procedures”, which have to a significant
degree been contested and complicated by the dearth of appropriate legislation and the increased
state interference in the governance of HDUs.

Even where transformational leadership was attempted, merged HDUs did not have the required
minimal systems and/or experience; and, there is negligible international practice of transformational
leadership in higher education from where lessons and advice could be drawn. The most fundamental
challenge of transformational leadership has been that leadership itself had to change on ongoing
basis because it was not supposed to be the end product by itself. However, such leadership
instability was political and state controlled. In the process of transforming governance of HDUs,
these institutions virtually operated as SOEs rather than higher education entities. The MoE’s (2003)
requirement for good governanc
development of the attendant
difficulties and complexities of the mergers,
the state has to create an enabling environment
within which transformational leadership can be executed for successful restructuring of the merged
HDUs. It is not surprising that the state is now unbundling one of the most complex of the mergers,
the University of Limpopo. Indeed, the factors underlying the demerger do not involve the lack of
transformational leadership qualities, skills, characteristics, principles and roles. To the contrary, the
University of Limpopo has since 2005 been a vibrant public space with pronouncement and
refinements of nuance vision, mission and culture, experimentation, risk-taking, innovativeness,
intellectual inspiration and stimulation, boldness, strong and decisive management as well as individual consideration of employees.

This article accepts that there is no lack of transformational leadership in South Africa, instead it is the neo-libertarian statism, corporatization, exposure to globalization, increased state control and interference in governance of higher education sector, as well as the requirement to apply free market business ethos in the deeply different public sector environment that are at the centre of the poor performance of some of the merged HDUs. To be successful, governance of merged HDUs should avoid rationalization, managerialism, state control and over-bureaucratization in order that transformational leadership could, if we could draw from Zuber-Skerritt's (2007, p.1003) formulation, re-humanize the new institutions through democratization and collaborative strategies which place emphasis on personal relationships, cross-cultural communications, integration of heart and head, judicious mix of soft and hard tactics as well as process and knowledge management, wherein leaders serve simultaneously as "role models, mentors, coaches, co-learners, co-researchers and co-leaders". Transformational leadership can capably integrate human, social and economic dimensions in the governance of higher education because all across the world, including in South Africa, "the human heart is the heart of the matter of leadership development" (Zuber-Skerritt, 2007, p.1003).

**Conclusion**

This article rejects the insinuation that South Africa's restructuring of the higher education was bedevilled by the dearth of effective transformational leadership. The DoHET has on its part reinforced reverence for managerialism, which thwarts the scope for innovativeness, imaginativeness, risk-taking, application of common sense and experimentation required for the transformation of merged HDUs. Consequently, merged HDUs have experienced internal micropolitics of restructuring, exacerbated by internationalization and globalization imperatives as well as neoliberal state fiscal austerities and controls. As Jansen et al., (2001, p.37) observe, South African University restructuring could in the final analysis “signal a decisive triumph of the neoliberal state where the logic of markets … and state interventionism … might, simply and effectively, resolve the fate of weak universities”. This article asserted that the fate of merged HDUs, under the ongoing internal politics and external pressures, depends exclusively on leadership styles adopted; and, transformational leadership would ensure survival and, in most cases, outstanding performance. However, the article concludes that the potential for transformational leadership of merged HDUs has faced intractable governance dilemmas of a disabling environment diametrically opposed to qualities of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration. Merged HDUs would inescapably underperform if transformational leadership is not allowed adequate public scope for pragmatic exercise.

**References**


An Empirical Research on the Relationship between Quality of Work Life and Leadership Styles in SMEs

T S Nanjundeswaraswamy¹ and Dr. Swamy D R²

Abstract: Literature on Quality of Work Life (QWL) is limited and several studies commonly correlate with some variables but no study on QWL has associated with Leadership styles. This research investigates the relationship between QWL of employees and Leadership styles in SMEs. The objectives of the study are a) To find the status of QWL of employees in SMEs, b) To investigate and determine the relationships between QWL and Leadership styles and c) To compare the QWL under Transformational Leadership style and Transactional leadership style. In this context, study conducted in mechanical manufacturing SMEs in and around Bangalore. Results showed that there is a significant relationship between QWL and Leadership styles. Under Transformational leadership style employees enjoys high level of Quality of Work Life.

Key Words: Quality of Work Life, Leadership Styles, Transformational Leadership Style, Transactional Leadership Style.

1. Introduction
Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) play a vital role in a nation’s development through its high contribution towards domestic production, significant export earnings, low investment requirements and operational flexibility, so growth and efficient operation of SMES is an essential factor for any economy. According to the Deloitte Research Report on “Growth Opportunity for Indian SMEs” (2008) there are many hurdles that deprive SMEs from achieving their full potential like, use of obsolete technology, lack of finance, drastic changes in technology, non-availability of skilled manpower, employee turnover, absenteeism etc. For success of any organization, it requires competent

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manpower. Presently, the SMEs are reeling under the crisis of employee turnover which is one of the major threats. Employee turnover is adversely affecting the quality of products and services offered, Pizam and Thornburg (2000). Addressing to employee turnover has become a major concern for SMEs. Further, it is not possible to design jobs solely grounded on the needs of technology completely overlooking the needs of workers. There is an all-round demand for developing the humanized jobs which can satisfy workers with respect to their job and work environment. The jobs need to be excellent both from the point of view of technology and human needs. In view of this, the traditional job design needs to be replaced by enriched job design. This enriched job design which is stipulated for redesigning of jobs is known as Quality of Work Life (QWL).

Raduan Che Rose et al. (2006) opined that QWL programs will benefit both employees and management, by mutually solving work related problems, building cooperation, improving work environments, restructuring tasks carefully and fairly managing human resource outcomes and payoffs. The motivation for the employees is possible through effective implementation of QWL, which in turn reduces mental stress, absenteeism and enhances job satisfaction and employee performance. Mehdi Barzegar et al. (2012) study highlights, the effective approach to QWL improvement appears to be very demanding, faced with the full-range challenges of change management in the organization, requiring strong leadership.

Leadership is a social influence process in which the leader seeks the voluntary participation of followers in an effort to reach organization goals (Bunmi Omolayo 2007). An effective leader influences followers in a specific manner to achieve desired goals. Different leadership styles may affect organizational performance (Nahavandi 2002). Workers under democratic leadership style do not experience high job related tension but, employees experiences high job related tensions under autocratic leadership styles (Bunmi Omolayo 2007). However there is a gap in the literature which explains the link between the leadership styles and various dimensions of QWL.

The present research is an effort to gain more insight on the correlation between QWL and Leadership styles among the employees working in mechanical manufacturing SMEs.

**Literature Review**

*Quality of Work Life (QWL):*

According to Chander and Singh (1983), the QWL is a dynamic multidimensional construct that includes reward systems, training, career advancements opportunities, participation in decision making, employment conditions, employment security, income adequacy, profit sharing, equity and other rewards, employee autonomy, employee commitment, social interaction, self esteem, self expression, democracy, employee satisfaction, employee involvement, advancement, relations with supervisors and peers and job enrichment. Gardon (1984) argues that QWL has two objectives, one is to enhance the productivity and other one is to achieve the satisfaction of employees.
According to Gunaseelaan and Rethinam et al. (2008), QWL is a multi-dimensional construct, made up of a number of interrelated factors that needs careful consideration to conceptualize and measure. It is associated with job satisfaction, job involvement, motivation, productivity, health, safety and well-being, job security, competence development and balance between work and non-work life. The absence of QWL results in job dissatisfaction which in turn leads to deficiency in motivation and moral in the employees.

Daud Normala (2010), investigated the relationship between QWL and organizational commitment among employees in Malaysian firms. Seven QWL variables were examined. They are growth and development, participation, physical environment, supervision, pay and benefits and social relevance to determine their relationship with organizational commitment. The research identified that QWL variables are associated with job commitment and job satisfaction. This study emphasized that determining the QWL of employees is an important consideration for employers interested in improving employee's job satisfaction and job commitment.

A study conducted by Abbasi et al. (2011), for employees in industrial units of Ardabil province identified that the Quality of Work Life has a positive relation to other variables in the organization such as performance, efficiency, organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

Behnam Talebi et al. (2012), examined the relationship between the employees QWL and effectiveness in banking sector. In the study, seven QWL variables are considered to determine the present status of QWL of employees. They are: salary and benefits, job security, healthy and secure work environment, autonomy at work, providing the basis for skills education, and determining the job development direction. The research revealed that there is a significant relationship between the employees’ QWL and their effectiveness in organization.

Nitesh Sharma and Devendra Singh Verma (2013), examined the QWL existence in Small Scale Industries in Indore. The Study identified seven QWL variables to measure the QWL of employees, namely good working environment, chance of growth, fair compensation, job satisfaction, employee’s motivation, and communication flow, flexible or suitable working time. The study revealed that QWL is not highly prevalent as per the view of employees.

Godina Krishna Mohan and Kota Neela Mani Kanta (2013) examined the variables that play a vital role in influencing the QWL in the manufacturing organizations in the state of Andhra Pradesh. The variables selected for the present study are as follows: Working conditions, inter personal relations, trust among employees, autonomy and freedom, decision making, training, career advancement, superior support, top management support, conflict management, safety conditions, amenities, performance linked pay system, communication, implementation of organizational policies, transparency system, participative management, nature of job, rewards and recognition, value system and job satisfaction. The research reveals that the key factors influencing QWL were working
environment, group dynamics, personal growth and advancement, motivation and organizational climate.

This review of literature identified that QWL is a multi-dimensional construct. There are numbers of variables that affect on the employees QWL like work environment, organizational culture, job satisfaction, job security, compensation, etc.

**Leadership Styles**

Leadership is a social influence process in which the leader seeks the voluntary participation of subordinates in an effort to reach organization goals (Omolayo B O 2007). Oladipo et al. (2013) defined leadership as a special type of persuade activity that affects and enhances individual in an organization is being seen in all kinds of social situation, which is in perceptible demand that makes people work together towards the attainment of common goals and objectives. The leadership role is a necessity for an organization, in order to synchronize the activities and goals of a group. Leadership cannot be separated from a group and there cannot be a group without a leader.

P. M. Podsakoff and S. B. MacKenzie et al. (1990) argued that leadership behavior can affect, trust and satisfaction of employee to organization and organizational citizenship behavior. Further, it enhances the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment directly. McNeese-Smith (1995) study revealed that democratic leaders take great care to involve all members of the team in discussion, and can work with a small but highly motivated team. If the task is highly structured and the leader has good relationship with the employees, effectiveness will be high on the part of the employees.

Today’s organizations need effective leaders who understand the complexities of the rapidly changing global environment. Different leadership styles may affect organizational effectiveness and performance (Nahavandi 2002). According to Goh Yuan et al. (2005) study, leadership style is significantly influenced by the leader’s immediate and extended family, clan, and tribe. This study identified the link between organizational leadership and business ethics, thereby making contributions toward increasing the quality of organizational life which may have a positive influence on members of the organization and the wider community.

Chung Hsiung Fang et al. (2009) identified that leadership style can affect organizational commitment and work satisfaction positively and work satisfaction in turn can affect organizational commitment and work performance positively. M C Voonl et al. (2011) investigated the influence of leadership styles on employees’ job satisfaction in public sector organizations in Malaysia. They used the factors like salaries, job autonomy, job security and workplace flexibility. Out of these factors, they found that transformational leadership style has a stronger relationship with job satisfaction. According to Jeremy et al. (2012) the associations between leader and worker give supplementary to the usual employees’ satisfaction, which is considerably affected through the leadership styles adopted by the leader.
The study conducted by O K Sakiru et al. (2013), in selected organizations at Lagos metropolis, revealed that the most commonly practiced leadership style by the managers in the organization is the transformational leadership styles, followed by the transactional leadership styles, and laissez-faire type of leadership styles. Although some managers used other styles of leadership, the number of managers using the other styles is negligible. Study also revealed that there is a significant relationship between leadership styles and employees' job commitment within the organization.

Literature, thus, reveals that the leadership styles affects many parameters like employees job satisfaction, job security, organizational change, work environment, team building, performance, effectiveness, etc.

Research Methodology

Estimation of sample size

Using the Hogg and Tannis (1997), and Bartlett et al. (2001) formula, sample size for the research was estimated to be 231 SMEs. Employees working in the mechanical manufacturing SMEs were considered to be the unit of analysis for the research. The structured questionnaire was administered to 1500 employees of 300 mechanical manufacturing SMEs, of which 1147 employees of 248 SMEs responded. However, at the end of the survey only 1092 questionnaire from 240 firms were found to be valid and appropriate for the final analysis.

Design of Questionnaire

Based on thorough literature review on QWL and Leadership styles important components were identified. Further, factor analysis was conducted to reduce the components using principal component analysis. From the principal component analysis, nine factors whose Eigen values are greater than one were retained and these nine important components were considered for the present research. Further, the same was discussed with SMEs' HR experts and academicians, and a draft questionnaire was developed. The questionnaire was designed both in Kannada and English languages. The following were the nine components: Work environment, Organization culture and climate, Relation and co-operation, Training and Development, Compensation and Rewards, Facilities, Job satisfaction and Job Security, Autonomy of work, Adequacy of resources. In addition, the sampling adequacy test was performed through Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistic. Since, KMO values greater than 0.6 is considered as adequate (Kaiser and Rice 1974), the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy with value of 0.601 was acceptable. Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity (912.393, df. 351, Sig.0.00) shows that, the values are significant and therefore acceptable, implying that non-zero correlations existed at the significance level of 0.000. Further, it provides an adequate basis for proceeding with the factor analysis. The reliability coefficient is obtained as 0.88 and hence the questionnaire designed was adequate for exploring research and is tenable for statistical computation.
The questionnaire designed has three important sections namely:
1. Respondent and Firm’s demographic characteristics
2. Employees Perceptions towards QWL
3. Employees opinion about leadership styles of their superiors

Hypotheses

H01: There is no significant relation between Leadership styles and QWL of Employees’

H02: There is no significant relation between Work Environment and Leadership styles
H03: There is no significant relation between Organization culture and climate and Leadership styles
H04: There is no significant relation between Relation and co operation and Leadership styles
H05: There is no significant relation between Training and Development and Leadership styles
H06: There is no significant relation between Compensation and Rewards and Leadership styles
H07: There is no significant relation between Facilities and Leadership styles
H08: There is no significant relation between Job satisfaction and Job security and Leadership styles
H09: There is no significant relation between Autonomy Work and Leadership styles
H10: There is no significant relation between Adequacy of resources and Leadership styles

Research Findings

Status of Quality of Work Life of Employees in SMEs

To explore the status of employees’ QWL in SMEs, employees’ were divided into two groups namely, satisfied and unsatisfied, based on their QWL score. The QWL score for each respondent is determined by summing score for each of the nine components of QWL (Q1 – Q50) and then dividing by 50. The individual response choices, ranged between 1 to 5. The maximum QWL score for an individual is 5, while minimum score is 1. The two categories of Quality of Work Life level were determined by dividing the range of possible QWL scores (1-5) into two intervals. Those scoring more than the overall mean of QWL were assigned as satisfied and those scoring less than overall mean were assigned as unsatisfied. For the present study overall mean is 3.85.

According to Likert and Rensis (1932), resulting total score may be interpreted normatively, with reference to some comparison group or absolutely, with reference to theoretically or empirically chosen cut-off scores. In this research overall mean (3.85) is considered as a cut off score. According to Jerome (2013) and Vijay Anand (2013), the overall mean is considered as “satisfied” and below the overall mean is considered as “unsatisfied” with QWL.

The employees are categorised into satisfied and unsatisfied on the basis of their perception towards QWL. Overall Mean is the cut-off score, the score above the overall mean is considered satisfied with
the present QWL, while score less than the overall mean is unsatisfied. Table 1 presents the status of Quality of Work Life of employees.

### Table 1: Quality of Work Life of Employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status of QWL</th>
<th>No of Employees</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>23.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsatisfied</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>76.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1092</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among 1092 surveyed employees, from 240 SMEs, 260 (23.81 Percent) employees were satisfied with the present status of Quality of Work Life and 832 (76.19 Percent) employees were unsatisfied. From this it can be inferred that only one fourth of employees are satisfied with present status of Quality of Work Life.

**Leadership styles**

To know the type of leadership style prevailing, the leadership score for each respondent are determined by summing-up the score of each question of leadership styles. The transformational leadership score for each respondent was determined by summing the scores for each of five items (Q1-Q5) and dividing by 5, similarly for transactional leadership score for each respondent was determined by summing the scores for each of the five items (Q6-Q10) and dividing by 5. The individual response choices ranged between 1 to 5. The maximum Leadership Style (LS) score for an individual is 5, the minimum score is 1. The types of leadership styles were considered, depending on the highest mean score.

The 1092 employees surveyed from 240 SMEs are grouped into two based on their opinion about their superiors leadership styles like Transformational leadership style and Transactional leadership style. On the basis of highest mean score the type of the leadership style is decided.

### Table 2: Leadership Styles according to Employees Opinion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership styles</th>
<th>No of Employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Leadership style</td>
<td>624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional Leadership style</td>
<td>468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1092</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Table 2 depicts that, among 1092 surveyed employees 624 (57.14 Percent) employees opinion is their superiors display the Transformational leadership styles in SMEs whereas 468 (42.86 Percent) employees opinion is their superiors displays Transactional leadership style in the SMEs.

**Leadership styles and Status of Quality of Work Life of Employees**
The Surveyed 1092 employees are grouped under two categories based on their opinion about their superior’s leadership styles. Out of 1092 respondents 624 respondents opinion is that their superiors exhibit transformational leadership style, while 468 respondents opinion is their superiors exhibit transactional leadership style. This section describes the status of QWL under transformational and transactional leadership styles.

**Quality of Work Life under Transformational leadership style**
Under transformational leadership style, 624 employees were surveyed and they are grouped into two based on their perceptions about present status Quality of Work Life. Table 4.3 shows the Quality of Work Life of employees under transformational leadership style.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status of QWL</th>
<th>No of Employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsatisfied</td>
<td>456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>624</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Under Transformational leadership style, 624 employees were surveyed and only 168 employees were satisfied and 456 employees are unsatisfied with the present status of Quality of Work Life in surveyed SMEs.

**Quality of Work Life under Transactional leadership style**
Under transactional leadership style, 468 employees were surveyed and they are grouped into two based on their perceptions about present status Quality of Work Life. Table 4.32 shows the Quality of Work Life of employees under transactional leadership style.

Under Transactional leadership style, 468 employees were surveyed and only 92 employees were satisfied and 376 employees are unsatisfied with the present status of Quality of Work Life in surveyed SMEs. Form this it is concluded that only 20 percent of employees are satisfied the present
status of Quality of Work Life under transactional leadership styles, that is majority of the employees are unsatisfied the status of Quality of Work Life in surveyed SMEs under transactional leadership style.

Relationship between Leadership Styles and Quality of Work Life
To find the relationship between leadership styles and Quality of Work Life employees, a hypothesis $H_{01}$ was established. Using Chi Square analysis hypothesis was tested for independency. The employees were classified into satisfied and unsatisfied on the basis of their perception towards QWL under transformational leadership style and transactional leadership style and the same is presented in Table 5 It also presents the $\chi^2$ value and their significance level for testing the association between different leadership styles and Quality of Work Life of employees in the surveyed SMEs.

### Table 5: Leadership Style and Quality of Work Life of Employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SI No</th>
<th>Leadership styles</th>
<th>Status of QWL</th>
<th>$\chi^2$ Table Value</th>
<th>$\chi^2$ Calculated Value</th>
<th>P value</th>
<th>Significance Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Transformational leadership style</td>
<td>Satisfied: 168, Unsatisfied: 456</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>7.781</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional leadership style</td>
<td>Satisfied: 92, Unsatisfied: 376</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quality of Work Life of employees has a significant association with the types of the leadership styles ($p<0.05$, $\chi^2_{\text{Calculated}} > \chi^2_{\text{Table}}$). That is Quality of Work Life of employees is dependent on type of leadership style.

Relationship between Leadership Styles and Components of QWL
To know the relationship between leadership styles and components of Quality of Work Life of employees, nine hypotheses namely $H_{02}$, $H_{03}$, $H_{04}$, $H_{05}$, $H_{06}$, $H_{07}$, $H_{08}$, $H_{09}$, $H_{010}$, were established. Using Chi Square analysis hypothesis is tested for independency. The employees were classified into satisfied and unsatisfied on the basis of their perception towards for all nine components of QWL under transformational leadership style and transactional leadership style and are presented in Table
4.6. Table also presented the $\chi^2$ value and their significance levels (if significant) for testing the association between different leadership styles and nine components of Quality of Work Life in surveyed SMEs.

**Table 6: Relationship between Leadership Styles and Components of QWL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SI No</th>
<th>Components of QWL</th>
<th>Leadership styles</th>
<th>Status of components of QWL</th>
<th>$\chi^2$ Table Value</th>
<th>$\chi^2$ Calculated Value</th>
<th>P value</th>
<th>Significance Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>4.085</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Unsatisfied</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Work Environment</td>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>229</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Organization Culture and climate</td>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>338</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>218</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Relation and cooperation</td>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>324</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.328</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>229</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Training and development</td>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>258</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>220</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Compensation and Rewards</td>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>330</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>202</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Facilities</td>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>287</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>228</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Job satisfaction and job security</td>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>275</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.493</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>216</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Autonomy of work</td>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>301</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.336</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>212</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Adequacy of Resources</td>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>324</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>188</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
QWL components like Work environment, organization culture and climate, compensation and reward and adequacy of resources (p<0.05, $\chi^2_{calculated} > \chi^2_{Table}$) has significant association with leadership style. Chi Square independent test identifies that Work environment, organization culture and climate, compensation and reward and adequacy of resources of employees in selected SMEs is dependent on type of the leadership style.

QWL components like relation and cooperation, training and development, facilities, job satisfaction and security, autonomy of work (p>0.05, $\chi^2_{calculated} < \chi^2_{Table}$) are not associated with leadership style. Relation and cooperation, training and development, facilities, job satisfaction, autonomy of work are independent to leadership style.

**Conclusions:**
One fourth of employees are satisfied with present status of Quality of Work Life in mechanical manufacturing SMEs. The research revealed that in majority of the SMEs, superior’s displays transformational leadership styles to get the work from the employees.

Quality of Work Life of employees has a significant association with the leadership styles. That is Quality of Work Life of employees is dependent on leadership style like transformational leadership style and transactional leadership style.

Research analysis revealed that under transactional leadership style more percentage of employees’ are unsatisfied with the present status of Quality of Work Life than under transformational leadership styles.

Among selected nine Quality of Work Life components, work environment, organization culture and climate, compensation and reward and adequacy of resources of employees is dependent on type of the leadership styles.

Other components, Relation and cooperation, training and development, facilities, job satisfaction and security, autonomy of work are not depended on leadership styles.

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Entrepreneurial Social Work: The Position of Professional Practitioners for Industrial Development in Nigeria

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Abstract: Industrial development, arguably, is a waiver to globalisation. However, part of the controversial debates of globalisation is the elusive conceptualisation and adaptive contextualisation of business entrepreneurship. Indeed, at a global level, entrepreneurship still denotes skilful manipulations of opportunities, which have hitherto culminated in corporate and individualised exploitation, in the name of profit maximisation and industrial development. In sub-Saharan Africa and Nigeria in particular, while industries were developing at a geometric trend, aspirations for social values were conversely developing at an arithmetic trend, thereby creating a huge gap between industrialisation and entrepreneurial social values as well as industrial development and social transformation. These are further buttressed in failed policies on industrial development and counterproductive multinational interventions in industrial development in Nigeria. While entrepreneurial social work as a panacea has become widely accepted and gaining momentum in most parts of the developed world, the position and practices of professional practitioners are still vague and insubstantial in Nigeria. This paper, therefore, challenges the fundamental requirement of entrepreneurial social work and the practice of pragmatic social entrepreneurship, where professional social workers could be exposed to theoretical bases and empirical research as a bottom-up approach to address industrial development imbalances.

Keywords: Social Work, Social Entrepreneur, Social Value, Transformation, Industrial Development, Sustainable Development.

Introduction
Sequel to the emergence of industrial revolution, which paved way for social transformation and gradual reduction of manual labour for individualized machinations, substantial part of the world became relatively wrapped into a globalized community and accountable to consequential
development, occasioned by incorporation into the globalizing trend. One of the major contributions of such globalization to sustainable industrial development, especially in sub-sahara Africa (SSA) is the affordability of a transformation mechanism, which ultimately enables development comparativeness among all participating economy across the world. Indeed, part of the ultimate proceeds of this globalization is change; despite the fact that change is endemic in all facets of industrial development, the most outstanding change, according to different studies, is the one propelled by innate skills, or what may be described as entrepreneurial social values (Schumpeter, 2012; Shane, 2003; Shane & Nicolaou, 2013); however, when entrepreneurial exploitations fail, researchers and practitioners often resort to social entrepreneurship through social innovation (Akil, 2013; Delmar & Davidson, 2000; Fudric, 2008).

Despite the growing attention to social entrepreneurship and similarities between various theories and conceptualizations, there seems no universally accepted accord on whether social entrepreneurship exists, or what it is or is not. It is a multi-interpretable concept, and although the use of the terms is widespread, its meaning often contradicts. Moreover, the positive societal connotation of the term social entrepreneurship also seems not to have been helpful as a starting point for scholarly endeavours (Cho, 2006; Nicholls & Cho, 2006; Zahra et al., 2009). Not surprisingly, a considerable amount of scholarly effort is devoted to defining the key constructs of social entrepreneurship (Dees, 1998; Mair & Martí, 2006; Mort, Weerawardena, & Carnegie, 2003; Peredo & McLean, 2006; Perrini & Vurro, 2006). These misinterpretations at some point influenced studies concentrating on the commonalities and distinctions with closely related fields such as commercial or conventional entrepreneurship (Austin, Stevenson, & Wei-Skillern, 2006; Dorado, 2006; Mair & Martí, 2006; Roberts & Woods, 2005), nonprofit enterprises (Boschee & McClurg, 2003), social activism, and social service provision (Martin & Osberg, 2007). At first glance, social entrepreneurship is a mixture of related but different phenomena.

However, the incidental increasing popularity of social entrepreneurship subsequently; no doubt, has influenced discourses especially among academics and policy makers who are largely concentrated in the United States, Europe, and recently Asia and Latin America (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010a). Notwithstanding, the outcome of these scholarly engagement has attracted a global insinuation about sustainable industrial development, which incidentally polarised the concept (Industrial Development) along two dichotomies: while one philosophy emphasises basic trajectory factors militating against industrialisation, the other essentially denotes potential ingredients for long-term development, which of course could only be achieved through stringent policies. It is not surprising that this unfolding scenario has informed the emergence of many countries (including the developed and developing ones), struggling for sustainable industrial development at different competitive edges, with different industrial planning and strategies, amidst differential political economy systems (United Nations Industrial Development Organisation [UNIDO], 2007).
Globally, industrial development and sustainable development are two interwoven but distinct concepts. It is almost difficult, if not impossible, to analyse industrial development without considering the implications of its sustainability. While many countries across the world have surpassed in the area of industrial development, not quite much has exhibited proficient sustenance in its internal potentials and human resources. In Nigeria to be specific, industrial development might not be a problem. What stands in the way of industrial development and sustaining the development is the perception, knowledge, and pragmatic utilization of social entrepreneurship at addressing often neglected industrial challenges. It is arguable to state that Nigeria’s industrial policies had not only failed at addressing core industrial challenges, (i.e., infrastructural development, skills acquisition, technology transfer, ideals modelling, conversion of opportunities, etc.) they have utterly discouraged pragmatic social entrepreneurship, with which professionals could improvise relative solution to a growing population, with pluralist socio-religious and cultural implications. In spite of the fact that industrialisation is relevant, especially as a result of its valuable contribution to the alleviation of poverty, enhancement of productivity, creation of employment, enhancement of income-generating assets for the poor and diversification of exports as well as reduction of exposure to risk (Anan, 2003; Industrial Development Report, 2004; Sonobe and Tsuka, 2006; UNIDO, 2002). In Nigeria, the reverse is the case, hence, industrial development policies keep changing without commensurate social values, as well as engagement of professional social workers’ (entrepreneur) who could employ differential dimensions at reorganizing and redirecting trained personnel, for effective exhibition and rational social entrepreneurship.

Against this backdrop, it is safe to argue that yesterday’s Nigeria’s industrial development solutions are not enough to address today’s industrial needs, which makes the problems a revolving social chimera, seeking alternative industrial development options, for the growth and survival of the Nigerian social entrepreneurship. This paper is divided into six logical analyses which include introduction; theoretical analysis of social entrepreneurship and industrial development; imperatives of entrepreneurship for sustainable industrial society; prerequisites of social entrepreneurship for sustainable industrial development with remarkable consideration and plausible hope to illuminating the missing link in the practices of professional social work in a slow development industrial society. The conclusion looks at future implications.

Theoretical Analysis of Social Entrepreneurship and Industrial Development
Social entrepreneurship has emerged as a field of considerable interest over the past two decades. However, its rapid growth has resulted in a rather fragmented body of literature that lacks a set of well-established theories by which to predict and explain social entrepreneurship and a connecting set of empirical findings from which commonalities about it can be established. In response, this section exemplifies Resource-Based view and Human Capital Theory to identify the relationship between organisation and individual potential strength at creating social value and innovation.

Theoretical Exploration of the Resource-Based View and Human Capital Theory
The central focus of social entrepreneurship is that individuals can create novel business ideas to address society's most pressing problems, such as poor's access to food, clean water, healthcare, and education (Yunus 2010). It is imperative to state that social entrepreneurs have two logical objectives which are to create self-sustaining enterprises and solve identified social problems. As such, social enterprises (SEs) are known to have a dual identity, which is also known as hybridity. In the present milieu of value creation, engagement in this dual identity is a matter of compulsion.

This position contrasts with known traditional venture capital whose primary aim is to provide a return on investment for its limited partners, organisations and individuals that invested in the social sector. Thus, traditional venture capital has the dual objectives of earning both a social return and a financial return on their investments. However, this dual identity poses a challenge for conventional management theories that assume that only one corporate objective namely; profit maximisation, which is the singular objective of every investor. However, the question that strikes imagination is that how could a social entrepreneur maintain dual identity without sacrificing one motive for another? The resources-based view by Barney (1986) states that a firm’s competitive advantage lies in its stock of valuable resources, which cannot be easily imitated or substituted by competing firms. Resources, thus, enable and constrain the specific strategies of an organisation. An important resource that Barney (1991) identifies is the firm’s Human Capital theory by Becker (1964). Human Capital (HC) theory suggests that human capital is of great relevance to a new firm’s survival and early success. Research has also demonstrated that much of a nascent firm’s success is dependent on the human capital of its partnership and founders. Therefore, a logical understanding of both Resources-based and Human Capital theories of social entrepreneurship premise an innovator as a change agent, whom regardless of his financial myth, still stands a double approach advantages. He is a change creator, who harnesses opportunities in return for social innovation, yet organisations rely on his established network of relationship before either “for profit” or “not for profit” ventures could take any viable effect.

Sociological implications of these theories, therefore, hang on the inevitable roles of social entrepreneurs as social actors in the drive and development of emerging dimension of social entrepreneurship. While some scholars have criticised these theories on the grounds that human beings are egocentric, as such, they would only commit themselves in industrial development or social change, in as much as they acquire directly, to themselves, both financial and labour values. As rational thinkers, human beings would always want to engage less in ventures, when there are less direct derivations. From this background, one could predict and account for human social actions; from whatever motivational value the actor may be influenced by. Globalization has been greatly influenced by history, language, culture and technological derivations, as result, human society has been exposed to a number of challenges, from social to political and from economic to religious inhibitions; all this pose a direct challenge to existing business opportunities, which leave investors and government to fewer alternatives. This is where the role of social entrepreneurs become imperative, not only as identifier of business opportunities, but also as inventor and modifier of social
networks, where plausible engagement could produce self-sustaining interactions, as well as reduction in the gap between large scale industrialization and between government and individuals.

**Imperatives of Entrepreneurship and Social Entrepreneur**

A closer look at the international multidimensional business industrial development, especially with its ever-changing facets of internal and external structure, one would but conclude that the basis of entrepreneurship denotes more than opportunity exploitation; it indeed spans from inspiration, creativity, direct action, courage, psychological convictions to, of course, readiness for anticipated risk. The word entrepreneurship connotes mixed orientations; on one hand, it connotes a special, innate ability to sense and act on opportunity, combining out-of-the-box thinking with a unique brand of determination to create or bring about something new to the world. On the other hand, entrepreneurship is hinged on nature and nurture, with nature depicting environmental composition and nurture indicating the uniqueness of ideas required to sustain the established potentials. The position of analysts is that, whether nature or nurture, entrepreneurial activities require a passage of time before their true impact could be manifested (Ahmed, 2007). In the light of the above, it may be difficult to account for the conceptual definition of entrepreneurship, just as attempt to describe entrepreneurial personality traits uniquely, using sociological and psychological analytics could be a dubious validity; as quite a number of other non-intuitive occupations may want to assume the position, simply because of human and material invention deployed.

An Entrepreneur is one who “shifts economic resources out of an area of lower productivity and into an area of higher productivity and greater yield,” thereby expanding the literal translation from the French, “one who undertakes,” to encompass the concept of value creation (Jean-Baptiste, 2001). In the opinion of Schumpeter (1975), successful entrepreneurship sets off a chain reaction, encouraging other entrepreneurs to iterate upon and ultimately propagate the innovation to the point of “creative destruction”, a state at which the new venture and all its related ventures effectively render existing products, services and business models obsolete. From this standpoint, while Schumpeter sees entrepreneurs as change agents, Drucker (1995), on the other hand, does not; rather, he regards entrepreneurs as canny and committed exploiters of change who always search for change, respond to it and exploit it as an opportunity. From this illustration, one may be tempted to agree that entrepreneurship as a concept is rooted in a remarkable continuum of career, where the apex of the structure is industrialisation. In other words, all industrialisation process and development would not have been possible without some elements of entrepreneurship.

Regardless of the elusive conceptualisation and adaptive contextualisation of business entrepreneurship at a global level, entrepreneurship, fundamentally, still denotes skilful manipulation of opportunities, which culminates in corporate and individualised exploitation. In sub-Saharan Africa and Nigeria, in particular, while industries were developing at geometric trend, in the name of profit maximisation and industrial development, aspirations for social values were conversely retrogressing at the same trend, thereby creating a huge gap between industrialisation and entrepreneurial social
values, as well as industrial development and social transformation (UNIDO, 2013; United Nations, 2007).

Entrepreneurs' characteristics vary, but global assertion to the underlining context of entrepreneurship lies behind an exceptional entrepreneur, whose strong commitment, unprecedented innovation, convincing exploitation and above all, unflinching willingness to bear the risk inherent in the engagement, transform a little conception into opportunity realities (Roger, Martin & Sally, 2007; World Trade Organisation, 2006). Till today, America’s established entrepreneurs are in the likes of Steve Jobs and Steve Wozniak of Apple Computer, Pierre Omidyar and Jeff Skoll of eBay, Ann and Mike Moore of Snugli, and Fred Smith of FedEx. In Africa and Nigeria in particular, there are the likes of Cosmos Maduka, of Coscharis Group, Aliko Dangote of Dangote Conglomerate, Mike Adenuga of Globacom, Fola Adeola of GT Bank, Raymond Dokpesi of AIT Group and Femi Otedola of Forte Oil Plc. This list excludes other great entrepreneur billionaires, who never finished schools, for instance, Late Alhaji Alhassan Dantata, Rasaq Okoya, founder of Eleganza Group, Olorogun Michael Ibru, founder of the Ibru Organisation and Cletus Madubugwu Ibeto, founder of the Ibeto Group, among many others.

In the developing world, expectations are that planned small and medium scale businesses are the prime movers of job creation, income, growth, and poverty reduction. Therefore, government articulation for booming entrepreneurship is always a crucial strategy for economic development. According to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD] (2003; p.21), “Policies to foster entrepreneurship are essential to job creation and economic growth.” It therefore becomes imperative for government to provide incentives that could encourage entrepreneurs to risk attempting new ventures. Among these are laws to enforce property rights and to encourage a competitive market system.

Similarly, studies have also shown the implications of culture at determining the success and or failure of entrepreneurship in different socio-ethnic entities (Thomas and Mueller, 2000; Collins, 2003). Hence, if a country ascribes values to its citizens, based on their hierarchy in organisational settings, without evaluating their passion for social value orientation, such country may discourage the value of entrepreneurship, as well as replace originality with mediocrity. Where the principles of self-made success are enforced and rewarded, expectations are that economic development could be monitored and pragmatically designed to subdue poverty and unemployment. At this juncture, it may be crucial to ask why and how do people become entrepreneurs? Why is entrepreneurship beneficial to an economy? How can governments encourage entrepreneurship in order to stimulate economic growth? And what are the appropriate policies to ensure sustainability in the case of digression?

Why do People opt for Entrepreneurship?
Whether or not taught, key requirements for entrepreneurial success include a degree of optimism, resilience and focused determination in conditions of uncertainty; a willingness to take on and
manage risk; a desire to create or seek out opportunities; a willingness to make decisions quickly in a dynamically changing and competitive technological and environment; and the desire and capacity to create an organization to execute the business strategy and grow the business. As Agbeze (2012) noted, entrepreneurial activities and innovative ingenuity abound in Nigeria, many of which remain potentially untapped. Among these enterprises are agricultural/agro-allied activities; where there are foodstuffs, restaurants, fast food vending and others. Solid minerals; where there is quarrying, German stone cutting/polishing and crushing engineering; power and transport; with power generators, Haulage business (cargo and passengers). Information and Telecom business: with manufacturing and repairs of GSM accessories and the printing and selling of Recharge cards. Hospitality and tourism business; with hotels, accommodation, resorts centres, film and home video production; in oil and gas business; there are construction and maintenance of pipelines, drilling, refining by-products. In the area of environmental and waste management business; there is refuse collection/disposal, recycling, and drainage/sewage construction job. In the area of financial banking services; there is banking, insurance and stock trading. In engineering and fabrication work; there are machines and tools fabrications. There is also the building and construction, where there are plan and design services and material sourcing.

Studies in Nigerian entrepreneurship have also established the fact that Nigeria is facing a number of challenges. Worthy of note is unethical behaviour from entrepreneurs, government agencies, competitors, speculators and customers. It must be recalled that this circle of industrial intricacies is drastically slowing the pace of capital flow in Nigeria (Ogundele and Opeifa, 2004); consequently, development is far from reaching the citizenry. The following figure illustrates the complex nature of entrepreneurship and industrial development in Nigeria. In the diagram below, Nigerian entrepreneurs represent the central circle surrounded by thirteen elements, while globalisation represents the circle; the arrows that navigate out to each of the other elements impact on entrepreneurial development.

The diagram below denotes that globalisation has its own distinct effects on each of the elements. The inner double-sided arrows show impacts of the various elements on Nigerian entrepreneurs. The inner arrows with broken lines represent the challenges posed by various elements to Nigerian entrepreneurs. From all indications, they show that each element within the circle is a challenge to Nigerian entrepreneurs; no wonder unemployment and poverty are pervasive in the country.
Perhaps, a decisive way to underline the success and/or failure of sustainable industrial development in Nigeria is to evaluate the contributions of large-scale business to the survival of mass poor (Collins, 2003; Osotimehin, Jegede and Akinlabi, 2012), whom are the end users and beneficiaries of both economic and technological advancement. If indeed, human core values are compromised (as evidenced across different business conglomerates), one could substantially establish the position of a social entrepreneur, who is characterised by altruism and aims for social value in the form of large-scale, transformational benefit that accrues either to a significant segment of society or to society at large. Social entrepreneurship has its origins in the 18th and 19th centuries when philanthropic business owners and industrialists demonstrated a concern for the welfare of employees by improving their working, education and cultural lives (Shaw & Carter, 2004).

At present in Nigeria, the role of social entrepreneur is often considered as undeserving and neglected, since highly disadvantaged population could not benefit from the derivative social
satisfaction; these are the people who really lack the financial means or political capacity to achieve the transformative benefit on their own (Roger, Martin & Sally, 2007). However, it is essential to note that social entrepreneurs do not completely shun profit making, rather, they propose value ventures creation, where automatic regeneration of income could be maintained, and could be organised as either not-for-profits or for-profit orientations (Thompson & Doherty, 2006; Townsend & Hart, 2008). By implication, social entrepreneurship could be seen as grounded in social rationality; a completely different philosophical perspective that prioritises human relationships above task-efficiency, especially where and when one could justifiably perform a task less efficiently, if the opposite of doing so is the strengthening of a social and community relationships.

Globally, social entrepreneurs possess three fundamental components; one is identification of a stable but inherently unjust equilibrium that causes the exclusion, marginalisation, or suffering of a segment of humanity that lacks the financial means or political power to achieve any transformative benefit on their own. Followed is identification of an opportunity in unjust equilibrium, developing a social value proposition, and bringing to bear inspiration, creativity, direct action, courage, and fortitude, thereby challenging the stable state's hegemony. The third is forging a new, stable equilibrium that releases deprived potential or alleviates the suffering of the targeted group, and through imitation and the creation of a stable structure around the new equilibrium ensuring a better future for the targeted group and even society at large (see Roger, Martin & Sally, 2007).

Even though the scholarly field of social entrepreneurship is still in a stage of infancy (Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum, and Shulman, 2009), which renders it with no clear definition of its domain (Zahra et al., 2009), social entrepreneurship literature is still centred on two major levels of individual and the organisation. Quite a large number of authors focus on the individual level, defining the founder of the initiative (Mair and Marti, 2006), who is considered a change agent (Shaw & Carter, 2004), acting upon an opportunity and gathering resources to exploit it. Many have been pointing out different characteristics among social and for-profit entrepreneurs (Austin, Stevenson & Wei-Skillern, 2006). While the central goal of for-profit entrepreneurs is to create wealth for private gain, the goal of social entrepreneurs is to create wealth that could serve as a means to social ends. Generally, the process of entrepreneurship is the same across all new ventures: acting on an opportunity, acquiring resources, and building a team to create something of value (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). However, for social entrepreneurship, the difference lies in the founding mission and market impact (Neck, Brush, & Allen, 2009), which is the reason social entrepreneurship research should evolve beyond descriptive purposes and geared towards more predictive purposes. Although, disagreements persist about the domain of entrepreneurship (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Zahra and Dess, 2001) and adding the prefix “social” further exacerbates this definitional debate (Zahra et al., 2009). In social entrepreneurship, the social component refers to the creation of social wealth as opposed to private wealth creation (Hoogendoorn and Hartog, 2010). Social wealth, therefore, can be operationalized because social value created is offset by social costs incurred (Zahra et al., 2009).
The desire to benefit the society in some ways spurs the genuineness for value and wealth creation, for instance, provision of clean water and education to deprived communities, empowerment of women, and providing jobs for disabled people (Hoogendoorn and Hartog, 2010) represent a perfect description of dedicated social ventures. In the level of organisation, social entrepreneurs are the innovators who found new organisations, develop and implement new programmes and methods, organise and expand new services, and redirect the activities of faltering organisations. Therefore, social entrepreneurs are people who realise where there is an opportunity to satisfy some unmet need that the state welfare will not or cannot meet, and who gather together the necessary resources (generally people, often volunteers, money and premises) and use these to make a difference. Similarly, social entrepreneurs represent those who operate in the community and are more concerned with caring and helping than making money (Thompson, Alvy and Lees, 2000; Thompson, 2002).

In developing and emerging economies like Nigeria, social entrepreneurs should be designed as change agents for basic and pressing needs, while in more developed countries like the United States, social entrepreneurs have come up with different innovative business models that tended to regenerate deprived communities, provide services and jobs for disabled people, and carry out waste recycling and nature protection (Bosma and Levie, 2010). Ideally, non-profit entrepreneurs are energetic individuals, at different levels, with a higher than average tolerance for uncertainty, and a willingness to pursue their goals in spite of initial obstacles or lack of resources. To creative thinkers, non-profit entrepreneurs focus on vision and opportunity, and use their ability to convince and empower others to help turn these visions into reality (CCSE, 2001). According to Ashoka (2001), the ethical values that guide non-profit entrepreneurs help ensure that public money is well spent, ideas are not corrupted by interests and that they are fully committed to the work of their enterprise, this is fundamentally where sustainable development is actualized, within the social networks of value regeneration and uncompromised discipline and presumption of likely unethical digression of intents and overview objectives; studies have shown that Nigeria is blessed with a number of resource personnel who could best fit in these areas, but more often than not, they are incapacitated by both internal and external stringent conditions.

Since these conditions are relatively becoming insurmountable and intervention becoming more complex, social entrepreneurship therefore becomes associated with community enterprise and development, education, churches, mosques, charities, the not-for-profit sector and voluntary organisations. This is why its roles are considered vital to the development and delivery of innovative approaches to social problems that persist despite the efforts of traditional, public, voluntary or community mechanisms (Shaw and Carter, 2004). The argument for and against social entrepreneurship is controversial, different schools of thoughts have advanced diverse arguments to substantiate their position, hence; part of the argument is that social entrepreneurship should be separated from social service provision and social activism. The following section illuminates the core
social values inherent in social entrepreneurship and how this could engender social transformation in Nigeria.

**Prerequisites of Social Entrepreneurship for Sustainable Industrial Development**

Sociologically, a society comprises of a group of people who share a confined territory with a relatively stable culture. By extension, societies would only survive, if a constant connection between its structures and interaction pattern are sustained, this further means that Social structures in any society could be perceived as the relative enduring patterns of behaviour and relationships within a society (Merton, 1938), upon which sustainable development is premised.

A society's social structure is best conceived when the network of relationship between the people and the intricacies of existing social institutions can be digested. However, culture being a constellation of norms, values, beliefs, behaviours and meanings given to symbols in a society, learnt, shared and transferred from one generation to another, significantly determines the direction of social value.

According to the National Bureau of Statistics (2009:238; 2010:2), the national unemployment rates for Nigeria between 2000 and 2009 showed that the number of unemployed persons constituted 31.1% in 2000; 13.6% in 2001; 12.6% in 2002; 14.8% in 2003; 13.4% in 2004; 11.9% in 2005; 13.7% in 2006; 14.6% in 2007; 14.9% in 2008 and 19.7% in 2009. Specifically as regards the age group, educational group and sex, data provided by the National Bureau of Statistics (2010:3) further showed that as at March 2009 in Nigeria, persons between ages 15 and 24 years, i.e. 41.6%, were unemployed. For persons between 25 and 44 years, 17% were unemployed. Also, while 14.85 of those with primary education were unemployed and 23.8% of those with only secondary education were unemployed, about 21.3% of those with post-secondary education were unemployed. For those who never attended school and those with below primary education, 21.0% and 22.3% were unemployed respectively. As regards sex, data showed that males constituted 17.0% while females constituted 23.3%. Above is the evidence of socio-political and economic structures in Nigeria, perhaps because most national economic policies designed to arrest the situation could not relatively satisfy the motive.

This rather presents a lofty opportunity for change initiators who could transform social value for distributive welfare. Social entrepreneurship gained a louder perception with an “embedded social purpose” (Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern, 2006). The most striking social entrepreneurship innovation originates from developing countries and involves the deployment of new business models that address basic human needs (Seelos and Mair, 2005). To create a framework for analysing the role of sustainable social entrepreneurship, especially for implementing sustainable development, an analysis of the discussion of sustainable development from the perspective of innovation becomes significant.
Fundamental innovations result in radical course changes that widely differ from existing alternatives, concerning technological or sociocultural areas, whereas improvement innovations lead to incremental changes, based on further development of preceding fundamental innovations. The field of social entrepreneurship is craving intensified attention. No wonder governments in Europe and the United States now embrace social entrepreneurship as a driver of innovation and of solutions to complex societal problems. Examples are the Office of Social Innovation and Civic Participation initiated by the Obama Administration, or the Social Innovation aspect, within Europe 2020 Flagship Initiative Innovation Union. To say in the least is the recent global economic and financial crisis, which has indirectly attracted social entrepreneurship as a much-needed alternative or complement to an economic system mainly driven by profit maximisation and self-interest.

In the present dispensation, social entrepreneurs have been perceived as the prime movers of collective engagement, where many prioritise the need for possible positive change. Among many outlined social benefits of social entrepreneurs are job creation and value re-orientation, voluntary training and value rededication, poverty reduction and economic diversity, social capital creation and solidarity maintenance (Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern, 2006). All this and others give a total and perfect description of a professional social entrepreneur who desires sustainable development.

**The Missing Link between the Practices of Professional Social Work and Industrial Development**

The quest for equal attention to the social dimension, in order to 'promote diversity, protection of human rights, poverty reduction, enhancement of workplace equity and social justice' (Rusinko 2010) has attracted the need to formulate a strong research and policy schema, which could serve as hidden supportive scheme, where all industrial development imbalances could be adequately addressed. The millennium development goals (MDG 2005) categorically denounced poverty, unemployment and female powerlessness. The inability by the Nigerian government to achieve the mandate of the goals has indirectly influenced the call for and the role of sustainable development, as normative alternatives. These alternatives serve as products of continuous changes in the implementation of sustainable development. Therefore, implementing these strategies seemed to be a crucial point for the analysis of sustainable development and innovation.

In order to achieve this; three approaches have been identified: sufficiency, efficiency and consistency. This formative scheme was the outcome of a global research on the need to accomplish global equality, especially on industrial development. Although, social entrepreneurship usually starts with small local efforts, it often targets social problems with local expression that also enjoys global acknowledgement (Mair, Robinson and Hockert, 2006).

Many researchers have attempted different definitions of sustainable industrial development, with each having a considerable bias, depending on the disciplinary background and area of graduation. However, for the purpose of our discourse, the conceptualisation of sustainable industrial
development could be further denoted as adjustable socio-economic and political manipulations which guarantee both internal and external industrial welfarism, without dependence on external support for a considerable appropriate period of time. In order to sustain whatever, development, two important factors for innovation processes must not be neglected. First the individual motivation that drives an actor to support an innovation and second the circumstances under which promoters with different roles meet and cooperate (Witte 1973, 21; Hauschildt 2001, 335). This further underlines the question of how innovative behaviour occurs in the context of sustainable development and how it can be promoted. Innovativeness is mostly discussed in the context of Organisational culture (Kieser 1986; Hauser 1998; Hauschildt 1999, 280; Gemünden & Walter 1995). Existing research in this area does not focus on sustainable development issues. Further investigations could reveal helpful advice concerning factors which engender or discourages sustainable development and position of social entrepreneurs in Nigeria. Therefore a concept of sustainable entrepreneurship should be considered not only structural and strategic but also cultural issues of innovation.

Conclusion

Having understood the exclusive meanings and dimension of social entrepreneurship from differing perspectives of entrepreneurship, especially on the implications of globalization on industrial development and consequential challenges of sustainability, it could be fathomed that the positions of professional social entrepreneurs still remain largely deficient, uncovered, and counterproductive, this terrain create so much vacuum that most career social entrepreneurs are either neglected, unrecognised or sabotaged, perhaps, because of their perceived fraction in Nigeria, or exposure of the people to the dynamics and relative significance of social entrepreneurship in nation building. Where opportunities to demonstrate value for social interactions suffice, government policies or business investors may hamper this development. Therefore, since majority is poor in Nigeria, a strong interconnectivity of value reorientation could easily galvanize big bang industrial development, from dodged localized value networking. Nigeria social entrepreneur must engage in a process of continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning, acting boldly without being limited by resources currently in hand, and exhibiting heightened accountability to the constituencies served and for the outcomes created. The closer a person gets to satisfying all these conditions, the more that person fits the model of a non-profit entrepreneur”.

At present, the inspiring domain of social entrepreneurship may sound somewhat difficult, but it’s only a matter of time when and where more avenues would be created for researchers and academics to build strong, reliable and empirical proven studies, where the hope of majority poor (in Nigeria), with innate characteristic of social value creation could be rejuvenated. Although the challenges are overwhelming, but with the identification of social entrepreneur, who internalizes the direction of social values, as well as adaptation to cultural changes, will a bond of social interaction established between the innovators and the social institution. When this marriage is perfected, policy makers would be “forced” to initiate a bottom-up approach system at making industrial development a relatively
conducive venture, in the end, social entrepreneurship would be justifiably marked with social elements of direct invention, interventions, triggered by Optimism, solid knowledge and good instinct.

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When the Hunter Becomes the Hunted: An Exploratory Study on the Proliferation of Female Rapists in Harare, Zimbabwe

Mafongoya Owen

Abstract: The study interrogates the Zimbabwean society’s perceptions, emotions, experiences and their reactions to the newly culminating social-sexual order. This emerging sexual order is characterised by some groups of urban females who are gang rapping men with condoms and concurrently collecting their sperms for unclear reasons. These female gang rappers mainly prey on long distance male travellers around the round. These episodes have been discovered to be also common in bars and lodges in Avenues residential area near the Harare CBD. The study reveals the dawn of new age in the history of sex and sexuality in the country. It also showed moral panic, fears and safety uncertainty of men who have been dominating in both social and anti-social sexual enterprise. On the broader society, the proliferation of these practices has left people in disagreements pertaining to the immediate causes of these acts. Some expressed that the rappers would sell the sperms for further reproduction whilst others are of the opinion that they would be ritually and superstitionistically used for making money to avert sufferings brought on by beleaguered Zimbabwean economy. On the same issue, others believed that these new sexual trends represent a role reversal caused by new socialising agents for example modern education, technology and globalisation. To harness all the information, the researcher employed a qualitative paradigm where unstructured interviews, focus group discussion and secondary data sources were used as data collecting tools. Thereafter, Merton’s (1968) Strain theory was used to analyse the relationship between social structures and how they lead to the emergence of illegitimate strategies like rapping and trading sperms as a means of survival.

Keywords: Female Rapists, Semen Harvest, Sex and Sexuality, Strain Theory, Robert Merton, Harare, Zimbabwe

Introduction and Background to the Study

The study solicited for people’s perceptions, experiences and understanding about the newly emerging trends on sex and sexual interactions between men and women in the Zimbabwean society. Coming from the background where patriarchy is prevalent, women are positioned as objects or subordinates rather than subjects in real life. This makes men to be breadwinners, who have

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deliberately positioned themselves at the epicentre of power, authority and leadership in most aspects of life including the interpersonal issues. It is evident that men are the controllers, determiners and definers of African sex and sexuality. Through this arrangement, men automatically become suitors who initiate, determine and dominate in the interpersonal issues encompassing the pursuit and congest in relationships, payers of bride price, allowed to practice polygamy whilst denigrating polyandry on women among others. This system has accorded men more power to control human sexuality and sometimes to be more sexually aggressive as compared to women. It is men who are mostly found dominating in anti-social sexual behaviours like molesting, raping, bestiality, sexual harassment among others. On the contrary, women are regarded as feminine victims who are expected to behave as customers who exist to satisfy men's sometimes brutal, libidinous and insatiable thirst for sex. However, the recent trend in most Zimbabwean urban centres from 2009 has seen a newly emerging social ‘disorder’ where men are falling prey to female gang rappers who are also hunting for male semen. This has caused moral panic as more questions are emerging and remaining unanswered about this newly germinating social trend. One will ask whether this is a role reversal on the part of women challenging male chauvinism or there might be something super officious behind these unusual acts. Disagreements on the causes of such incidents of raping and semen harnessing by females had become the pinnacle of this study.

Sex is a natural and universal phenomenon prevalent to humanity and most living creatures under the sun. Cornell (2003) explained that the history of sex can best be understood from the studies and explanations proffered by ancient Greek philosophers and other psychoanalysts. He cited the examples of Plato, Hume, Aristotle, Sigmund Freud and others who studied human sexuality and unanimously agreed that sex is natural and it is automatically driven from body responses triggered from strong libidinal energy which is difficult to suppress. This implies that the need for sex either homosexual or heterosexual by human beings is irresistible. Regardless of this fact that sex is natural, some social scientists has propounded that there are some factors which play a bigger part in moulding more differentiated sexual behaviours between men and women in different societies. In this debate, culture has been fingered as one of the major culprits in creating differences and imbalances on sexual desires and behaviour between men and women. Arguing from this background, Cornell (2003) espoused that socialisation plays a critical role in shaping people's sex and sexuality. Young children are brought up in specialised social roles where girls are destined to be feminine housewives whilst men become the public players and providers of the families. He further explained that these popular and dominant patriarchal orientations in Africa tend to consider heterosexual male desire as permissive and morally accepted against women's oriented desires. In the broader spectrum, this explains that it becomes very difficult and abnormal for women to initiate the courtship process and later on freely initiate or express their thinking on sex regardless of burning with serious passion for it. MacPhail and Campell, (2001) envisaged that in Southern Africa, masculine sexuality manifests in society's classification of 'normal' men being associated with multiple partners and have power over women. This explains that men are obviously influenced by these expectations and exert their sexual competence on women. On the contrary, women will automatically become bystanders and recipients
to this male dominated sexual enterprise. Having the control of the society, men created measures and checks and balances to make sure that woman are always under surveillance and control. This has been necessitated by the creation of sex rituals like circumcision, virginity testing among others. Research by Ojor (2005) among Yoruba of Nigeria has revealed that virginity is highly valued and constant checks and balances on unmarried girls are done from time to time. He further explained that these virginity tests are sometimes done using unscientific methods like examining calves around the legs, insertion of fingers or pushing an egg into the vagina. Having a closer look, people can observe that there are high purity expectations and control exerted on girls and women at large concerning sexual interactions as compared to men. On boys or males, there may be very little or no checks and balances put on them on controlling sexual behaviours, rather, some are encouraged or expected to be knowledgeable and experienced. In general, these exercises tell that women are culturally monitored and indoctrinated to remain under men on sexual matters.

Researches in many African societies have solidified the argument that culture has reinforced chauvinistic sexual tendencies of men. A study by Muparamoto (2013) on male university students at Great Zimbabwe University has revealed that male dominance in sex and sexual interactions was a ubiquitous phenomenon. He observed that male students engage in some serious competition of conquering female students through dating and sleeping with them. These competitions are commonly referred to by male students as ‘trophy hunt’ where they will compete as champions basing on having too many sexual partners as well as having sexual intercourse with them. These behaviours cannot be solely attributed to the students, but can stand as a representation of the whole Zimbabwean society at large. Regardless of the dangers associated with such behaviours in the hype of deadly STIs like HIV and AIDS, the university students are seemingly to be operating in comfort zone where they act without conscience. After having realised this trend of male students’ sexual behaviour, one may argue that socialisation and cultural beliefs have a great influence in the development of this chauvinistic attitude. Men are trained to be leaders, husbands, fathers and others which give them ample space to be over and above women in all aspects of human existence. In his studies on sex and gender in Africa, Oloruntoba-Oju (2006) has observed and concluded that sex is gender skewed meaning that it is tilted in favour of men at the same time putting a stricture on females. Females are socialised into passive recipients or objects in the sexual enterprise. It is evident that men are expected to explore women, dominate and conquer them without too much social disapproval.

Operating in the same realm of culture and its contribution to the sexual subjugation of women, one can also finger point sexual rituals such as circumcision as responsible for women’s inferior status. However, there are contestations between scholars about the role of circumcision rituals and sexual independence and equality between men and women. Other scholars like Lockhart (2004) are very positive and praise it as very functional in societies because it protects people especially women against rape whilst ensuring virginity, chastity and protection of family honour. Despite such positivistic sentiments from other writers, some movements like feminism have criticised rituals like
female circumcision arguing that they operate as a technically planned mechanism created by men to suppress women’s competence and potential desire for sex. Simon De Beauvoir (1989) and McFadden (1999) shared similar sentiments in arguing that circumcision rituals like the removal of female’s clitoris and other erogenous parts of the vagina was meant to suppress women’s desire and enjoyment of sex. They further argue that male circumcision like the removal of the prepuce leaves them equipped with the protection against STIs at the same time enjoying sex longer than women. One can also argue that, the reduced potential of contracting STIs due to circumcision may also have its own disadvantages like fuelling the potential of promiscuity in men. Majority of men may end up over enjoying sex as well as exploiting women yet circumcision does not guarantee them total safety from STIs. On the contrary, women will be greatly exposed to dangers like lacerations on vagina membranes during these prolonged sexual escapades. On the same note, contemporary proclamation of male circumcision by modern doctors in a bid to reduce the scourge of HIV and AIDS tend to protect men alone leaving women vulnerable. This has also the potential of encouraging men to venture into wild sexual encounters basing on the assumption that they are safe from venereal diseases. Analysing the above arguments, one can observe that men tend to enjoy the bigger share of the cake when it comes to sexual interactions and they become more visible and aggressive players in the sex game than their female counterparts.

Regardless of people putting greater responsibility, blame and negative comments on culture and socialisation for causing men to be sexual offenders or aggressors, studies by some scientists have given an alternative to these sentiments. Through researches and studies, they have also identified biological make-up as a contributor or culprit in causing disequilibrium in sexual behaviour between men and women. Through her studies of human biology, Jessica et al. (2006) observed that chromosomal arrangement across human beings and many mammals have a direct impact in determining sexual behaviour to be aggressive or passive especially at the adult age. They stated that females have XX chromosomal arrangement while men possess XY. It is believed that the Y chromosome tend to cause aggressive behaviour as has been proved by their experiments with the white mice. They also argued that some men intrinsically possess XYY chromosomal setup and the extra Y means that double dose may translate into double trouble. These excess chromosomal possessions have a foreseeable potential of influencing men to engage in troublesome and anti-social behaviour like fighting, crimes and involvement in heightened sexual escapades. In the same platform, it has been elaborated that the presence of testosterone in men contributes greatly to more aggressive sexual behaviour in men because excess of it expose them to heightened libido. The heightened libido is believed to play central role in influencing men to engage in polygamous relationships as well as other anti-social sexual activities like bestiality, rape, sexual harassment among others.

**Conceptual or theoretical framework**

This study is informed by Merton’s (1968) Strain theory where he tried to explain how societal structures may exert pressure on its members in breaking the moral code or committing crimes. He
elucidated that in many societies, there exists some discrepancies between culturally defined goals and also the institutionalised means of attaining them as well. Relating this theory to the Zimbabwean society, there are some clearly laid out norms and values which guides human beings on how to attain a socially approved progressive society for both men and women. In this context, females are expected to work hard and achieve just like their male counterparts. One of the major expectations centred on women’s progressive life is marriage. A successful woman in business enterprise and other social achievements would be greatly appreciated in the marriage setup. That being the norm and social expectation, contemporary problems in Zimbabwe like poverty, unemployment and other challenges affecting many people might have caused some women to break the moral code and engage in rapping men and harvesting their sperms as a survival strategy. These experiences in the Zimbabwean context may go in tandem with Merton’s discoveries that people who face challenges in pursuing conventional routes for survival may end up being innovative, rebellious, retreatists among others. In these situations people would have been dissatisfied with the status quo and engaging in so called anti-social behaviour to make a living. In the context of this research, the female rapists are one of the other groups who have defied odds of the society after failing to get into formal employment and other conventional dexterous activities to earn a living as well maintaining their marriages. Resultantly, they engage in the acts regarded as nefarious like raping men and making a lot of money by selling men’s semen. These practices are unethical and condoned in the Zimbabwean society. One can note that failure by women to make a decent living in the economically challenged Zimbabwe has led to the breakdown of the moral codes creating a situation of anomie.

**Approaches to data collection**

The nature of the study has prompted the researcher to utilise a qualitative paradigm in soliciting people’s perceptions and experiences on female rappers who have taken the Zimbabwean society by storm in the last four years. The study was carried out from March 2013 to December 2013 in the CBD of Harare and in the Avenues residential area. When collecting data the researcher utilised both primary and secondary techniques. On primary sources, unstructured interviews assisted much in asking unstructured questions freely whilst adjusting them accordingly especially on instances where respondents seem not be amused by the question. Mwanje (2001) expressed that unstructured interviews are very flexible and functional because the researcher will interact freely with the respondents listening and talking about the social problems under inquiry. In the effort to supplement and complement information gathered on people’s perceptions of female rapists and their strong need for male semen, the researcher also utilised focused group discussions (FGDs). This double barrelled use of research techniques helped immensely in the endeavour to come up with wholesome, if not complimentary, information about the social issue under inquiry. (See Chigwenya and Muparamoto, 2009) Weighing their contribution to the study, FGDs have given the participants the opportunity to interact and exchanging their mind-sets on rape cases and the possible need and destination of the collected male semen without over relying on individual or personal thinking on the subject matter. Commenting on FGD as a good research tool, Morgan (2002) has expressed that if it is less
unstructured, the researcher could see participants engaging or talking more to each other instead of answering the questions from the moderator.

During the study, the researcher didn’t only rely on primary research techniques; he also embraced what is known as crystallisation or triangulation of research techniques on the same social problem under investigation. In this scenario, secondary data sources like published newspaper articles were incorporated in the study. Church et al. (1996), explained that secondary data encompasses the use of original and published information taken from tables, texts, appendices, graphs, published articles among others. In this study, the researcher also obtained some published information from some of Zimbabwe’s leading newspapers like the Herald, and the Newsday of 2013. These papers provided varsity cases of female rapists nationwide explaining in greater detail of what transpired. They also helped in supplying the information on how the police are handling them as well as pursuing the cases in the courts where they will be finally settled. This was advantageous because it was not feasible for the researcher and the respondents to have all the information of what was transpiring in distant places and courts. Since the researcher was mainly targeting people’s perceptions on female rapists, the newspapers complimented in constantly supplying what is happening elsewhere but under the same research theme.

Data presentation and discussion

Female rapists as entrepreneurs?
The study has revealed that some groups or gangs of beautiful women in Harare and other urban areas like Gweru, Mutare and Bulawayo team up and rape males who fall in their traps. These incidents are ubiquitous in Zimbabwean highways where these women would be scavenging around in posh cars offering transport to long distance male travellers. In Harare, these sperm hunters are believed to operate much at Road Port targeting clients heading to Mutare, at Mbudzi targeting those going to Masvingo, at the Harare Show Grounds targeting those heading to Bulawayo and also in the Avenues residential suburbs near the Harare CDB. It was noted that once these female gang rappers got their prey in the car they will travel some few kilometres along the highway before they divert the route and deal with the victim. It has been said that sometimes they spray powerful gases to reduce resistance from the prey, sometimes they rape them at gun point or force them to drink aphrodisiac like concoction to induce a coercive involuntary participation in the sperm donation act.

It has also been discovered that these acts are also common in the Avenues area. Response from a 30 year old male research participant from Harare’s Avenues residential revealed that cases of rape was not much pronounced in the area but the act of sperm harvesting was very prevalent with the young and beautiful females. He narrated that males working in that area mostly security guards are offered free sex by these scavenging women not knowing that their sperms are considered as the ‘golden juicy’ by these wondering females. In the very Avenues area, female rapists also took advantage of many lodges where they hire and pay accommodation fares for sleeping with willing men in the sperm harvesting exercise. It is claimed that in the initial days in early 2010, men would
wonder around with condoms in their pockets looking for these female sexual donors. At the end of these sexual escapades, the women will consciously take charge of condoms and their contents. In these interactions, these unsuspecting men will be happy getting free sex not knowing that at the end they would have donated both sexual pleasure and sperms for making money for these women.

These enthusiastic desires for sex by men explains that majority of them have heightened libido. Observations by Jessica et al. (2006) on male behaviour on sexuality revealed that the possession of a Y chromosome by males explains their heightened potential desire for sexual intercourse. This is evidenced by their behaviour where they would be brave and aggressive enough to offer themselves to strange women without asking questions about why they would get sex for free in this age. Taking Merton’s Strain Theory, one can observe that there are a lot of moral guidelines broken during this exercise. As is known in Zimbabwean culture, sex is a preserve for the married couples being it polygamous or monogamous marriages, but the great desire for quenching their libidinous thirsty, security guards and other men take advantage of these female sexual entrepreneurs to get free sex defying the odds of doing it in the marital quotas. On the same note, venturing in this enterprise, though there is voluntary sex between the men and women to engage into sex, it can still be argued that though pursuing different goals of life, the means of achieving them through these pronounced fornicatorious and adulterous conducts is condoned. This tells that such kind of life is largely condoned despite elements of success embedded in it.

The research has also proved beyond reasonable doubt that the rapping and harvesting of male sperms is a ubiquitous phenomenon in the Zimbabwean society at large. Evidence gathered from the Newsday and the Herald, both local newspapers, has proved that these activities were also at hype in other cities like Gweru and Mutare. The Herald of July 11, 2013 has reported about 15 cases of female rapists which were tried at Harare’s Rotten Row Magistrate Court. Majority of these women were found to be in possession of used condoms containing male sperms. In the paper again, there were some compiled statistics indicating that for all cases recorded and entertained at Rotten Row magistrate, about 30% of them include female rape cases per month. On a related note, on 12th of September 2013, the Newsday published a bizarre story of three women who were caught possessing 31 used condoms containing sperms. The paper narrated that these three sperms harvesters were involved in an accident and the arrival of police opened the Pandora box. The failure by these women to explain the source of sperms and also a series of reported rape cases in Gweru has necessitated the easy arrest pending trial at Gweru Central Police.

Under normal circumstances one would argue that if the condoms with sperms were just an output of the strong desire for sexual pleasure, they might have been thrown away after use. As it appears, there are more complicated explanations behind these acts. However, regardless of the proliferation of these bizarre phenomena, there is no general consensus amongst people pertaining to exact destination of the harnessed sperms. To make matters worse, the trial sessions in courts will not investigate the destination or the purported use of sperms but may focus on crimes like possessing of
indecent things and rape itself. Like Merton said, societal structures like patriarchy and poverty may directly influence people to engage in anti-social and illegitimate means of achieving progress in life. Such fights for survival through illegitimate means can create a situation known as anomie, which explain a state of normlessness (see Merton 1968). The Zimbabwean scenario cannot be exonerated from being classified under this category following the proliferation of these uncouth practices. The strong desire for money is largely blamed for forcing people in the ailing Zimbabwean economy do whatever is available in order to survive.

These incidences appear to be surprising and frightening when it comes to the history of sex and sexuality in the Zimbabwean society. Prior to the proliferation and subsequent increases of the female rapists, women have never been considered as a threat or profound perpetuators of anti-social sexual conducts like rapping, gang rapping, molesting, sexual harassment among others. By comparison, more cases of rape have been largely committed and recorded on male’s side. Also as if it’s not enough, the Zimbabwean laws do not recognise females as rappers because they don’t penetrate anyone during the sexual intercourse, voluntary or involuntary. This reinforces the arguments that males are the once blamed for rapping. However, on recorded cases where females have been finger pointed for rapping males, the major reasons were not that much except cruel tendencies of infecting the victims with HIV and AIDS. In other cases, adult females may sexually abuse young males and this is explained in the realm of their fear to engage adult males even in times burning with sexual passion.

In most other instances, women tend to suppress their sexual feelings or to initiate sex fearing to be labelled as promiscuous or loose in morals. That being the case, females tended to be vulnerable to this male dominated sexual game. These newly emerging sexual trends are proving beyond reasonable doubt that that the tables have turned upside down. This turning movement has largely contributed in converting ‘the hunter’ to become the ‘hunted’. This explains a situation where males who used to dominate and control women sexuality are now vulnerable victims from these charging women. Travelling males are always fearful, vulnerable and sometimes defenceless in the hands of women on long distances, walking alone at night and even commuting in female dominated public transport. To make matters worse the Zimbabwean laws do not address females as rappers but classifies such acts as aggravated indecent assault. This then means that it’s possible for the culprits to be given a lesser sentence as compared to a male rapper because of a compromised terminology and rape interpretation. In many instances female offenders are found to be getting lower or lighter sentences than when a man rapped a woman. These legal irregularities and inconsistencies have left men puzzled, exposed and fearful of these alarming trends of sexual relations. However, these newly emerging sexual trends in Zimbabwean urban centres are contradicting the orthodox observations by Muparamoto (2013) when he studded male students’ sexual beliefs and behaviour at Great Zimbabwe University. Contemporary events are proving that despite men still having this domineering attitude, women are also not supposed to be taken for granted because they are ushering in a new wave of reality in the context of sex.
The above narrations explore much on how women rape men and how this is changing the existing social trend on sex and sexuality. The most fearsome and unethical practices associated with these episodes is that they are meant to “harness” or “harvest” male’s sperms. A million dollar question which may come from these acts is that why do these females want male sperms, is it an entrepreneurial ethic of selling them for further reproduction or use them for rituals of improving their fortunes in life? Some elderly people who have participated in the study were of the view that these acts are unusual and they suspected that these women work hand in glove with traditional healers as a way of making money. It was claimed that under normal circumstances, the young female rappers engage in these unethical practices after facing a lot of challenges like marital breakdown, poverty among others. These desperate women may end up consulting traditional healers or magicians who will prescribe them to bring male sperms for performing rituals to quicken and maximise their fortunes. These elderly respondents further explained that the majority the rappers are given goblins in the form of large snakes which survive by feeding on human sperms. In return, the snake will vomit thousands of dollars marking an end to financial doldrums bedevilling some young women in urban areas. Taking Merton’s sentiments, social structures have an impact on how people react to challenges affecting their daily existence. After struggling with life, some embattled women would improvise even using uncouth means in effort to fulfil their ambitious and luxurious life. In this scenario, female rappers have gone rebellious and retreated in following the orthodox profile of the so called moral or values in the endeavour to prosper in general life.

Whilst the elderly respondents have associated sperm collection with mythical and witchcraft related acts of improving fortunes, some young generation tend to come with a conflicting response about the issue. Though they concur on the issue of using human semen for monetary gains, they disagreed on the means by which the money is obtained. One respondent, a 34 year old male who works as a lecturer at a local college in the CBD of Harare expressed that the majority of these women in the ‘sperm hunting’ industry would rely on selling them somewhere in this country whilst others opted for better markets in South Africa. He further explained that they sell their consignment to scientists and doctors who will later sell them to couples and families affected by barreness or impotency. However, this argument was not popular when it was taken further to other respondents.

Through FGDs, it was argued that the process involved in getting the sperms starting from rapping males and further transportation to potential buyers local or abroad is a complicated and difficult exercise. Some respondents argued that if these sperms were meant for further reproduction, quality would be greatly compromised because they lack relevant containers to maintain and preserve these ‘delicate juices’ in good and moderate temperatures for further successful reproduction. The study revealed that a lot of these condoms containing sperms have been found to be heaped in sacks and bags which are not good enough to preserve. Some respondents have suggested that if they were destined for further reproduction, it could have been easy to open it to males to freely participate in the sperm donation or selling them just like what happens in the donating of blood. This move seems to be acceptable because male producers will willingly participate and retain benefits from the process.
whilst avoiding the gruesome and torturous process of being gang rapped. It has been noted that some of the victims ended up comma, some dead and others traumatised because the rappers would overdose them with very powerful drugs and put some at gun point.

**Female rapists as role reversal?**

As the composition of the respondents was inclusive of people of both sexes and different ages, the response obtained clearly showed diametrically opposed mind-sets pertaining to the exact reason behind female rapping and the intended goal of collecting male semen. Whilst some have espoused the idea that they harness sperms for performing witchcraft related rituals for making money, others claimed that there is a strong need to consider the shifting of roles in the ever-changing global society. Information obtained from the research revealed that those who claimed to be ‘educated’ would quickly understand and appreciate the importance of change ushered in by technological advancement and elements of globalisation. This clearly depicts that technological development like internet, television among others has ushered in new forms of socialisation where orthodox gender relations are questioned and consequently changed. The continuous exposure in viewing western movies and other globally broadcasted cultural artefacts have influenced local women to be more liberal whilst questioning the orthodox masculine beliefs and practices. These arguments tend to challenge prior observation made by Cornell (2003) that in traditional African societies, men are socialised into leaders and controllers of all interpersonal issues including sexual issues. However, analysing the changes brought in by new waves of socialisation, one can be made to believe that women are now observing that there isn’t much difference between them and their male counterparts. Through the proclamation of human rights and education in contemporary world, they are becoming independent just like the males and this gives them the chance to freely express their interests even in the previously male dominated enterprise like sex interaction. Some respondents expressed that once these women are free and moving towards liberation, they exercise behaviours like those of putting the ‘macho’ or masculinity of males under siege.

As noted by Merton (1968), deviance or anomie is a product of social structures which may sometimes impinge on individual’s efforts and resultantly, they may end up adopting illegitimate means of making a living. These ideas go in tandem with arguments that when women are becoming empowered like these, they will also end up taking even anti-social behaviours like rapping that were previously considered to be male oriented. Some people have argued that these newly socialised and independent women are also facing challenges of getting married because women out numbers men in terms of population. This reduces chances of getting into monogamous marriages hence forcing them to end up participating anti-social sexual practices. These episodes signify a significant change in society and the coming in of new social sexual order. McFadden (1999)’s observation that female circumcision rituals in many African societies are meant to control them is now facing some challenges as far as the Zimbabwean experience is concerned because women are no longer appearing to be as domestic or sexually docile. Evidence has shown that they are also exerting chauvinistic tendencies like males creating a strong challenge on the previously called the dominant
sex. However, changes in social roles can be considered but a million dollar question would still remain unanswered about the use of sperms.

Conclusion
The study has revealed the proliferation of young and beautiful female gangs who rape men in many Zimbabwean urban areas. It emerged that, these women they hunt for male sperms for unclear reasons. These women are believed to carry their operations in popular bus termini in Harare targeting long distance travellers. Some are also found even in local bars and lodges offering free sex to unsuspecting males and ending up collecting their sperms. The study also revealed that these women are not lustful as people can think but they are on a serious mission of collecting as much sperms as they can during these involuntary sexual escapades. However, the study revealed two mainly diametrically opposing mind-sets pertaining to the reason to why they engage in these practices. Some said they harvest male sperms in order to use them in superstitiously related rituals of making money especially after experiencing severe sufferings for over decades of Zimbabwe’s beleaguered economy. On the contrary, some have suggested that the coming in of modernity in form of globalisation, technology mainly in media and education has empowered women putting them on the same standing just like their male counterparts. Despite this argument being strong that women in Zimbabwe are increasingly empowered, it remained vague why they would collect male sperms in large volumes? The idea that they need to sell them for further reproduction was peripheral because the complex process involved in their harvesting would not support the sperm to remain lively functional considering the packaging and the market. At the end, most people remain convinced that they use them for fortune seeking rituals with traditional healers, especially taking into consideration strong witchcraft beliefs and practices prevalent in Zimbabwean society.

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A Study of School Achievement among the Gujjar and Bakerwal Tribes of Jammu and Kashmir

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Abstract: In the present scenario academic achievement poses a big challenge to the educationist and psychologists everywhere. It is especially of great concern in India where population explosion, multi-cultural societies and an extraordinary rush for education has led to marvellous quantitative growth of education at all the stages without consistent quality growth. Albeit the needs, strength and interest of each learner are unique and determined by their socio cultural and demographic background and circumstances. The differences in academic achievement of students may be determined by this background. In this paper an attempt has been made to study the total educational achievement of the Gujjar and Bakerwal tribal students of Jammu And Kashmir State. The results clearly indicated that both the clans are still backward in their educational achievement, but the nomadic tribal Bakerwal Gotra and the Gujjar and Bakerwal tribal students of Kashmir division are still in a very poor educational situation than there counterpart Gujjars of Jammu.

Keywords: Tribe, Gujjar, Bakerwal, School Achievement

Introduction:
Education is regarded as one of the most important and potential instrument for the development of a national. Contemporary society cannot accomplish its endeavour of economic growth, technical development and cultural progression without fully exploiting the abilities of its citizens. Educationists thus make every effort to develop fully the intellectual potential of the students and make efforts to see that their potentialities are fully acknowledged and channelized for the benefit of the individual in general and that of the society in particular. M.K Ghandhi precisely defines education as the all round drawing out of the best in child and man- body, mind and soul" (Cited in Saxena 2013). So, education is the process of bringing out the latent potentialities of an individual and to unfold the hidden natural abilities and interest before the society. This task of unfolding is usually correlated with the temples of knowledge also known as schools, and the extent to which the competencies and potentialities has

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been developed in a child is accredited to its academic achievement. The nucleus of the entire educational growth is the academic achievement of the individual which has pivotal importance in the educational scenario. Societies adhere, academic achievement as a principle condition to evaluate one’s overall potentialities and capacities. It forms the main basis of admission and promotion in a class. It is also important for obtaining a degree or getting a job. Therefore it is the need of the hour to have high academic achievement. For a student, value of academic achievement is important not only for higher education on the one hand and finding valuable job on the other, but also for bringing personal satisfaction and social recognition.

Academic achievement is the product of the instruction supplied to the children in schools and is determined by the grades, or marks secured by the students in the examination. It generally indicates the learning outcomes of pupil which requires a series of planned and organised experiences. Academic achievement is the primary and persistent liability of every educational institution established by the society to promote whole scholastic growth and development of a child. The term academic achievement has been defined by various educationists according to their experience and perception. Here I would like to cite some of the definitions and the various views of some great thinkers regarding the academic achievement.

Crow and Crow (1969) defines achievement as the degree with which a learner gets profit from instructions, in other words achievement is revealed as the acquisition of knowledge or skill by a person from the training imparted to him. Saxena and Dwivedi (1979) refer scholastic achievement as the attainment or accomplishment in the field where a subject obtains some instruction or training. Stagner (1962) defines achievement as an extent of aptitude or advancement made by student in the mastery of school subjects. Clifford et al. (1986), defines achievement as the task oriented behaviour that permits individual’s performance to be evaluated according to some internally and externally imposed criteria. According to Rao (1980) achievement is concerned with the improvement of knowledge, understanding and acquisition of skills. In the words of Verma and Upadhyay (1981) achievement is the ability or achievement of an individual in a particular branch of knowledge after training. Singh (1976) pointed out that, academic achievement is a very multifarious variable, a resultant of varied different kind’s cognitive and non-cognitive factors, acting and interacting in a diverse direction.

Analysing the above definitions, we can conclude that academic achievement refers to the ability attained in academic work or acquired knowledge in school subjects which is measured by the grades, or marks secured by the students in the examination. Academic achievement is a measure of what has been learnt in the academic year. Academic achievement is determined by a student-teacher on a particular specified area of instruction. In line of the above discussion academic achievement of the student in the present study, is determined by considering the total percentage obtained in Eighth class examination.
Operational definitions:

School achievement: Academic achievement or (academic) performance is the outcome of education — the extent to which a student, teacher or institution has achieved their educational goals. Commonly measured by examinations or continuous assessment but there is no general agreement on how it is best tested or which aspects are most important — but in the present study the school achievement is taken as the percentage of the marks achieved by the tribal students in the Eighth class examination of the Jammu and Kashmir state board of school education (JKBOSE).

Gujjar: The Gujjars are the tribal people residing mostly in the foothills of the Jammu and Kashmir state mostly found in the districts of Poonch, Rajouri, Anantnag, kuphwara, Baramullah and in less abundance in the rest of the districts. The Gujjars are mostly settled, rearing buffaloes, cows, and in some exceptional cases a few goats, engaged in agricultural farming possessing small lands on hilly terrains, mostly crop maize (Zea Maize), with a little evidence of wheat (in Jammu district). Gujjars are physically strong and tall persons, wearing traditional turban, khan dress (a kind of loose kurta with collar and a Patiala type pajama) for men and for women, frock type kamiz and a shalwar, with a typical head gayer usually home made out of spawn. All Gujjar females irrespective of their age are having decorated hair with narrow cord like designs usually mend by female of the clan. A kamer band (a type of cloth tied in the waist and linked to the head posteriorly usually for nourishing mothers for caring there young ones.

Bakerwal: Gypsies of Kashmir, these itinerant people of land are usually nomadic in nature, rearing goats and sheep, moving from one place to another in search of pastorals land, fair health shorter than Gujjars, sober in nature, sharing the same dress code and language (Expect some Bakerwals who speak Pashto) as that of the Gujjar. Deprived of land some share (dokhs) grazing lands on which they tent up for some time till the grazing is over. Most of the Bakerwal’s got dropout after class five because the need arises for the maintaining of herds, but still some carry on as there is provision for them to join school in both the regions without any formality, during their migration. Due to uneven circumstances in the Jammu and Kashmir, the number of Bakerwals adopted temporary settlements. Pasture scarcity, access to education and health services, unstable political atmosphere etc. were basic factors for settlement (Sofi 2013).

Objectives of the study:

1. To study the school achievement of the Gujjar and Bakerwal tribal students of Jammu and Kashmir.
2. To compare school achievement of tribal’s on the basis of gender, clan, and region.

Methodology:

Collection of the data: The present paper is a part of a massive research work still under process at Aligarh Muslim University. The data has been collected in two phases over a period of six months. In
the first phase the data has been collected from the Poonch and Rajouri district of Jammu region and in the second phase from the Anantnag and Kupwara districts of the Kashmir region. The strategy for collection of the data was the same for both phases. Initially the information regarding total number of schools, category wise enrolment and the number of tribal children enrolled in each school where drawn from the office of chief educational officer of the concerned districts. After scrutinizing the data schools where selected by convenient sample, i.e., schools having the significant tribal population of both the clans were selected. From these selected schools, samples were randomly selected.

Sample:
The total sample comprises of 626 tribal students of which 294 are from Kashmir region and 332 from Jammu region. The overall sample description is given in Table 1

Table 1: showing the description of total sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Jammu</th>
<th>Kashmir</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gujjar</td>
<td>Bakerwal</td>
<td>Gujjar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tools:
The academic achievement of the tribal students were taken from the school records of the schools visited, also a personal information sheet was used to obtain information from the respondents regarding their clan, district, region, and also the scores obtained from the previous year examination passed, which were counter checked at the school office.

Analysis and interpretation:
All the statistical techniques employed in the present study were calculated by the researcher himself by the aid of IBM SPSS statistics 20. In order to achieve the above objective all the eight subgroups were codified for the simplification and presentation of data. The codes were given as, “A” for Male Bakerwal Kashmir, “B” = Male Bakerwal Jammu, “C” = Female Bakerwal Jammu, “D” = Female Bakerwal Kashmir, “E” = Male Gujjar Jammu, “F” = Male Gujjar Kashmir, “G” = Female Gujjar Jammu, and “H” = Female Gujjar Kashmir.

Objective 1: To study the school achievement of tribal students:
In order to study the academic achievement of various tribal groups descriptive statistical techniques were employed. Mean and SD of the various tribal sub-groups were calculated and tabulated as under.
Table 2: Descriptive statistics of school achievement of various sub groups:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male Bakerwal Kashmir (A)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>47.93</td>
<td>10.825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Bakerwal Jammu (B)</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>51.47</td>
<td>8.183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Bakerwal Jammu (C)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>53.09</td>
<td>8.485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Bakerwal Kashmir (D)</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>50.24</td>
<td>10.878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Gujjar Jammu (E)</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>60.58</td>
<td>13.601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Gujjar Kashmir (F)</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>52.82</td>
<td>11.636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Gujjar Jammu (G)</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>53.84</td>
<td>11.612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Gujjar Kashmir (H)</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>51.52</td>
<td>11.977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>626</td>
<td>53.59</td>
<td>11.994</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 displays descriptive statistics of various tribal subgroups, the statistics comprises of mean, and standard deviation of the various groups. Glance at the table reveal that the total sample of 626 tribal students have the average mean school achievement of 53.59 with SD= 11.994. The table also displays the mean and SD. of various subgroups. The highest average mean score is acquired by the male Gujjar students sample of the Jammu region i.e., M= 60.58 with SD 13.601, followed by female Gujjar students of the same region with M=53.84, SD= 11.612. The mean school achievement of the female Bakerwal students of the Jammu region was found to be 53.09, with SD= 8.485. From the same table it is also evident that the mean score of Male Bakerwal students of Jammu and the female Gujjar students of the Kashmir region are approximately the same with mean 51.47 and 51.52, and SD of 8.183 and 11.977 respectively. The mean scores of male Gujjar students of Kashmir region was 52.82 with SD of 11.636 and that of the female Bakerwal students of the Kashmir region is 50.24, with SD= 10.878. The lowest average mean score is shared by the students of Male Bakerwal tribe of Kashmir region i.e., M 47.93 with SD= 10.825.

Objective 2: To find out the significant difference between the various tribal subgroups.

Hypothesis 1: There is no statistical significant difference in the school achievement among the various tribal groups:

As there is one independent variable i.e., school achievement having eight subgroups A,B,C,D,E,F,G, and H. Therefore, one-way ANOVA was applied to test the above null hypothesis

Table 3: One way ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>9326.141</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1332.306</td>
<td>10.218</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>80583.701</td>
<td>618</td>
<td>130.394</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>89909.842</td>
<td>625</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Glance at the above table reveal that there is a statistical significant difference between the various sub-groups \( F (7, 625) = 10.218; P<0.01 \). A significant F-value clearly indicated the difference between the various groups thus rejecting the null hypothesis. The groups where formed on the basis of gender, region and clan, i.e., male female, Jammu region and Kashmir region, and Gujjar and Bakerwalas respectively. The ANOVA table only clarifies the presence of significant difference among the groups, but in order to identify specific significant difference among various groups, Scheffe’s test (or s test) was applied between the possible pairs.

Table 4: Multiple Comparisons between Various tribal Groups on School Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>H</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>-1.620</td>
<td>1.233</td>
<td>-9.106</td>
<td>-1.343</td>
<td>-2.362</td>
<td>-.047</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>2.853</td>
<td>-7.486</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>-.742</td>
<td>1.573</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>-10.339</td>
<td>-2.576**</td>
<td>-3.595</td>
<td>-1.280</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.763</td>
<td>6.744</td>
<td>9.058</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.019</td>
<td>1.295</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.314</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level. ** significant at 0.01 level

The close perusal of the table 4 reveals that out of twenty eight possible combinations only twelve combinations were found to be statistically significant i.e., the mean differences between A&E, B&D, B&E, B&F, B&G, B&H, C&E, D&E, E&F, E&G, E&H, and F&G are found to be significant at 0.05 level. The mean scores of the school achievement of various sub groups of tribal sample are graphically shown in ascending order as in Figure 1.
Findings of the study:
On the basis of analysis and interpretation, following conclusions has been drawn

- It was found that majority of the tribal students possess low school achievement with an average of 53.59.
- The school achievement of tribal students of Jammu region was good as compared to their counter parts of Kashmir region.
- Male tribal students were comparatively high in school achievement than the female ones
- Gujjar students have greater school achievement than the Bakerwal students.
- The male and female Gujjar of Jammu region has good academic achievement among all other tribal groups.
- Although all these tribal groups possess low school achievement but only less than a half of the possible combination where found to be statistically significant. In the majority of the cases there is no significant difference between the means.

References


Stigma, Violence and the Human Agents on the Motor Park Space in Ibadan Metropolis, Southwest Nigeria

Adeyemi Johnson Ademowo

Abstract: This study is concerned with violence imposed images of the Ibadan motorpark space and the human agents on that space. We shall examine the ‘orita-omoita’ (the violent space-violent being) marker and the sub-cultural identity of the space vis-à-vis its relationship with the general public. We use Erving Goffman’s labelling theory to explain how the image got skewed and the sustenance of the markedness by the public. Through the use of participant observation and key informant interviews we provide explanations for the sustained violence image of the motorpark, the ability of/attempt by the marked to live with/rise above the marked expectations and why the public is so imbued with the negative stereotypes that they have refused to appreciate the likely effects of the sustained label on urban development, crime control and security of the state.

Keywords: stigma, motor park, labelling, stereotype, urban development

Stereotype, Motor park Agents and the Ibadan Motor Park Space

Stereotypes are special kind of perception or image attached to a particular person or group, as peculiar to and defines that person or the group. In most cases, stereotypes are products of assumptions or supposedly drawn conclusions after dealing with and/or listening to similar narratives.

—E. Goffman, Stigma: Notes on the Management of Spoiled Identity
of habits or behaviour considered as uniquely peculiar to a group or individual. Stereotype formations are generally regarded as capable of fragmentizing and engendering discriminations, as it is with the caste system in India, and also capable of making the ‘victims’ or the ‘stereotyped’ very dejected, thereby creating a sense of helplessness that nothing could be done to salvage a particular situation (read again Erving Goffman’s opening quotation, above, for example).

What is essentially unique about stereotype creation is that the less is known of an individual or group, or the more seemingly mysterious an individual or group, the easier it becomes to stereotype such a group or individual. The process of stereotyping, therefore, compounds and amplifies the insidious simplification that accompanies classification (Ademowo, 2011:198). Hence, its condensation creates in minds and in socio-scopes, boundaries or marked figures, in similarly uncritical, though marked, grounds.

There is no limit to what and who can be stereotypes, old, young, poor, rich, brilliant, foolish, etc, anyone and any group can be a victim of stereotyping which eventually leads to an effective stigma that may ward off or create a sense of negative possibilities in the preceptor or members of a community. Both ‘body’ and ‘space’ can be stereotyped. While bodies refer to the individuals and groups relations, nature and identities, spaces stereotyping are essentially about locations and places. Once stereotyped, the ‘stereotyped body and space’ assume unwanted responsibility for managing stigma that they did not invite, create nor imposed.

One of the many spaces in Nigeria today that is surviving amidst stereotypes is the motor park space, a unique geographical location that services the transportation, market, social and cultural needs of the people. This space is stereotyped with many vices, namely, rowdiness, poverty, unruliness, criminals’ den, violence, etc. The stereotype here is focused on ‘body and the space.’ The activities and the living condition of the human agents of the motor park, which created the ‘stereotypes’, have undermined the significant role of the space in the social, political and economic well-being of the Nigerian society.

These stereotypes did not, however, emerge overnight; rather they evolved and developed overtime with increase in the park-public interactions. In fact, as Anderson (1991) explains, such stereotypes, as these, are

….self-organized evolutionarily in open systems, replete with serendipity and surprise, and they emerge developmentally in more limited systems permitting of some prediction, thereby engendering suspense (Anderson 1991: 204)

The perception of the motor park has supposedly gotten so skewed today, in violence, and ‘good-for-nothingness’ representation, that only the human agents of park themselves could be aware or sure of the ‘true’ image. The ‘markedness’ of the park has heightened to the level that violence is
perceived today as, barring any other indicator, synonymous with the motor park. Indeed, the newspapers headlines say it all:

“Nine persons injured, 20 vehicles destroyed in Ogun motor parks clashes”
*Premium Times*, February 14, 2013

“Violence: Soldiers, Police take over Onitsha motor park”
*The Punch*, February 21, 2014

“After years of violence: Peace, orderliness return to Oyo NURTW”
*The Nation*, December 25, 2013

“Boko Haram: Police uncover plot to bomb Abuja motor parks”
*Sun Newspapers*, July 13, 2014

The above headlines did not only convey the intended information/news to the general reading public, they are intended to reinforce or remind the public of the image of the motor park as ‘violence space with violent human bodies’.

**Violence on the Ibadan Motor parks space**

Violence can be defined as “any use of force—verbal, written, physical, psychological or sexual—against any person, by an individual or a group, with intent to directly or indirectly wrong, injure or oppress that person by attacking his or her integrity, psychological or physical well-being, rights or property” (MELS, 2009). It is the “the unlawful use or threat of force” (Tamuno, 1991).

Wilkinson (1977), in his own contribution, defines violence as the “illegitimate use of coercion resulting, or intended to result in the death, injury, or intimidation of persons or the destruction or seizure of property”. Violence can also be described as the “use of physical force to injure people or property”. From these definitions, one could move on to say that violence has to do basically with the use of force to access what other party will not willingly let go. This underscores Burrowes’ (2007:2) position that “Violence does not ‘just happen’. The exerted force, be it covert or overt, is meant to intimidate, subdue and, if necessary, destroy in order to achieve a set aim.

There are three basic dimensions of viewing violence. These are:

1. Psychological, involving irrational and murderous use of force, like robbery, thuggery, among others
2. Ethical, involving the vandalism of a neighbour’s property or an abuse of his liberty and;
3. Political, involving forceful seizure of power or the illegitimate use of political power. (Domenach, 1978)
The above three dimensions can be subsumed under two diverse types of violence, namely, individual or interpersonal and group or mass violence. We shall be considering both views, i.e. inter-personal and group as relating to the motor parks.

The inter-personal and group violence on the motor parks are sometimes used not to hurt *per se* but as a momentary means of appropriating the motor park space. The use of violence in the appropriating process is itself only a means to subdue the ‘other’ and his or her forces that might be interested in the space. The aim for the use of the violence is not to harm or hurt, intentionally, but sometimes the ‘harm’ or ‘hurt’ is often inevitable as the struggle for the space continues. But once the desired power is accessed, normalcy often returns to the motor park as the new leader and his group takes over the affairs of the motor park. This is not totally different from what is observable in Nigerian political arena where violent acts are employed to ‘deal ruthlessly’ with oppositions and used by oppositions to ‘vehemently resist’ the intimidation of the ruling party. This leads us to the question: if the use of violence is not peculiar to the motor parks, what is the basis of the formed stereotype that has imposed a violence stigma on the space and the human agents earning their living through their activities on such space?

**Study Area/Case study**

Ibadan, our study area, is located on the coordinates of 7°N 23°E/7, 23 of the Equator. Etymologically, the name, *Ibadan*, was coined from the phrase ‘eba odan’, which means ‘that which was found near the savannah’. History has it that ‘eba odan’ was founded by a group of warriors led by Lagelu. It was originally founded as a place of refuge, on a neutral ground, a kind of no man’s land serving as an informal boundary between the inhabitants of the savannah (*Odan*) who were the Oyo people and the forest (Igbo) dwellers, the Ijebu and Egba (Layonu, Okosun, Kehinde and Ishola, 2008:18).

The inner Ibadan city, often referred to as ‘Ibadan metropolis’, comprises of 5 radial local government areas, while the outer rings comprise of six local governments (Fabiyi, 2007). During the colonial era, Ibadan, was made an administrative centre of the old western Region in Nigeria and presently it is the capital of Oyo state.

There are motor parks or ‘garages’ in almost every community in Ibadan, including its rural semi-urban ones. But as Lawuyi (Unpub.) posits, “the intensity of conduct of economic and communicative affairs, the vastness of the space the garage occupied and the political structure and roles that transport plays” differentiate an urban from a rural motor park space. And based on this indisputable difference, it is incontrovertible that it is the complex nature of the motor parks within the Ibadan metropolis, which often makes them susceptible to all manner of activities which can be easily stereotyped. To make the choice of an urban study site, we observed four major urban motor-parks for two weeks, namely, Iwo road, Beere, Orita and Ojoo. We were looking for a
park that will be representative of all the transportation and market-park closeness among the four and also that which will be closely linked with the intra and inter-state transport as well as the haulage long distance transportation. Eventually, we chose Ojoo Motor park.

The Ojoo Motor Park is a unique and all-segment urban motor park space. The uniqueness can be found in the levels and classes of popular road transport sector that it contains, namely, the intra-city, intra-state, inter-state, motorbike/Okada and the trailer section (which adds the ‘uniqueness’ to it for there is hardly any other urban or rural motor park in Ibadan that has higher numbers of trailers or a virile standing motor park associations).

Theoretical framework: Labelling Theory

Labelling theory belongs to the social construction theories. The theory holds that deviance is not inherent to an act rather that focuses on the tendency of majorities to negatively label minorities or those seen as deviant from standard cultural norms. The theory concerns itself with how the self-identity and behavior of individuals may be determined or influenced by the terms used to describe or classify them, which can be associated with the concept of a self-fulfilling prophecy.

The theory had its origins in Suicide, a book by French sociologist Émile Durkheim and deals mostly not with the normal roles that define daily lives, but with those very special roles that society provides for deviant behavior, called deviant roles, stigmatic roles, or social stigma. (A social role is defined as a set of expectations we have about a behavior). It must be noted however that society makes use of stigmatic or stereotyped roles to control and limit deviant behavior. To the marker or the society therefore, to proceed in a kind of behavior or act in ways considered similar to them, is to become a member of that group of people. Those who are assigned those roles will be seen as less human and reliable. Deviant roles are the sources of negative stereotypes, which tend to support society's disapproval of the behaviour. Prominent labelling theory scholars, apart from Durkheim, include: Frank Tannenbaum, Edwin Lemert, Erving Goffman and Howard Becker. However, Erving Goffman's version of the theory is most relevant for us here.

Goffman's contribution to labelling theory, could be found in his famous book Stigma: Notes on the Management of Spoiled Identity. There are five core insight to Goffman's idea of labelling theory (Goffman 1963: 81, 88,108,122). Goffman (1962:81) explains one of the key insights into the labeled world with his 'Living in a divided world' principle.

According to Goffman,

Deviants divide their worlds into: 1. forbidden places where discovery means exposure and danger, 2. places where people of that kind are painfully tolerated, and 3. places where one's kind is exposed without need to dissimulate or conceal (1963:81).

What must be clearly noted about labelling theory is that it emphasises that the labels applied to individuals or group influence their behaviour, particularly the application of negative or stigmatizing
labels (such as ‘area boy’) promote deviant behaviour, which then translates to a self-fulfilling prophecy. The use of the label can also be an attempt to change the individual from their deviant behaviours and to prevent others from behaving in similar manners. However, sometimes, an individual who is labelled has little choice or say but to conform to the essential meaning of that judgment imposed on his/her or them, which then makes the intended control ineffective.

**Methodology**

A case study research strategy is adopted for this study. This is to enable us to carry out in-depth study of a given social unit (Ukpokolo, 2002). The case study approach afford the researcher the opportunity to carry out a thorough investigation in the chosen area, just as Malinowski and Mead did when they studied the Trobriand Islanders and the Samoans respectively. Due to a high number of motor-parks in Ibadan, Ojoo Motor Park was purposively selected due to its unique ‘all segment of transportation’ nature because it has a regular inter-city unit, the inter-state, the Okada/tri-cycle unit, the taxi unit as well as the trailer section. Sixty key informants were interviewed for the purpose of data collection. They constituted the sample size. Using snowballing method, made it quite easy to interview these informants. The selection is distributed among the seven identified segments of the Ojoo motor park as follows: drivers and union officers, 15; market men and women, 15; local government officials, 2; bus conductors and other menial park staff, 8; members of the Nigerian Police Force Police, 4; the commuters, 15; and an Ifa scholar. The study was carried out between 2009 and 2012.

**Research Findings**

**a. Violence, the park and the park agents**

One Yoruba word that has close affinity with violence is ‘jagidijagan’. It is often attached to people’s way of addressing issues. Majority of those addressed as “onijagidijagan” or ‘violent people’ are usually non-educated, poor people. The educated or rich yet seemingly destructive people are not violent but ‘alagidi’ or stubborn people. Such is the belief among the Yoruba as explained by Chief Labi a key informant. In his opinion:

> What we often call violence or what papers (newspapers) carry as headlines are nothing but usual fights among groups as a result of a ruptured relationship. But because many of our members are perceived as ‘out casts’ ‘omo-ita’ ‘omo-garage’ and ‘no-do-gooders’, all shades of minor fights are blown out of proportion…may be because they do not expected us to do good or be better citizens. (Field, 2009)

We then asked him if the park do not witness violence at all. Chief Labi replied “do not get me wrong. I did not say we do not fight. Rather what annoys me is how news of our minor fights is handled” (Field, 2009). He did not deny the fact that the park agents are often involved in fights, his grouse with the public, the government and the press is that they are biased in their reportage of their crisis because some of the fights are too unimportant to be given the kind of attention they get.
Mr Chuks, an elderly market man in the Ojoo daily market, who has been trading on the park for close to three decades, believes that the park cannot be saved from continued violent clashes:

Last week, we witnessed a clash between the members of the Association of Commercial Motorcycle Operators of Nigeria and Okada section of the National Union of Road Transport Workers over space. Their constant clashes over space snatching and control of units will continue as long as they will have to eat unless government can do something about it. (Field, 2009)

The clashes over space acquisition for control purpose in the view of Ms Tam, is the major cause of violence. As we discovered through our interactions with the people, the situation is more tensed now because the park’s governing slogan has changed from “chop alone, die alone” to “chop alone, go away”.

What this change means is that unlike before when one can siphon or mismanage the union’s funds alone or with only a few executive members and still be pardoned, such will not be tolerated again.

As Alhaji Bash (Branch Treasurer, NURTW, Akinyele Local Government) observes:

Now, it is the era of ‘chop alone, go away’. Once you are caught or suspected to mismanage the union’s fund, the first thing is for you to step-down from your post. (Field, 2009)

We then asked what happens if such person refuses to step-down. Without mincing words, Alhaji Bash replied “of course, we are not expecting many of them to willingly surrender. We know how to handle many of such persons” (Field, 2009). He however did not agree that such persons are removed forcefully, thereby further confirming peoples’ image of the park agents as violent. But as confirmed by Mr. Kay, “even when we report such case to that police, they do not take action because they think we are all bunch of useless and irresponsible people”.

The market men and women sharing the park also fight over such issues as customer snatching, over stepping of/or encroachment of assigned space and over leadership as was the case with the Ojoo Igbo Trade Association (Field, 2009).

Much of this violence has root causes in power seeking, in the quest to amass material wealth so as to rise above the others, to create identity that would be respected and of course for the sake of status change. Obviously, it is not only on the park that people kill to get power. News abounds in the Nigeria media of the activities of the political gladiators who kill their opponents in their quest for power. But what is incontestable is the fact that the fingers of accusation have also been pointed at the park agents’ unions as having one or two questions to answer in such cases.

Violence is not in the domain of just a group of people. All humans are capable of exhibiting violence if and when pushed to the walls. To imagine that the motor park is the first place in Ibadan that many of my informants can think in terms of violence, means there is more to it. What about the University
of Ibadan where students are readily on rampage? What about the political rallies where members of the ruling People’s Democratic Party and the All Nigerian Peoples Party easily engaged one another in open fights. Or shall we concur with Chief Labi that there is more to the eye that could be seen on one surface of this crisis?

b. Orita, Omo-ita and the public marking of the Ojoo motor park space

The Ojoo motor park came into existence sometimes in late 1960s. Like many other parks or ‘garages’, it’s been surviving amidst markings of diverse sort since its establishment. In fact, its very location, Orita is believed to be one of its first markings that created the violence stereotype.

The Ojoo motor park is located at Orita Ojoo, at the intersection of roads coming from, University of Ibadan and Moniya. Orita in Yoruba mythology is the home to two ministers of Olodumare (God) believed to be very powerful and dangerous, Esu and Ogun. “Shrines and sacrifices of all sorts are placed at the Orita because of the ubiquitous and wandering nature of these divinities” (Field, 2009).

Ogun is widely praised as

Olomi ni le fe je we,
O la sho nile fifi mo
Ki mo bora

(He that has a house filled
with water; yet chooses to
bathe with blood; He that
has so much clothes, yet
chooses to cover his body with palm fronds)

(Field, 2010).

He is feared for his propensity to induce violence and cause deaths when provoked. Beside this, Ogun is the divinity in Yoruba cosmological myth to whom belong,

iron and steel and therefore any implement and tools made from them. All who make use of these tools and implement therefore depend upon him and owe him tribute … it is a consequence of this belief in his Lordship over iron and steel that he is acknowledged as the divinity of war and warriors’; mechanics, all engine drivers and in fact all who deal in anything made of iron and steel. Such people are said to be under obligation to worship or propitiate him. (Bolaji Idowu 1996:85)

Esu, on the other, is widely regarded as “onile orita” (he who owns the cross roads). The attitude of the Yorubas to Esu is generally one of dread; for he is believed to hold the power of life and death by virtue of his office as an intermediary between the other divinities and Olodumare. No other divinities accept any sacrifice without requesting that that of Esu be removed first. Hence the saying:

Bi a rubo; ki a mu t’Esu kuro
(When sacrifices are offered, the portion which belongs to Esu should be set aside for him).

Esu according to Fatade Ade, an Ifa scholar, is believed to be capable of causing crisis; of making enemies of very close friends and allies, causing husband and wife to quarrel, and making
antagonists of even father and children (Personal Communication, 2010). In fact, Esu is believed to be the master of mischief making and a trickster. Although he is not the biblical devil, Esu is predominantly associated with things evil. The unruly, the headstrong, the ones prone to evil-doing, the wicked ones, are all considered to be *omo-Esu*.

From the foregoing, it could be deduced that any activity carried out on orita, which is believed to be home to these divinities, cannot be expected to be devoid of rancour, violence and death. Hence, the first stereotype or maker of the motor-park is its proneness to violence, rancour, chaos and deaths. Indeed, the fact that orita usually served as battle ground during inter-communal wars in early centuries makes the violence stereotype of the space stronger. Premised on these, it was discovered that many of the activities associated with orita or crossroads are never considered as good ventures or worthy of pursuit by ‘*omoluwapọ*’, (a very good person). So, most violent, rancorous and unruly persons are then easily identified with *Esu*, and the blood thirsted with *Ogun*. As a result they are then referred to as *omo ita*. The ‘good-for-nothingness’ of the agents of the motor could also be traced to this because, with reference to the biblical *Esu*, they are not expected to be good in anything or activity but mischievousness and violence.

Our observation shows that the attributes of ‘*omo-garage*’ are not that different from ‘*omo-ita*’ for both are markers used to stigmatize and delineate the ‘good children’ from the ‘bad children’. From the space and the activities of the divinities associated with the space originated the marker with which ‘*omo-ita*’ (the wicked and unruly one) is separated from “*omo-ile*” (the good child). Certain standards of conduct are then set for both. The ‘*omo-ita*’ who is a no-do-gooder is expected to be involved in marked jobs like driving, bus conducting, and park rate collecting, among others; while ‘*omo-ile*’ is expected to be the scion of hope in the society. S/He is expected to govern, lead others, and take decisions, among others. This is a social role that could be linked to labelling.

The ‘*omo-ita*’, apart from being excluded is also determined by the society to be a source of strife and crisis. The kind of job he/she is expected to be involved in are low-level jobs. They are never expected to be capable of governing and managing the affairs of others. If one could look closely, it will be discovered that the kind of jobs expected an ‘*omo-ita*’ to be involved in are the typical jobs commonplace on the motor-park space. Hence, it is glaring that the space is not just stereotyped as abode of violence, rancour and deaths, but the human agents are expected to be agents of violence, rancour and deaths.

This marking makes it difficult for the ‘marked space’ and the ‘stigmatized’ to be integrated into the society. They are held at arm’s length and any happenings resembling the attributes associated with them are easily apportioned to such space and agent, even when they are not circumstantially involved.
Conclusion
We have attempted, thus far, to show the indices of stereotype on the Nigerian urban motor park space, with special focus on a typical urban motor park (Ojoo Motorpark). We have highlighted the role of the public, who are the marker or the stereotyper and the marked or the stereotyped, the park and its human agents, in the sustenance of the skewed violent image of the Ojoo motor park. We have been able to do all these with the aid of data collected using direct field observation, focus group discussions and key informant interviews. The constant eruption of violence on our urban motor park space, we noted, has been of concern to both the government and the general public. The study concludes that not much has been done inremedying the situation because the public are imbued with a kind of feeling that nothing could be done to salvage the situation because the human agents are merely living to the expectation of the majority. The essence of the marking, as was observed through participant observation, is to engineer a change of attitude in the observably rancorous human agents on the motor park. However, rather than induce a ‘change in attitude’, we observed that, the human agents of the park, the labelled, have involved themselves in more various deviant activities in their search for daily bread and power to influence change of attitude towards them. This has led to clashes and struggles which have in turn created tensions in the motor park. The tensions have in turn resulted in violence of diverse magnitudes. But as we observed these do not warrant the need for a sustained label, for most of the park’s incidents of violent events are not peculiar to the space.

Finally, we conclude that the noticeable disconnect between the public’s desire for a ‘change in attitude’ that warrants the stereotyping of the motor park has not yielded positive result but a ‘change of attitude’ towards them (the public). Hence, one could say that the public is merely ‘reaping’ the product of their creation and that the continued imposition of the ‘good-for-nothing but violence’ label is destructive because the sustenance of the created violent sub-cultural images could be dangerous for the peace and security of the state. Already, it was observed that disgruntled politicians are patronizing the Ibadan metropolis motor park space for the recruitment of the public marked ‘good-for-nothing but violence’ human agents of the park to unleash mayhem during elections. Hence, it is advised that the public revisit their image of the park and its human agent and consequently treat them better rather than with disdain. The government on its part should try to rehabilitate the park agents because the ’good-for-nothingness’ stereotypes imposed on the Ojoo motor park is destructive and dangerous in the long term, hence, needs reconsideration if the space is to be properly appreciated and managed for urban development and crime control.

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Access to Food Transfers and Social Protection in Bangladesh

Mohammed Faruque Uddin

Abstract: This paper addresses the issue of targeting, participation, and accountability in governance for food transfer programs in Bangladesh. Acknowledging Sen, De Herdt the paper signifies the theoretical claim that 'appearing to the public without shame' might be one of the most important determinants of human agency on behavioral response toward a social policy which brings changes in livelihood challenges of the poor. The targeting and participation issue in social policies is crucial to achieve an efficient outcome. It is a general argument that if the supply of goods is inadequate, and the demand is very high then the service provision does not work properly and vice-versa. This study uncovered the claim that the MDG target-1 in Bangladesh is about to be achieved. By 2010, the headcount poverty has fallen to 31.5 percent compared 56.6 in 1991-1992, and will reach at the target of 29% well before 2015. The study finds the prevalence of remarkable errors in targeting, participation and accountability in governance regarding food aid provisions toward poor. After tracing the issues and prospects of public service provisions in Bangladesh, the study proposes six policy recommendations using experiential connections; inclusionary practices, maintaining citizen charter, institutional change, social capital and flow of information, system of M&E, and reducing factors that constrains human agency to participate in programs.

Keywords: Food transfer, Social protection, Public policy

Introduction

This paper aims to shed light on the public service provisions on food transfers prevailing in Bangladesh to help the poor to restore their livelihood from acute food vulnerability. The country has lifted more than two-thirds of its poor population out of poverty and achieved the MDG-1 well before the deadline. About thirty-one Social Safety Net programs are designed for the most vulnerable segment of population in the country. Throughout these processes of public services, targeting, participation, and system of accountability are repeatedly mentioned as prominent issues by academic and policy researches. In this paper, it has been tried to critically address these issues. The paper also offers a few policy recommendations for further research and areas of actions. It is a common dictum that under-provision of essential public goods makes development slow and might

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cause inequality in a larger extent. In Bangladesh, by 2010, the headcount poverty decreased to 31.5% (GoB, 2012) with an average fall of 1% from 1992 for consecutive 15 years. The Vulnerable Group Development (VGD) program is divided into two provisions, Income Generation for Vulnerable Group Development (IGVD) and Food Security and Vulnerable Group Development (FSVGD). Development thinkers and policy practitioners in Bangladesh claim that these programs might enhance the possibility to transform the potential excluded segment of the population toward productive human resources.

It is argued that the provision of food transfers within major social safety net programs taken up by the government(s) focusing on food vulnerable segment(s) of the country might contribute to the challenging fight against poverty. But the success of an intervention necessarily depends on proper targeting, recipient’s appearing to the public without shame, and on the accountability in governance. Taking the theoretical underpinning from capability approach and actor oriented development theories, the present paper seeks to analyze critically where does the food aid come in and whether these aids are effective to restore livelihoods of the poor.

**Research Question, Objectives and Methodology**

This paper aims to address the question, where does the food aid come in and whether these aids are effective to meet the vulnerability of the poor in Bangladesh? To that end, it focuses on policy and institutional gaps that may paradoxically affect the effectiveness and efficiency of food transfer provisions. The study mainly covers the period from 1992-2010 when several social safety net programs were implemented to tackle poverty.

Specifically, based on several theoretical arguments, the paper examines relevant strategies and policies on food security provision in Bangladesh to identify the gaps in their contents and implementation. To set a background for discussion, the paper summarizes the perspectives on targeting, appearing to the public without shame, and accountability in governance along with empirical findings from current literature on the linkage among these three processes. Last, but not the least, the paper tries to seek implications and policy lessons from the analytical findings, with the hope that they are useful for Bangladesh and for other developing countries.

This paper takes advantage of an intensive single-case study to gain an insight into policy factors in the causal relationship between public service and poverty reduction. By a thorough process tracing, it also explores issues that have been underreported by existing studies such as the “hidden transcripts” of the poor and the allies in governance. The analysis is based on related strategy and policy documents, secondary data from studies on social safety nets and poverty reduction in Bangladesh and general literatures on this topic. Both quantitative and qualitative data from secondary sources are used to highlight a few policy recommendations.
Concepts and Definitions

**Food Transfers:** Food transfer is a public process to ensure supply of food for the poor in Bangladesh under social safety nets. After its inauguration in 1975, the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) emphasized to identify and analyze alternative national and international strategies and policies for meeting food needs of the developing countries on a sustainable basis with particular emphasis on the poorer section of the population (Ahmed et al., 2009). In Bangladesh, there are differences across programs in the types of food the households receive. For example, only rice is given through FFA and makes up about 60 percent of the food given through IGVGD. In contrast, the food provided by FSVGD is almost entirely micronutrient-fortified atta (wheat) covered by the food transfers provision (Ahmed et al., 2009).

**Social Protection:** As a complement to its policies to promote growth, investment in human and physical capital, and most importantly for institutional and governance reforms, the Government aims to develop effective social protection policies and program to address poverty/vulnerability of its population. These policies and programs help the poor to cope with shocks and move toward livelihood restoration. These programs include safety nets, social insurance (e.g., pensions, unemployment) and labor market policies/programs (WB, 2006). Relying on different formal and informal institutions, the government of Bangladesh also implements few food transfer provisions for the social protection of the poor (Ahmed et al., 2009).

**Perspectives on Public Service**

Institutionalism opines for the critical and important roles of the state, civil society and market toward public good provisioning in development intervention. Sen (2000) is a little critical on those ‘who have tended to take the market mechanisms as to be the best solution of each and every economic problem might inquire what the limits of that mechanism may be’ (Sen, 2000:127-128). The dimension of market mechanism over emphasizes the principle that everything, every commodity on which welfare depends is saleable and buyable. Taking the instances from environmental preservations, epidemiology and public health, Sen argues that everything does not hold those characteristics, for instance malaria free environment (Sen, 2000:128).

In response to Sen’s ‘instrumental argument’ of ‘appearing to the public without shame’, De Herdt (2005) complements that the success or failure of poverty programs crucially depends on the behavioral response they generate from both the ‘poor’ and the ‘non-poor’. De Herdt challenges this instrumental argument and proposes a more complex use of capability-oriented reasoning emphasizing the *plurality of concerns*, which is in fact also part and parcel of Sen’s approach. He explains that the effectiveness of targeting sometimes depends, wholly or partly, on decisions by the potential and would-be clients of targeted programs (De Herdt 2005:29).
Participation in public good provisions tends toward the optimistic Giddenesque approach (Cleaver, 2007) to agency, emphasizing the instrument, empowering and transformatory effects of individual participation in collective action. Agency can be seen as the capability or the power to be the originators of acts purposively/intentionally, a commonly feature in definitions. Thus, the coexistence of factors of enablement and constraint is a tension addressed by several theorists exploring the ways in which individual agents are formed and explaining the intermittence and unpredictability of change effected through agency (Henriques, et al., 1984 and Mac Nay, 2000 in Cleaver, 2007).

From the above theoretical arguments it might be asserted that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors create obstacles toward the enablement of human agency in a collective action. The important notion of discursive and recursive actions (Giddens, 1984) from individual and structural point of view is needed to ameliorate the efficiency of a development program, especially in the case of social insurance program like food transfer provision under social safety nets. The World Bank (WDR, 2004) proposes a general accountability framework which explains the process, prospects and issues of public service provisions. The following figures explain the features of accountability relationships along with short and long route accountability of public service provisions.

A tentative analysis of food service provisions might be explained using this general (sometimes ideal) accountability framework for poor. According to the Figure1 below the poor delegate their demand for food (appear to the public) to the service provider (Figure 2). As state is the service provider (as the source of direct entitlement), so the feature of financing from clients is not obligatory here. The performance of service provider (i.e. providing quantity, quality and types of food) toward the poor might determine whether they will inform others to participate or not in the service provision. If satisfactory services are provided then the process of enforceability emerges and the social protection of these poor takes a sustainable form of existence, otherwise a kind of sanction might be applied. According to the Figure-2, clients or citizens might follow or can be obliged by two routes of

Figure1: Five Features of Accountability Relationship
Figure 2: Accountability Framework
(Source: Adapted from WDR, 2004)
accountability. The short route accountability relationships exist directly between clients and local
service providers whereas the long route accountability follows different channels firstly straight to the
state (politicians and policy makers) and then to the local service providers. In the next section a brief
analysis of issues and prospects of public service provision has been explained.

**Issues in public services**

Targeting: The issue of targeting in a social policy complicates it and results in a poor outcome.
Based on information distortions, type-I and type-II errors occur in targeting (Sen, 1995). Considering
the following diagram, we can explain this issue,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ex-ante</th>
<th>TYPE II</th>
<th>TYPE I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hidden information</td>
<td>People under-reporting income</td>
<td>Undetectable/ hiding people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ex-post</td>
<td>Hidden behaviour</td>
<td>People that don’t remarry again</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Figure 3: Example of Targeting Problem

According to Sen (1995), if anti-poverty policy is to alleviate poverty more efficiently then it is
reasonable to make sure that the subsidies reach the poor and only the poor. So viewing poor as
agent rather than patient might contribute to a social program to become more efficient. Also it is
arguable that social and political feasibility of public services are complex in developing countries,
sometime better connected individuals gain from the policy where the *really needy* remain apart.

Governance: The issue of governance in public service provision in developing countries is one of the
dominant obstacles, which hamper development interventions. In the case of Niger, de Sardan (2011)
explains the issue of governance with a speculative analysis with practical norms. A persistent form of
informal dealings prevails and different modes of governance open avenues to encourage informal
provision for public services. Studying Malawi, Niger, Rwanda, and Uganda, Booth (2011) finds that
incoherence, chaos and disengagement are serious issues in these countries. After experiencing
coherent functioning among line ministries in Rwanda, Booth conceptualizes that local governance
and public good provisions should be demonstrated through a coherent vision, corporate performance
discipline, and it must be locally anchored. A type of political mediation sometime entrench
complications in governance (Berenschot, 2011). Again, based on clientele sometime *informal formalization*
generates encroachment for both the powerless and the powerful (Hackenbroch and Hossain, 2012).

**Analytical Framework**

Access to food transfers and the protection of the poor is a simultaneous process. If the adequate
supply of food is available from the providers but if insufficient demand occurs from recipients, it
creates complication within the institutional arrangements to tackle poverty within the society. Securing proper supply of food is the responsibility of the state and entitlements set out by the rules of the game within the state is a continuum of public service provision. Therefore, intentional and unintentional targeting error causes issues in public service provisions, which require further scrutiny. For recipients, there might be some structural factors which constrains their agency to participate in the program (Johnson, 2012) and conversely there might be some more structural elements which enable those agency to create a room for maneuver (Cleaver, 2005). To answer the research question of the paper considering the above theoretical arguments, a framework (Figure 4) has been adopted to analyze the social protection in Bangladesh in relation to vulnerability and access to food transfers.

The figure (Figure 4) explains that social protection systems is characterized and determined by entitlements within the rules of the game with limited public instruments focused on risk coping. If the level of risk (food vulnerability) decreases, a promotional measure might take place from basic to diversified instruments in order to move the poor out from the chronic vulnerability situation to one step further in the livelihood trajectory. A crude implication can be asserted that based on their set of endowments, individuals take their decisions to participate into a social program. Hence, their agency freedom might be either enabled or constrained by structural elements. For the second, they will not be able to engage their agencies in the program and will remain vulnerable. In every stage, reverse arrow indicates adversities. Based on this analytical framework, a critical analysis will be put forward to explain where do the food aid come in and how effective it is?

![Figure 4: Moving out of Food Vulnerability](Source: Author’s compilation)
Access to food transfers and social protection in Bangladesh

Profile of extreme poverty and hunger in Bangladesh

After the experience of the famine in 1974 (Hossain, 1999), from 1975 onwards, the GoB and WFP jointly installed some social safety nets for the poorer segment of the population. In order to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, for Bangladesh, Millennium Development Goals set out the target to reduce the incidence of extreme poverty by 2.12% until 2015. Bangladesh claims that it has achieved the target and has reduced incidence of poverty by 2.46%. In 1991-1992, the headcount poverty was 56.6% in Bangladesh and in 2010 the number reduced to 31.5% (GoB, 2012), which echoes the above mentioned reduction rates. Adapting from MDG progress report (GoB, 2012), the contemporary trend on hunger and extreme poverty can be explained by the Figure 5. We find that a consistent reduction in headcount poverty take place since 1990 to 2010.

Food Transfer Provisions in Practice

In order to enhance food security and livelihood of the poor in Bangladesh, there are four major food aid programs for the poor (Ahmed, et al., 2009);

(1) Income Generating VGD (IGVGD, Income generation for vulnerable group development),
(2) Food Security VGD (FSVGD, Food security for vulnerable group development),
(3) Food for Asset Creation (FFA), and the
(4) Rural Maintenance Program (RMP).

Based on four channels, individuals or households in poverty can access these food transfers in Bangladesh: sympathy-after a sudden shock, social network - within the patron-client relationships, NGO influence-for including into their (NGO’s) program, and using personal agency – by constantly seeking ways of improving their livelihood and reducing their vulnerability (Ibid:658-659).

Figure 5: Long-term Poverty Trend (Headcount Rates)
(Source: adapted from MDG progress Report, GoB, 2011)
Analysis

Where does the food aid come in?

The basic food aid provision undertaken by the Government of Bangladesh is served under relief programs focusing on the poor women. In 2006, vulnerable group feeding (VGF) and gratuitous relief (GR) programs covered 830,840 beneficiaries with 3.72 million family members (Ahmed et al., 2009). The IGVGD program exclusively targets poor women receiving two years monthly food ration. FSVG D is a built-in mechanism to provide credit to its participants and provides a combination of food and cash. The FFA distributes a combination of food and cash as wage payments to workers in labor-intensive public works programs. Although both men and women participate in FFA, the program requires that at least 70 percent of the participants be women. In contrast to FFA, RMP targets only women, who receive cash wages for maintaining rural roads (Ahmed et al., 2009).

The VGD program in Bangladesh is designated as the world's largest development intervention of its kind that exclusively targets women. The program began in 1975 as a relief program for families affected by natural calamities. The current VGD program seeks to integrate food security and nutrition with development and income generation. It is a collaborative food security intervention jointly managed and implemented by Government of Bangladesh (GoB) and World Food Program (WFP). The VGD program is implemented through two components: IGVGD and FSVG D. Of the 750,100 women served by VGD, 85.4 percent and their family members received IGVGD support and 14.6 percent and their dependents received support under the FSVG D component in 2005–06. Of the total 460 upazilas (subdistricts) of Bangladesh in 61 districts, FSVG D operated in 57 upazilas in 7 districts in northern Bangladesh and IGVGD operated in 364 upazilas in 54 districts (Ahmed et al., 2009:21).

While analyzing the key challenges and policy options for Bangladesh, World Bank (2006) finds that “.the number of people covered under the programs of safety nets represents only a fraction of those in need” (p-12). The World Bank also finds that, in Bangladesh, while programs that base their targets on household/geographical/community characteristics, it leads to exclusion errors (p-21). The survey result of the World Bank indicates that 27 percent of VGD beneficiaries are not poor and those who are poor, they are engaged in other programs at the same time. Another study conducted by

![Figure 6: PESP Targeting Performance](Adapted from World Bank, 2006)
Ahmed (2004b in WB 2006), concluded that “11% of participants of the PESP meet none of the eligibility criteria for program participation while almost none of the beneficiaries meet at least three criteria” (p 21). So, it is a clear prevalence of type I and type II error in targeting, and hence the participation in programs does not reveal that the food aid is being served to those who really need it. One more study on PESP divulges the targeting error in Bangladesh and finds that almost 47 percent of beneficiaries (figure-6) of the PESP are non-poor and incorrectly included in the program (Ahmed, 2004a in WB, 2006:21).

A similar type of problem exists with geographical targeting and another complication arises when elites capture the program. The report of the Asian Human Right Commission (AHRC, 2011) reveals these performance bottlenecks of food aid program. The Commission reported to the Government of Bangladesh about one of their findings on VGF program as follows. ‘In the district of Gaibandha, the program VGF failed to reach at the actual poor. In Mohonpur union under Palasbari upazila, out of 13 villages 1000 families were enlisted into the program from only seven villages and six villages were excluded from it. Local level political leaders picked up 600 VGF cards of families who are enlisted beneficiaries but never received any food subsidy. Some of them received only 3 Kilograms of rice instead of 15 Kilograms. After taking VGF cards, the public representatives and the VGF committee members who belong to the political party distribute the cards among themselves to enlist beneficiaries by their own choice (AHRC, 2011).’

This report uncovers the prevalence of hidden transcripts (Scott, 1990) of the ruling allies in a manner of neo-patrimonialism (Cammack, 2007) under cronyism. It also implies that those villages which are not supposed to be excluded from the program, they might have been excluded due to political rivalries. As there are no further evidences available in this report. It can be assumed that some drop outs or who wants to repeat or renew their cards might have been excluded from the program. The report necessarily proves the occurrence of the issue of type I and type II errors within the program. It could be said that, those poor who are lucky (beyond 234, who did not receive any food although they had cards) might have gained their entitlement and can protect their livelihood. The other 234 enlisted beneficiaries might be trapped and could fall into the vulnerabilities.

So it is evident that in Bangladesh, targeting based on sets of endowments of individuals and households are erroneous. The recipients of food aid are not meticulously checked and verified especially for those who really need it. And, even the really needy individuals or households might have been constrained to valorize their agencies to participate in the program due to obscure accountability practices. From the experience of Congo (De Herdt, 2005), it is found that some misuses in food relief programs are a general and ever practicing norm. Perhaps, gaining of entitlements from the rules of the games is rather difficult for the poor who really need it. After exploring the issue of food entitlements in Bangladesh, Sobhan (1991:79) infers that access to food is not only a function of food supply, but is influenced by a variety of factors that affect the capacity of
particular households and social groups to establish entitlements over food. It can be noted that, the food aid in Bangladesh does not properly reach the poor who are actually entitled to access it. In the next section, we find the factors which help people to move out of poverty/vulnerability while analyzing the effectiveness of food aid programs.

Are those food aid programs effective in Bangladesh?

Macroeconomic analysis of the relationship between expenditure on food aid and poverty reduction reveals a clear positive impact on poverty reduction (Pradhan, 2011). The following scatter diagram (Figure 7) shows an inverse relation between expenditure on social safety nets and poverty reduction based on upper and lower poverty lines. The result also mentioned that there is an inverse regression coefficient between these two variables. From this result it can be asserted that food aid provision for the poor in Bangladesh has substantial effect on poverty reduction.

Figure 7: Scatter Diagram on the Relationship between Expenditure on SSNs and Poverty Reduction in Bangladesh
(Adapted from Pradhan, 2011)

While analyzing the dynamics of poverty in rural Bangladesh, Baulch (2009) identified (1) factors which enable individuals and households to escape poverty, (2) factors which prevent individuals and households from escaping chronic poverty, and (3) factors that lead individuals and households to fall into chronic poverty. For the first category, Baulch finds that:

Households that were able to escape poverty were not unaffected by shocks but had the resilience to cope with them due to a combination of land and non-land assets, multiple income sources, and links to important people in the local community. Specific interventions were cited rarely as the reason for households being able to escape poverty. Households that were able to escape chronic poverty were, however, often at stages in their life cycle when they were less likely to experience the negative events described below. Sons growing-up and entering the work force, even if only into unskilled, low-wage jobs, had an important impact on households’ poverty status (Baulch, 2009:2).
This finding of Baulch reiterates the issues explained in the previous section. As the dynamics of poverty is very complex, so a simple linear relation between food aid and social protection might not adequately reflect the entire socio-economic and political processes which affect the relationships. Factors associated with second category includes the proportion of elderly people in the household, low level of education and lower ownership of land and non-land assets which prevent individuals and households from escaping chronic poverty. Other important factors Baulch identified which trigger individuals and households to fall into chronic poverty includes, dowry and wedding, illness expenses, livestock deaths, floods etc. which are temporary in nature. Baulch further explains that monetary intervention in three sites i.e. microfinance, agricultural technology and educational transfers affect poverty reduction which are summarized in the following table:

### Table1: Changes in Poverty Status over Time

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<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poverty in baseline survey</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty in 2006/2007</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty transitions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chronic poor</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Falling into poverty</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moving out of poverty</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never poor</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from, Baulch: 2009

The table shows that, approximately half of the people moved out of poverty, around a fifth remained chronically poor. It is found that that between a quarter and a third were never poor, and a small percentage of the people fell into poverty. Bob Baulch (2009) also mentioned from the result of qualitative survey that, poverty transition among the poor is less which has been revealed in this quantitative result. The important aspect we find from Baulch’s analysis and result is that food transfers or food aid provision for poor in Bangladesh might have some impact on their consumption level but is not the sole factor which enables them to move out of poverty or vulnerability.

**Conclusion**

It seems that a parallel coexistence of service provision and its performance bottlenecks are equally inclusive in the realm of food transfers in Bangladesh. From the review, it is evident that the possibility of both type I and type II errors in targeting and participation are prevalent in food related programs. Food services are not reaching the actually needy individuals and households. Factors contributing to
both agency constraints and agency enablement are simultaneously functional within the institutional arrangements. The claim of the Government of Bangladesh of the eradication of extreme poverty is rather consistent with experiential connection of the author but the causes of this eradication do not necessarily employ food transfers. Additional observations such as neo-patrimonial practices and the norms of corruption are the burning issues in governance for Bangladesh. Further researches are strongly recommended to diagnose these issues.

**Implication**

There is a never ending debate in development studies especially in policy research about the qualitative and quantitative approaches to scale up poverty reduction. Concerning food vulnerability in Bangladesh, first of all, it needs to consider the huge number of the people who live under the worldwide standard poverty line of $1.25 or $2 dollar per day. Social protection of poor for the government in Bangladesh is not only the sole responsibility but also a moral duty. A necessary provision of good quality service is required to enhance the agency freedom of individuals who are suffering from severe food vulnerability. In order to scale up poverty reduction regarding food vulnerability, it is important for macro policies to get deep insight into factors that, identified by qualitative inquiries, constraint the agency freedom of participants in food transfer programs.

Matin and Hulme (2003) argue that programs and policies to assist poor people and to overcome their deprivation are represented either implicitly or explicitly by the ideas about “who” is poor and “why” they are poor which necessitates knowledge base about the causes of poverty and how these can be tackled. In this connection, to understand the types of poor and their characteristics is very important for poverty and vulnerability analysis. Hulme and Shepherd (2005:404-405) explain that chronic poverty occurs when individuals experience significant capability deprivation for a certain period of time (Figure 8). Whatever measures are being taken to tackle the vulnerability, it might be asserted that chronic poor remain poor for much of their life course (Ibid: 405). This chronic poor are characteristically different from transient poor and non-poor.

![Figure 8: Types of Poor](image-url)  
(Adapted from Hulme and Shepherd, 2005)

However, Matin and Hulme (2003) assume that with the provision of food transfers for the poor, individuals or household may remain close to the poverty line (Figure 9) and further promotional measure might be a significant development to uphold the livelihood of the poor. But, findings from
Baulch (2009) do not support this claim rather the poor are circled around the poverty line. So it is important to uncover the knowledge base out of the socio-political dynamics of the society, how these poor can lift up their livelihood while constrained by numerous factors.

After a critical analysis of empirical evidences, the author believes that Bangladesh could do better and achieved better food security outcomes with a sound quality of services. It is worth mentioning that the case of Gaibhanda referred by the Asian Human Right Commission is a paramount reality in public service provision in Bangladesh. The basis of this belief lies within the prevailing political culture in Bangladesh. It can be assumed that allies/activists of political parties wait to find themselves engaged with local governance to take a share of the cake while services are provided.

There is no confusion regarding the substantial contribution of food transfer programs in Bangladesh which protects people from acute food vulnerability. Both macro and micro level studies support this claim. While targeting, participation and accountability in governance are the dominant factors for service delivery, the author believes that the critical role of social capital and civil society might contribute to enhance agency freedom of participants like Blair (2005:921) who also believes that certain forms of civil society advocacy constitute such an alternative that can begin to secure the forms of representation that will lead to pro-poor policy outcome. It is an inherent belief that the significant role of social capital might trigger the voices of the poor, which could be resulted into an escaping strategy for them to combat acute capability deprivations.

**Policy Recommendations**

The first and foremost recommendation is to study the issue of food security and moving out of food vulnerability in relation to agency constraint and agency enablement within the complex socio-political arrangements of Bangladesh. The author puts a further voice of qualitative approach for identifying these issues. In the individual, household or community level the regulative role of social institution is a big challenge for policy interventions and change in Bangladesh. The regional and geographical differences complicate the landscape of service ‘delivery and receiving’. In order to establish a thorough process for efficient intervention in social protection for the poor in Bangladesh, the author recommends the following arenas and actions which are more viable and efficient –
1) **Full development of inclusionary practices:** In local political units, the systematic inclusion of potential and effective social organizations might be installed in order to secure the improved services for the poor. In Bangladesh, as corruption is one of the major challenges in governance, combined inclusionary practices by engaging members from the state, market and civil society can enhance the possibility of efficiency for any program toward the poor. In the case of accessing food transfers in Bangladesh, sometime the people are deprived by the lack of information albeit a huge change is observed in the use of mobile phones in rural areas. This inclusionary practice might reduce the transaction cost for the government and can play a vital role for service provision toward an efficient end. On top of that, the author assumes that the core issues of targeting, participation, and accountability in governance can attain a clearer version for future practices.

2) **To maintain the ‘Citizen Charter’:** A very positive aspect of governance provision in Bangladesh is to initiate the citizen charter act of 2007 (GoB, 2010). According to this act, every governance unit is supposed the display the service provision within the stipulated timeframe. As the poor are rather ignorant about their entitlement and sometime suffer from lack of imagined autonomy, the above-mentioned inclusionary practices might lift up the quality of services toward them.

3) **Change in institution rather than organization:** Considering the constraints identified by Wood (2000), the governance in Bangladesh should put much effort to institutional change rather than decentralizing the organization keeping to the same rules of the game. Here, the author finds an experiential consistency with Wood that the present structures with their associated norms in Bangladesh fail to offer a substantial quality service for the poor. In this realm, strongly vibrant and vigilant civil societies might open avenues for effective institutional change by developing voice possibilities in order to secure the accountability in governance.

4) **Social capital and flow of information:** A dynamic form of social capital at local level might enhance the agency of the poor to exercise it for further change in their livelihoods. In-depth qualitative studies might even uncover the limitation of social capital of the poor. Some social programs consisting of flow of information for the development of consciousness at local level can be implemented. An easy and accessible flow of information might make people more dynamic toward their actions which in turn can also accelerate the capacity of local level social capital for the poor.

5) **A system of M&E:** A reliable and efficient system of monitoring and evaluation at upazila level could be one of the effective measures for securing quality service provision for the poor, especially, while taking protection measure for tackling food vulnerability. A dynamic
system of M&E can also reduce the errors in targeting, can make sure the participation of really needy and finally can unveil the issues of accountability in governance. An observed difficulty on timeliness of disbursement of food and cash transfers can also be reduced by the installation of M&E. Finally,

6) **Look at the factors which constrain the human agency of the poor**: The regulative role of the social institutions, weak physical states, lack of access to natural resources might constrain the human agency of the poor to participate in public policies. In this regard, a scientific scrutiny of obstacles, which constrain the poor to valorize their human agency.

Reference


Effectiveness of Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA): Bangladesh Perspective

Shahadat Hossain Shakil¹ and Tazrina Habib Ananya²

Abstract: EIA as an environmental management tool has been successful in terms of global awareness raising over the last four decades. Due to its rationalist approach it has been criticised about the inherent aim of influencing development decision and protecting the environment. Numerous researches have been performed to measure the ‘effectiveness of EIA’ which is still evolving as a domain. Four major criteria’s have been established till date. Effectiveness of Bangladesh EIA system has been explored with the help of those criteria. Procedural ineffectiveness seeks government measure in a couple areas mainly through institutional arrangement and capacity building. Substantive ineffectiveness reflects the global trend of failure to influence the development decision truly. Transactive effectiveness will be far reaching for a country like Bangladesh, dependent on foreign aid largely. Normative effectiveness is still little known, but mass awareness about the environment through the debate regarding an ES report is a recent experience.

Keywords: Environmental Impact Assessment; EIA; Effectiveness; Bangladesh

Introduction

Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is a tool to assess the impact of any proposed development prior to its commencement. It had introduction within the formal legislation during the course of National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) in the USA in 1969 and has travelled more than a 40 year journey causing more mature and dynamic form of EIA. In all, 191 of the 193 member nations of the United Nations either have national legislation or have signed some form of international legal instrument that refers to the use of EIA. So it seems reasonable to say that EIA is a universally recognized instrument for environmental management which is firmly embedded in domestic and international environmental laws (Morgan, 2012).

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However, despite the international recognition and adaptation of EIA and its legal and procedural integration into many project planning and decision making systems, questions have increasingly been raised whether EIA is achieving its purposes. Its influence over the final decision appears to have been less than its originators anticipated (Sadler, 1996; Wood, 2003). Numerous studies have been undertaken to assess to what extent EIA is achieving its purpose. Majority of it focused on procedural requirement. However, increasing attention is being placed upon evaluating EIA according to more substantive criteria to judge whether EIA is resulting in the kind of outcomes that are typically sought. This has generally been referred in terms of EIA ‘effectiveness’ (Cashmore et al., 2004).

This essay aims to explore the conceptual background of EIA effectiveness from a theoretical perspective. In doing so relevant literature and studies (Sadler, 1996; Cashmore et al., 2004; 2010; Jay et al., 2007; EU, 2009; IEMA, 2011; Morgan, 2012; Chanchitpricha and Bond, 2013) will be explored and analysed. Characterization, measuring criteria’s and guidelines for improvements will be depicted. After portraying the criteria effectively, EIA effectiveness of Bangladesh will be judged.

Bangladesh is a country of transitional economy, having on an average 6% economic growth in the last decade (World Bank, 2013). Since early nineties there has been an increasing trend of Foreign Direct Investment (BOI, GoB 2012), which comes with the investment in industrial and infrastructure sector. Consequently causing environmental impact which brought EIA to measure the degree of intrusion first by the donors in the early eighties (Kabir, 2012). Bangladesh government formally introduced EIA within the legislative framework in 1995 (MoEF, GoB, 1995). Number of studies (Momtaz, 2002; Ahammed and Harvey, 2004; Kabir et al., 2010; Kabir, 2012; Kabir and Momtaz, 2012; 2013; Momtaz and Kabir, 2013) has been conducted to assess the effectiveness of EIA in Bangladesh. But reflecting the broader trend majority focused on procedural effectiveness, which is logical for a rising legislative context like Bangladesh in terms of formal EIA practice. This essay will judge the EIA effectiveness Bangladesh in the light of applicable effectiveness criteria and available literature, guidelines and legal documents.

The next section of the essay will describe the EIA effectiveness in brief. The following section will assess the Bangladesh perspective and suggest improvement measures. At the end conclusions will be reached based on the findings.

**EIA Effectiveness**

**Characterization**

‘The evaluation of EIA effectiveness is intended to determine how much difference EIA is making. Ideally, this question should be addressed with reference to the purposes underlying EIA, such as “restoring and maintaining environmental quality”’ (NEPA, Section 101 (a) cited in Jay et al. 2007, p.290). On the other hand Cashmore et al. (2010) emphasised that the ‘complex dynamic’ of ‘politics and power’ should be a key focus when building a theory for measuring effectiveness. In contrast,
Retief (2010) identifies three broad themes based on a review of the international literature on environmental assessment:

- Theoretical Grounding – do we have a clear sense of the purpose of EA, and what it comprises?
- Quality – what is good practice, how do we judge quality, and what guidance do we provide?
- Effectiveness – what are we achieving through this process?

**Criteria**

“In the environmental assessment field, Sadler (1996) defined effectiveness as ‘how well something works or whether it works as intended and meets the purposes for which it is designed’ (p.37). Sadler (1996) tended to pay attention to the process and outcomes to ascertain whether the results of the process met the expected purposes, based on three categories of the effectiveness of environmental assessment: procedural, substantive and transactive. He suggested that procedural effectiveness means that the assessment complies with acceptable standards and principles, substantive effectiveness shows the achievement of expected objectives and transactive effectiveness is achieved where the outcomes are obtained with least cost in the minimum time frame. Baker and McLelland (2003) added normative effectiveness to the suite of categories developed by (Sadler, 1996). Bond and Morrison-Saunders (2013, p.45) argued that normative effectiveness reflected the extent to which normative goals, defined as a ‘combination of social and individual norms’, were achieved” (cited in and adopted from Chanchitpricha and Bond 2013, p.66).

Therefore, based on the review, effectiveness can be divided into 4 categories; procedural, substantive, transactive, and normative (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Effectiveness</td>
<td>“Does the EA (environmental assessment) process conform to established provisions and principles?” (Sadler, 1996, p.39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substantive Effectiveness</td>
<td>“Does the EA process achieve the objectives set, e.g. support well informed decision-making and result in environmental protection?” (Sadler, 1996, p.39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactive Effectiveness</td>
<td>“Does the EA process deliver these outcome(s) at least cost in the minimum time possible, i.e. is it effective and efficient?” (Sadler, 1996, p.39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative Effectiveness</td>
<td>“Examination of the purpose involves finding out what normative goals are realised” (Baker and McLelland, 2003, p.586)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted and Reproduced in ‘Modified Form’ from Chanchitpricha and Bond (2013, p.67)

**Deficiencies**

Ortolano and Shepherd (1995, p.3) stated that EIAs have had ‘far less influence than their original supporters had hoped they would’ in influencing project and plan decision-making and identify a number of broad areas of concern: the different views about the nature and purpose of EIA and especially its relationship to decision making processes; institutional implementation issues; problems
associated with practice, including limited or no public participation; and the limited substantive effect of EIA as a process (cited in Morgan, 2012, p.7).

On the other hand, one of the major problems of EIA effectiveness assessment is to visualise the different scenarios with and without EIA. It is because of the difficulty to assess which environmental parameters will improve with the help of EIA. It becomes more complex while obscure terms like ‘sustainable development’ becoming the inherent goal of EIA, which is still ill-defined (Baker et al., 1997; Mebratu, 1998 cited in Jay et al., 2007).

Additionally, Wood and Jones (1997) examined the effectiveness of EIA in UK planning system by examining 40 planning applications and found that EIA influenced the decision in only one case. Summarizing that, EIA acted as confidence providing factor for the respective planning officer during his/her recommendation about the proposal. EIA lost its pre-assumed sole determinative role during the final decision stage while competing with other criteria’s. They also found EIA’s contribution for slight modification of the project design while overall types and scales of development were unaffected.

Similar conclusions were reached by Wood (2003) in a wider comparative review of seven EIA systems around the world. Wood concluded that EIA does exert some influences on development decisions, but it is common for the findings of EIA to be marginalised in favour of other considerations, such as non-environmental objectives and political factors.

In addition, Europen Union Commison in a recent study (EU, 2009) identified a number of areas where improvements in EIA practice are needed, including screening, scoping, consideration of alternatives, monitoring, public participation and EIA quality control. Furthermore, problems in four key areas of practice: screening, scoping and engagement, assessment and outcomes and outputs have been identified by IEMA (2011) while judging EIA process of UK.

**Way Forward**

Sadler (1996) refers to the influence that EIA process has upon decision making as the ‘litmus test’ of EIA effectiveness. In other words, we must turn to EIA’s proximate, rather than substantive, aim to find measurable criteria of effectiveness. Additionally, clearer limits could be set for proposed developments according to the resilience or regenerative ability of the environments affected (Sadler, 1996).

Additionally, ‘capacity building’ has been seen for some years as an important strategy for the dissemination and improved practice of EIA. Training activities for practitioners, guidance on good EIA practice, and continuing research have been counted upon as means of establishing EIA and extending its influence (Jay et al., 2007).
Moreover, in the theory and principles of EIA the weakest connection between EIA goal and the EIA process has been made in relation to its post-decision stages which stimulate the suggestion to include better measure for the ‘follow-up’ of action after approval. One of the specific ways by which to address that is to establish stronger links between the EIA for a given project and its ongoing environmental management (i.e. mitigation, monitoring) (Morrison-Saunders and Arts, 2004; Slinn et al., 2007 cited in Jay et al. 2007).

![EIA Process of Bangladesh](source: Ahammed and Harvey (2004, p.6))
Furthermore, another crucial limitation of EIA is, its ability to influence the decision in a true sense has remained unquestioned. However, the greater attention will be given to place EIA within the broader decision making processes, the more possibility of EIA being more closely adapted to those processes (Culhane et al. 1987; Bartlett and Kurian, 1999; Richardson, 2005 cited in Jay et al., 2007).

Figure 2: Steps for Environmental Clearance Certificate in Bangladesh
Source: Adopted from DoE, MoEF, GoB (1997, p.7)
Bangladesh Perspective
Legislative Context and EIA Process

EIA process was formally included in legislation of Bangladesh through incorporation in the National Environmental Policy, 1992 (1992 GoB, MoEF), which has been finally endorsed through Environmental Conservation Act (ECA), 1995 (MoEF, GoB 1995) and Environmental Conservation Rules (ECR), 1997 (MoEF, GoB 1997). This act and rule sets the detail context, procedures, standards and conflict resolution mechanism for EIA. Department of Environment (DoE) under the Ministry of Environment and Forestry (MoEF) is the responsible authority for EIA process and providing environmental clearance. DoE developed a guideline for EIA process (DoE, MoEF, GoB 1997) which acts as the basis for Environmental Statement Preparation (ES) in Bangladesh in all aspects. Proponents are responsible for preparing the ES. DoE is responsible for review and providing clearance. To optimize the resource use EIA process has been fragmented in three tiers (ibid. p.3): Screening, Initial Environmental Examination (IEE) and Detailed EIA (Figure 1). Projects are categorized into four classes (Green, Amber-A, Amber-B and Red) according to their potential threat and impact (Figure 2). For donor funded projects ES is prepared according to their prescribed guidelines (Momtaz, 2002).

Effectiveness of EIA Practice

Procedural:
Momtaz (2002) pioneered the EIA effectiveness research of Bangladesh. He observed lack of skilled professional in DoE for judging ES and implementing mitigation measures. Presence of dual standards (i.e. donor and DoE) and lack of unified approach for ES preparation among the consultants were also identified. Moreover, there is no mechanism in place to ensure monitoring of project impacts to identify and rectify impacts that were not picked up by the EIA. Ahammed and Harvey (2004) also pointed out this absence of EIA compliance and monitoring within the legislation. According to Environmental conservation Rules, 1997 (MoEF, GoB 1997) project proponents are only responsible to submit the monitoring and environmental management plan. But there is no provision or legal binding either on DoE or the proponents to follow-up the approved plan or implementation of mitigation measures (Kabir, 2012; Momtaz and Kabir, 2013).

Additionally Ahammed and Harvey (2004) pointed that scoping at the initial stage is not clear to the individuals and groups involved in the process of EIA and there is a need for clear guidelines spelling out the procedures and steps of EIA legislation(ECA, 1995 and ECR, 1997) which is also supported by Kabir (2012) and Momtaz and Kabir (2013).

On the other hand, Kabir et al. (2010) and Kabir and Momtaz (2012; 2013) through a couple of studies explored the quality of ES of Bangladesh (i.e. 35-40% still unsatisfactory) deteriorating the
effectiveness of EIA. They stated the reasons behind that - inadequate study time, lack of baseline data, weak EIA teams, lack of EIA experts, inadequate funds and weak Terms of Reference by DoE.

**Substantive:**
Momtaz (2002) observed proponents hire consultants to conduct EIA. Their intention is to get an EIA done that would highlight the benefits and justify the proposal in order to obtain environmental clearance from the DoE or from the donor agencies for the purpose of fund clearance. It is therefore the job of the consultants to satisfy the proponent’s requirements rather than carrying out EIA’s objective to ensure environmental and social soundness of projects. In addition, there are no codes of conduct by which the activities of the consultants are governed.

In addition, Ahammed and Harvey (2004) investigated that proponents holds all the relevant information regarding the project which places them in an advantageous position to identify and assess potential impacts with better confidence. So they argued strongly in favour of independent bodies to conduct EIA. They also identified that proponents consider EIA as a permission seeking tool not a way to reduce the impact for the betterment of environment, this way neglecting the intrinsic value of EIA.

**Transactive:**
According to Momtaz (2002) EIA practice in Bangladesh is resource intensive (i.e. time and money). Because most of the EIA is donor funded. He suggested the need to develop simplified EIA procedures that would be consistent with the availability of resources within the country. Dependence on donor agencies to meet the cost of EIA undermines the whole idea of using EIA as a tool for sustainable development.

**Normative:**
Adequate study to assess this criteria of effectiveness for Bangladesh is still absent. Through the analysis section titled ‘policy initiative towards EIA’ by Alshuwaikhat et al. (2007, pp.233–235)it can be found that wider practice of EIA through ECR, 1997 acted as a catalyst behind the inclusion of EIA guideline for water resource management project (WARPO, MoWR, GoB, 2005)under National Water Management Plan. Additionally, recent mass protest against the ‘poor and intentional’ EIA of ‘Coal Based Thermal Power Plant at Sundarban’ (the largest mangrove forest of the world and an UNESCO heritage site), Bangladesh(Muhammad, 2013) is a sign of people's awareness about EIA. The wide practice of EIA and its significance within the decision making system, brought this change in people’s value system about environment and sustainability definition as a whole.

**Strategies for Improvement**
According to Kabir (2012) and Momtaz and Kabir (2013) the EIA legislation (ECA, 1995 and ECR, 1997) should be amended to include the stages of the EIA process (scoping, analysis of alternatives,
evaluation of impacts and contents of an ES) and other requirements such as provision of EIAs for the extension of project and the review process of EIA reports.

Momtaz (2002) exerted the need of coordination among the concerned agencies and put forward a unified guideline for EIA sensitive to the socio, economic and political context of Bangladesh. He also identified the need to judge the ES by independent reviewer bodies to achieve the inherent goal of EIA, which is to influence the decision in a true sense. He explained his proposition due to the presence of high rate of corruption and rigid administrative mechanism of government. In contrast capacity building at various levels both within and outside the government has been suggested by Ahammed and Harvey (2004).

Moreover, consultation with local people and their representation in project development process has been suggested to ensure better decision making (Momtaz, 2002). Additionally, an increase of manpower and a restructuring of the DoE seem to be essential although it is recognized that there are financial constraints for the government according to Ahammed and Harvey (2004). They also conclude to build the capability of the DoE staff in impact prediction and IEE/EIA review and to establish a strong enforcement practice. Finally, MoEF/DoE should establish formal linkages with universities, research organizations, and NGOs within the county to share expertise.

Furthermore, Alshuwaikhat et al. (2007) proposed the introduction of Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) in Bangladesh where major development programs are being implemented by a number of local and international agencies. This will provide the decision makers with more time to consider environmental consequences at an early stage. SEA would also allow the consideration of cumulative impacts of various projects.

**Conclusion**

EIA as an environment management tool has been successful in terms of global awareness raising over the last four decades. Due to its rationalist approach it has been criticised for the inherent aim of influencing development decision and protecting the environment. Numerous researches have been performed to measure the ‘effectiveness of EIA’ which is still evolving as a domain. Four major criteria’s have been established till date. Effectiveness of Bangladesh EIA system has been explored with the help of those criteria’s. To conclude, EIA system in Bangladesh is on the right track with effort being made by the government through establishing basic legal and administrative setup. However, the EIA system is still far from fulfilling good practice requirements. Procedural ineffectiveness seeks government measure in a couple areas mainly through institutional arrangement and capacity building. Substantive ineffectiveness reflects the global trend of failure to influence the development decision truly. EIA in Bangladesh still considered as requirement for getting environmental clearance from DoE, not as a sustainable development tool. Transactive effectiveness will be far reaching for a country like Bangladesh, depended on foreign aid largely. Normative effectiveness is still little known,
but mass awareness about the environment through the debate regarding an ES report is a recent experience. Bangladesh as an effective EIA system is still far reaching but through awareness raising, research and learning, donor pressure and proper government initiative it is achievable.

References


A Study of the Effectiveness of Korea’s Technical Cooperation to Develop the Skills of the Trainees of the BKTTC: An Evaluation of Vocational Training under KOICA’s Project in Bangladesh*

Md. Roknuzzaman Siddiky

Abstract: While technical cooperation (TC) has long been recognized as a catalyst of development, especially of the LDCs, there is an increasing debate about the effectiveness of TC in the academia. As such, the paper attempts to examine the effectiveness of Korea’s TC to develop the skills of the trainees of the Bangladesh-Korea Technical Training Centre (BKTTC). To assess the effectiveness of Korea’s TC, the study evaluated two types of the vocational training, that is, two year trade certificate course and one year skill certificate, as part of KOICA’s Project implemented at the BKTTC, Dhaka, Bangladesh. The study found that vocational training as a whole was effective to develop the skills of the trainees of the BKTTC while the training was not very effective despite the fact that Korean Government transferred modern technology and skills due mainly to lack of alignment between trainees’ needs and government’s policy, and shortage of absorptive capacity. However, two year trade certificate course was more likely to be effective to develop the skills of the trainees since it involved more practical orientation. Hence, the study suggests that TC to be effective both for developing and developed partners, there should be strong focus on demand-driven and need-based approach in TC and building absorptive capacity as well.

Keywords: Vocational education and training (VET), ODA, Technical cooperation (TC), Technology transfer, Demand-driven TC project, Absorptive capacity

Background of the Study

Vocational Education and Training (VET) usually involves a systematic education and training activity which equips individuals with necessary technical knowledge and skills on various trades or works

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* The paper is a part of the author’s doctoral study at the Graduate School of Techno-HRD, Korea University of Technology and Education (KOREATECH), Cheonan, The Republic of Korea.

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aimed at securing employment for them. According to Cedefop, VET is concerned with “education and training which aims to equip people with knowledge, know-how, skills and/or competencies required in particular occupations or more broadly on labor market” (2008, p. 2002). However, VET in a broad sense, known as Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) which is preferably used by the UNESCO to refer to acquisition of knowledge and skills for the world of work. TVET is the combined process of all education and training activities concerned with enhancement of technical and occupational skills for the individuals. According to the UNESCO (2002),

Technical and Vocational education’ is used as “a comprehensive term referring to those aspects of educational process involving, in addition to general education, the study of technology and related sciences, and the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding, and knowledge related to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life (p. 7).

VET can play an important role to step up a country’s economic progress and societal well-being. Many countries have achieved economic growth and prosperity with provision of sound vocational education and training system. Korea and Singapore are the classic examples of achieving economic development through human resource development which was largely attributed to their proper systems of vocational education and training (Rao, 1996; Lee and Jung, 2005; Seng, 2007; Kong et al., 2008; Chae and Chung, 2009). Apart from Korea and Singapore, vocational education and training has served as an engine of economic and social progress in many developing countries including China, Malaysia, Vietnam and Egypt since VET aims at raising employability, productivity and economic prosperity of a country1. As such, VET has received increasing importance to facilitate national human resource development of the developing countries like Bangladesh, and has become integral part of international development cooperation efforts of many multilateral and bilateral development agencies including ILO, UNESCO, KOICA, JICA, GTZ (UNESCO, 2002, 2006, 2010; GTZ-VETA, 2000; ILO, 2003; UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2004; JICA, 2005, 2007; KOICA, 2005, 2008 and 2011).

However, due to mismatching or lack of alignment between technical cooperation (TC) projects and needs or desires of the beneficiaries/targeted groups, the development cooperation efforts in many developing countries have not generated optimum outcomes (Morgan and Baser, 1993; Morgan, 2002; Browne, 2002; Denning, 2002; Fukuda-Parr, Lopez and Malik, 2002; Degnbol and Pedersen, 2003; Riddell, 2007). Fukuda-Parr, Lopez and Malik (2002) held that TC has been criticized for undermining local capacity, distorting priorities, choosing high profile activities, fragmenting management, using expensive methods, ignoring local wishes, and fixating on targets. TC projects have further been criticized for being supply rather than demand-driven (Browne, 2002; European Commission, 2008, 2009; OECD, 2011). Moreover, due to lack of proper policy and absorptive capacity on the part of the recipient countries to make use of it, TC has not been so useful and has mixed effects in many developing countries (Browne, 2002; Fukuda-Parr, Lopez and Malik, 2002; UNESCO (2002, 2006, 2010; GTZ-VETA, 2000; ILO, 2003; UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2004; JICA, 2005, 2007; KOICA, 2005, 2008 and 2011).

1 ADB (2008) argues that the development of technical and vocational skills is critical for economic development due to two important reasons. Firstly, technical and vocational skills are needed for enterprise productivity and profitability; secondly, it is needed for national productivity and wealth creation.
Riddle, 2007; GSDRC, 2009). Hence, there is a controversy in the academia about the effectiveness of TC. As such, the present paper aims to examine whether TC is effective to fulfil its designated objectives. However, the paper mainly attempts to critically assess the effectiveness of KOICA-led TC project implemented in Bangladesh in the field of VET so as to develop the skills of the trainees of the Bangladesh-Korea Technical Training Centre (BKTTC). The focus was given on the effectiveness of two kinds of vocational training executed at the BKTTC as part of the implementation of the Project to develop the skills of the trainees. The paper also examines the extent to which these two kinds of vocational training fulfilled the needs or desires of the trainees and could facilitate their employability.

**ODA and Technical Cooperation**

Official development assistance, commonly known as ODA, is a form of international development cooperation provided by the OECD’s DAC member countries. According to the OECD (2008a, 2008b), ODA is defined as those flows to countries and territories on the DAC list of ODA Recipients and to multilateral development institutions which are: i) provided by official agencies including state and local governments, or by their executive agencies; and ii) each transaction of which:

a) is administered with the promotion of economic development and welfare of developing countries as its main objective; and

b) is concessional in character and conveys a grant element of 25 per cent.

In addition to financial flows technical cooperation or TC is included in aid. Grants, loans and credits for military purposes are excluded. TC, on the other hand, has been defined by the OECD (as cited in Arndt, 2002) as activities financed by a donor country whose primary purpose is to augment the level of knowledge, skills and technical know-how, or productive aptitudes of population of the developing countries, i.e., increasing their stock of human capital or their capacity for more effective use of their existing factor endowment (p.158). The OECD (2008a, 2008b) suggests that TC involves a) grants to nationals of aid recipient countries receiving education or training at home and abroad, and b) payments to consultants, advisers and similar personnel as well as teachers and administrators serving in recipient countries (including the cost of associate equipment).

However, Korea’s bilateral ODA implemented by the Korea International Cooperation Agency, namely the KOICA includes: a) **grant aid**, and b) **technical cooperation**. Grant aid encompasses project aid (provision of equipment), aid in kind, disaster relief, and support to NGO, while technical cooperation includes training, expertise sharing, Korea Overseas Volunteers (KOVs), and development studies (KOICA, 2001, 2006a). KOICA’s TC is included in its grant aid. Since its establishment in 1991, the KOICA has been increasingly supporting the developing countries in order to achieve their sustainable economic and social development (KOICA, 2006b, 2009). KOICA is under the supervision of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade (MOFAT). KOICA implements around 40% of the total budget of Korea’s bilateral ODA. KOICA has 28 representative offices in 27 partner countries, and these overseas offices play a critical role in implementing KOICA’s aid programs in the field. Vocational training makes up the largest portion of KOICA’s aid in the education sector (KOICA, 2008).
Vocational Education and Training System in Bangladesh

The vocational education and training programmes in Bangladesh offer a variety of vocational courses starting from the junior secondary level (class VIII). Vocational training institutes (VTIs), polytechnic institutes, commercial institutes, technical training centers (TTCs), and other specialized institutes offer these vocational courses. However, vocational education and training (VET) in Bangladesh usually operates under the management and supervision of two governmental organizations: i) The Directorate of Technical Education (DTE) which is under the Ministry of Education (MOE), and ii) The Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training, (BMET) which operates under the Ministry of Expatriates’ Welfare and Overseas Employment (MOEWOE). There are 51 vocational training institutes (VTI) in Bangladesh which are administered by the Directorate of Technical Education (DTE) while there are about 37 Technical Training Centers (TTCs) directed by the Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET).

Both VTIs and TTCs provide VET in secondary level while Bangladesh-Korea Technical Training Centre (BKTTC) provides vocational training after secondary education. Besides VTIs, there are about 24 polytechnic institutes under the Ministry of Education providing mid-level technical education in higher secondary level. Polytechnic institutes offer 4 year’s diploma courses in various fields of technology. The diploma certificate, equivalent to Higher Secondary Certificate, is issued by the Bangladesh Technical Education Board (BTEB). Apart from polytechnic institutes, there are some other institutes such as textile and leather technology institutes, and a marine technology institute providing diploma courses in their respective fields.

KOICA’s TC project in the field of VET in Bangladesh

Korea has a unique experience of transforming its economy from a poverty-driven country to an industrialized one, in particular, through developing its human resources. In other words, human resources development (HRD) has played a key factor of Korea’s economic and social development (Kim 2005; KOICA, 2008). As such, the KOICA has concentrated its development cooperation in such areas where Korea has a comparative advantage. VET is one of such areas where Korea has a comparative advantage to support its developing partners since VET was instrumental to develop human resources of Korea (Rao, 1996; KOICA, 2005, 2006a, 2006b and 2008).

In consideration of the institutional capacities of the BMET and its key role in developing human resources in Bangladesh, the training capacity of Mirpur Technical Training Centre (TTC) was required to be upgraded since its vocational training program was not satisfactory both in quality and quantity (GOB, 2007). To cope with the present competitive world, the Mirpur TTC was expected to be renovated with modern technology to deliver its vocational training in line with technological changes. Therefore, the BMET approached the KOICA through Economic Relations Division (ERD) to assist to enhance the vocational training capacity of Mirpur TTC (GOB, 2007). Having received a
request from the Bangladesh Government, the KOICA undertook a TC Project in 2007 entitled “Program to Enhance the Vocational Training Capacity of Bangladesh” which was implemented at Mirpur TTC, Dhaka. The Training Centre was renamed as Bangladesh-Korea Technical Training Centre (BKTTC) after it was renovated as part of the implementation of the Project. The Project was jointly executed by the BMET under the Ministry of Expatriates’ Welfare and Overseas Employment (MOEWOE), the Government of the People’s Republic of Bangladesh and the KOICA, the Republic of Korea during the period 2007-2009. The key objective of the Project was to generate skilled manpower or workforce to meet the demand for local and overseas employment through introducing modern vocational training system.

Vocational Training at the BKTTC under the KOICA’s Project
Before implementing KOICA’s TC Project, the BKTTC (earlier known as Mirpur TTC) used to offer SSC (Voc) course like other technical training centers (TTCs) of the country. However, due to the implementation of the Project, the BKTTC stopped offering SSC (Voc) course and introduced two year trade certificate course in its place with a new system totally that was replication of Korean vocational training system in Bangladesh though it was partly modified so that it could adjust with Bangladesh society and local educational components (Prof. Lee, Korean Expert, personal communication, August 17, 2011). The BKTTC offered two year trade certificate course on six deferent trades which were developed under the technical consultation of Korean Experts who were professors of Korea University of Technology and Education of the Republic of Korea. These six different trades are: a) Automobile; b) Mechanical; c) Construction; d) Industrial Facility (Welding and Refrigeration); e) Electrical; and f) Electronics (BKTTC, 2009). The course curricula along with relevant text books were prepared by the Korean Experts in association with the instructors of the BKTTC.

However, two year trade certificate course was withdrawn two years after its inception. Instead of two year trade certificate course, one year skill certificate course was initiated on aforesaid six different trades so as to generate skilled manpower, and seek employment at home and abroad. Moreover, the BKTTC also offers modular courses alongside one year skill certificate course on 26 trades, the duration of which are ranging from 2 to 6 months.

Methodology of the Study
The present study was primarily an evaluative study of which data were collected directly by the researcher himself as part of his research project at doctoral program. The study employed multiple data sources including interviewing, direct observations and document analysis. To evaluate the effectiveness of KOICA’s TC Project to develop the skills of the trainees of the BKTTC, the study assessed the effectiveness of two kinds of vocational training- two year trade certificate course1 and

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1 Two year trade certificate course was designed and developed by the Korean Experts as part of the implementation of the KOICA’s TC project entitled “Program to Enhance the Vocational training Capacity of Bangladesh.”
one year skill certificate course\(^1\) executed at the BKTTC as part of the implementation of the Project. A total of 42 respondents were selected from the trainees of the BKTTC undertaking these two kinds of vocational training based on purposive and snowball\(^2\) sampling procedures due to convenience of the researcher. The selected respondents were interviewed by structured interview schedule while the structured questions were supplemented by open-ended questions and probing.

Hence, the study sought to evaluate the effectiveness of two kinds of vocational training by comparing the responses of two groups of trainees one of which consisting of 16 undertaking two year trade certificate course and the other comprising 26 undertaking one year skill certificate course. The responses of the respondents were measured in terms of Likert-type scales\(^3\). Due to ordinal nature of data, the study reasonably used median rather than mean.

The study, however, tested some research hypotheses so as to determine significance of the effectiveness of vocational training depending on its types and corresponding trades by reasonably employing nonparametric hypothesis testing tools, often called nonparametric statistics. The nonparametric tools of hypotheses testing employed in the study involved Chi-square ($\chi^2$) test, Mann-Whitney-U-test, and Kruskal-Wallis H-test. Multiple regression analysis was also employed to determine the causes contributing to the effectiveness of training. To find out the reliability or internal consistency of the items of the measurement, the Cronbach's alpha was carried out. The Cronbach's alpha Coefficient was .866 indicating that the items of scales in the measurement are reliable. The study sought to validate the following hypotheses:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S L #</th>
<th>Research Hypotheses ($H_a$)</th>
<th>Null Hypotheses ($H_0$)</th>
<th>Testing Tools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Course curriculum of two year trade certificate course is more likely to be well-combination of theory and practice.</td>
<td>Course-curriculum of two vocational training courses does not vary significantly in terms of well-combination of theory and practice.</td>
<td>Mann-Whitney –U-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Two year trade certificate course is more likely to allow the trainees to use Korean technology.</td>
<td>Using Korean technology does not vary significantly across the trainees depending on the type vocational training.</td>
<td>Mann-Whitney –U-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>There is a significant association</td>
<td>There is no association between</td>
<td>Ch-Square ($\chi^2$)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1 One year skill certificate course is a contracted and modified form of vocational training designed by the Bangladeshi vocational instructors introduced at the BKTTC instead of two year trade certificate course.

2 Snowball sampling is a non-probability sampling method often employed in field research whereby each person interviewed may be asked to suggest additional people for interviewing (Babble, 2007, p. 184).

3 Five or three point Likert-type scales were defined in terms of lowest degree to the highest degree of effectiveness or favorableness. In 5-point Likert-type scale, 1 = very ineffective, 2 = ineffective, 3 = somewhat effective, 4 = effective, and 5 = very effective (San Jose State University, 2011). However, in 3-point Likert-type scale, 1 = not, 2 = somewhat, and 3 = very much.
Empirical Findings

Table 2: Evaluation Summary of the Effectiveness of Vocational Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement or Rating Indexes</th>
<th>Groups of the Trainees</th>
<th>Group Median</th>
<th>Obtained Combined Median Score</th>
<th>Total Score</th>
<th>Combined Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The extent to which vocational training has fulfilled the trainees’ needs and desires.</td>
<td>One year skill certificate course</td>
<td>2.50 Little</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>Somewhat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Two year trade certificate course</td>
<td>3.00 Somewhat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The extent to which the</td>
<td>One year skill</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
course curriculum is well-combination of theory and practice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Certificate Course</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>2.00</th>
<th>3.00</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Two year trade certificate course</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>Very</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The extent to which the trainees have used Korean technology (Korean training equipment).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Certificate Course</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>2.00</th>
<th>3.00</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One year skill certificate course</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>Somewhat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two year trade certificate course</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>Very much</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The extent to which vocational training has been effective to develop the skills of the trainees of the BKTTC.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Certificate Course</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>2.00</th>
<th>3.00</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One year skill certificate course</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>Somewhat effective</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two year trade certificate course</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>almost very effective</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The extent to which the trainees are confident about their employment at home and abroad.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Certificate Course</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>2.00</th>
<th>3.00</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One year skill certificate course</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>Somewhat confident</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two year trade certificate course</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>Very confident</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary of the Results of Hypotheses Testing:

Table 3: Hypotheses Testing Results Summary:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL #</th>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Statistical Test</th>
<th>Obtained/Calculated Value</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
<th>Alpha Value</th>
<th>Statistical Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Two year trade certificate course is more likely to be well-combination of theory and practice.</td>
<td>The Mann-Whitney U Test</td>
<td>8.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Two year trade certificate course is more likely to allow the trainees to use Korean technology.</td>
<td>The Mann-Whitney U Test</td>
<td>29.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There is a significant association between type of training and its effectiveness to develop the skills of the trainees.</td>
<td>Chi-Square Test</td>
<td>27.462</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Two year trade certificate course is more likely to be effective to develop the skills of the trainees.</td>
<td>The Mann-Whitney U Test</td>
<td>24.000</td>
<td>.000 (1-tailed)</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>There is a significant association between the name of the trades and the effectiveness of training to develop their skills.</td>
<td>Chi-Square Test</td>
<td>8.704</td>
<td>.560</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Effectiveness of vocational training to develop the skills of the trainees varies significantly across the trades.</td>
<td>The Kruskall-Wallis Test</td>
<td>2.525</td>
<td>.773</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>Fulfilment of the trainees’ needs and desires varies significantly depending on the type of training</td>
<td>The Mann-Whitney U Test</td>
<td>84.500</td>
<td>.000 (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>The trainees undertaking two year trade certificate course is more likely to be confident about their employment.</td>
<td>The Mann-Whitney U Test</td>
<td>116.000</td>
<td>.0035 (1-tailed)</td>
<td>0.01*</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* P < 0.01 (significant at 1% level of significance)

**Multiple Regression Model**

The study employed **multiple regression analysis** to determine which factor/factors have influenced or contributed to the effectiveness of vocational training at the BKTTC:
Therefore, the multiple regression equation can be written as follows:

\[
\text{Effectiveness of Training} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + u
\]

Where

Independent Variable-1 = Years of Schooling (X_1)
Independent Variable-2 = Using Korean Technology (X_2)
Independent Variable-3 = Type of Vocational Training (X_3)
Independent Variable-4 = Trades of the Vocational Training (X_4) (Such as mechanical trade)
Independent Variable-5 = Age of the Respondents (X_5)

\(\beta\) = Regression Weight (relative contributions of several independent variables)
\(u\) = Residual (error term)

Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.872(^a)</td>
<td>.760</td>
<td>.692</td>
<td>.429</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above model summary table shows that the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (R) is .872, and “R Square” is .760 which means that 76% of the variation was explained. The table also shows that “Adjusted R Square” is .692 which means that 69% of the variance was explained.

ANOVA\(^b\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>of Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>18.669</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.074</td>
<td>11.247</td>
<td>.003(^a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>5.902</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>.184</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24.571</td>
<td>41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) Predictors: (constant) Age of the Respondents, type of vocational training, Dummy Trade1, Dummy Trade2, Dummy Trade3, Dummy Trade4, Dummy Trade5, Years of Schooling, Using Korean Technology.

\(^b\) Dependent Variable: Effectiveness of Vocational Training

The above ANOVA table shows the overall significance of the regression model. As shown above, the P-value (.000) is less than the alpha value (0.01) at 99% confidence level. Therefore, the model is significant.
Table 4: Multiple Regression Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using Korea Tech</td>
<td>.839</td>
<td>.294</td>
<td>.539</td>
<td>2.853 .008*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of Schooling</td>
<td>-.042</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>-.063</td>
<td>-.511 .613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dummy Trade-1</td>
<td>.166</td>
<td>.251</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.661 .513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dummy Trade-2</td>
<td>-.041</td>
<td>.251</td>
<td>-.017</td>
<td>-.163 .871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dummy Trade-3</td>
<td>-.010</td>
<td>.284</td>
<td>-.004</td>
<td>-.035 .972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dummy Trade-4</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>.166 .869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dummy Trade-5</td>
<td>-.269</td>
<td>.231</td>
<td>-.144</td>
<td>-1.161 .254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Vocational Training</td>
<td>.464</td>
<td>.313</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.482 .148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of the Respondents</td>
<td>.112</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>2.392 .023**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent variable: The extent to which vocational training has been effective to develop the skills of the trainees (Training Effectiveness).

*P < 0.01 (significant at 1% level of significance)
**P < 0.05 (significant at 5% level of significance)

Interpretation and Discussion

Table 2 shows the evaluation summery of the effectivene
| ss of vocational training. It is noticeable that the vocational training as a whole has somewhat fulfilled the trainees’ needs and desires. The study identified three important reasons as to why vocational training under KOICA’s Project has moderately fulfilled the trainees’ needs and desires. These key reasons are: first, no scope to pursue HSC in line with the training; second, no scope or direct channel to be employed at home or abroad, especially in Korea after completion of the training; and third, certificate has still no or less valuation and recognition in the country’s job market. However, the study found that the fulfillment of trainees’ needs and desires varies depending on the type of vocational training. As shown in Table 3, the empirical evidence has supported our research hypothesis (H_a) that the fulfillment of the needs or desires of the trainees varies significantly depending on the type of training [Mann-Whitney-U= 84.500, P-value (.001) < 0.01]. Hence, two year trade certificate course is more likely to fulfill the trainees’ needs and expectations than one year skill certificate course while both the trainings have limitations in terms of their valuation and recognition in the job market. The study found apathy or lack of motivation among the trainees to undertake vocational training at the BKTTTC. Consequently, the study found that there was less participation of trainees to receive vocational training at the training centre despite the BKTTTC is equipped with Korean modern training equipments.

Table 2 reveals that the course curriculum of vocational training as a whole is somewhat well-combination of theory and practice while it varies in terms of type of vocational training. The course
The curriculum of one year skill certificate course is somewhat well-combination of theory and practice whereas the course curriculum of two year trade certificate is very much well-combination of theory and practice. As shown in Table 3, the empirical evidence has supported our research hypothesis (H_a) that the course curriculum of two year trade certificate course is more likely to be well-combination of theory and practice [Mann-Whitney-U = 8.000, P-value (.000) < 0.01]. Hence, the standard of the course-curriculum of two year trade certificate course is better than that of one year skill certificate course since it more likely to reflect Korean vocational training system and it involves more practical orientation.

It is evident from Table 2 that the vocational training as a whole has allowed the trainees to use Korean technology moderately. However, the use of Korean technology among the two groups of trainees has varied. One year skill certificate course has allowed the trainees to use Korean technology moderately while two year trade certificate course has allowed the trainees to use Korean technology largely. In this regard, our research hypothesis (H_a) as shown in Table 3 has been supported that two year trade certificate course is more likely to allow the trainees to use Korean technology [Mann-Whitney-U = 29.000, P-value (.000) < 0.01]. Thus, it may be inferred that two year trade certificate course is more likely be helpful for the trainees to develop their technical skills as it involves much time and more practical orientation.

The study found that the vocational training under KOICA’s Project at the BKTTC has been effective as a whole with to develop the skills of the trainees of the BKTTC. Nevertheless, the study suggests that vocational training has not been very effective to develop the skills of the trainees despite the training centre has sophisticated training equipments provided by the KOICA. In this connection, the study has identified some key reasons. These are: first, withdrawal of two year trade certificate course; second, not sufficient time to go through the whole course due to contraction of the duration of the vocational course; third, less focus on the practical class due to contraction of the course duration; fourth, lack of instructors’ necessary knowledge and skills how to operate the sophisticated equipments, hence the BKTTC has lack of absorptive capacity to utilize technology transferred from Korea; and fifth, negligence of some instructors to handle the equipments.

However, effectiveness of vocational training to develop the skill of trainees has varied depending on the type of training. One year skill certificate course has been found to be moderate effective with a median value of 3.00 while two year trade certificate course has been found to be almost very effective with a median value of 4.50 to develop the skills of the trainees of the BKTTC. In this regard, the study sought to find out why the trainees belonging to one year skill certificate course evaluated less favorably and why the trainees belonging to two year trade certificate course evaluated more favorably to develop their skills corresponding to their vocational training. The following reasons have been identified:

a) Two year trade certificate course allowed the trainees to go through the whole course as designed by the Korean Experts;
b) The trainees belonging to two year course got much time to focus on their practical class;

c) Two year course is more likely to enhance technical capacity of the trainees as it involves highly well combination of theory and practice;

d) Two year trade certificate course allowed students to connect more with advanced technology, and thus is suitable for enhancing technical skills of the trainees;

e) In one year skill certificate course, there is less emphasis on practical class, and is little scope to handle advanced technology due to contraction of the course, thus, one year skill certificate course is not so suitable to develop the technical skills of the trainees.

The empirical evidence of the study has supported our two major research hypotheses (H_a). First, there is a significant association between type of training and its effectiveness to develop skills of the trainees of the BKTTC [$\chi^2 = 27.462, \text{P-value (.000) < 0.01}$]. Second, two year trade certificate course is more likely to be effective to develop the skills of the trainees of the BKTTC than one year skill certificate course [Mann-Whitney-U = 24.000, P-value (.000) < 0.01]. However, the empirical evidence failed to support our research hypothesis (H_a) that effectiveness of vocational training to develop the skills of trainees varies significantly across the trades [Kruskall-Wallis H-statistic = 2.525, P-value (.773) > 0.05]. Hence, trades do not have any effect on skills.

The study found that the trainees undertaking two year trade certificate course are likely to be very much confident about their employment while the trainees undertaking one year skill certificate course are somewhat confident about their employment at home and abroad. In this regard, the empirical evidence of the study has supported our research hypothesis (H_a) that the trainees undertaking two year trade certificate course are more likely to be confident about their employment [Mann-Whitney-U = 116.000, P-value (.0035) < 0.01]. They thought that they are skilled enough to be employed at home. By this time, most of the trainees completing two year certificate course have managed to be employed in different companies and factories at Dhaka city. However, the study found that the trainees, undertaking Industrial Facility Trade, were bit worried about their employment since most of the companies and factories are not familiar with the name of this trade.

A multiple regression analysis was carried out in order to find out the factor(s) influencing or contributing to the effectiveness of vocational training. As shown in the Table 4, using Korean technology [P-value (.008) < 0.01] and Age of the respondents [P-value (.023) < 0.05] have contributed to the effectiveness of vocational training. Hence, these two factors have impacted on the effectiveness of vocational training to develop the skills of the trainees of the BKTTC. However, trainees’ years of schooling (educational qualification), their respective trades and type of training do not have any impact on the effectiveness of training. Independent variable-1 (years of schooling) has no impact since its corresponding p-value (.613) is greater than the alpha value (0.1) at 90% confidence level. Furthermore, all P-values corresponding to the trades (dummy variables) are greater than alpha value (0.1) and thus, there is no significant difference across the trades in terms of their effectiveness. Hence, the trades (mechanical, automobile, civil, electrical, electronics and so on)
have no impact on the effectiveness of training to develop the skills of the trainees of the BKTTC. Type of training has no impact since its P-value (.148) is greater than 0.1. Based on multiple regression analysis, it can be said that using Korean technology or training equipments have enhanced trainees’ enthusiasm for learning and practical knowledge and skills and thereby has influenced the effectiveness of vocational training. On the other hand, age of the respondents may be positively associated with trainees' motivation for work, knowledge, and experience on technical work, dedication, sincerity and thereby has contributed to the effectiveness of vocational training. However, in this multiple regression model, sex variable was deliberately excluded.  

Policy Recommendations

a) While the KOICA provided the BKTTC with adequate modern training equipments, the training centre could not capitalize on Korean modern technology to develop the skills of the trainees optimally due mainly to withdrawal of two year trade certificate course, and lack of knowledge and skills of the instructors to utilize Korean technology. Hence, two year trade certificate course should be reintroduced with proper valuation or recognition in the job market, and the BMET should organize advanced technical or skill development training for the instructors in line with technological change and global needs so as to develop absorptive capacity of its constituent technical training centers;

b) The research findings suggest that uncertainty of jobs after completion of vocational training demoralizes the trainees to undertake vocational training or to continue with their training at the BKTTC. As such, country’s VET system or VET policy should be linked to its employment policy. Hence, VET policy should be framed in accordance with employment policy or vice versa;

c) The study reveals that there is a great demand from the trainees of the BKTTC for having a scope for further study since job is uncertain or job is not guaranteed for them. Thus, long-term vocational training should be integrated with country’s formal technical education system and there should be a scope of further study so that a trainee can continue his/her studies as long as he/she wishes or is able to do so. In view of this matter, if their vocational training is integrated with country’s formal technical education system or if there is a scope for the trainees to do diploma at the polytechnic institutes or to do HSC (Voc) at such institutions in Bangladesh after completion of their training provided that they meet the given qualification (e.g. GPA or credits) for pursuing diploma at the polytechnic institutes or do HSC (Voc), they could develop their employability skills and build up their careers in the face of competitive world. By doing so, Bangladesh as a least developed country not only could generate highly skilled manpower and technicians but also could produce diploma engineers as per demands of the local industries or companies and changing needs of the globalized world;

d) It was reported by most of the respondents that there should be HSC (Voc) replacing one year skill certificate so that a trainee could achieve skill certificate as well as academic certificate at the

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1 In the Multiple Regression Model, ‘sex’ was not treated reasonably as an independent variable by the researcher since there was only one female respondent out of a total of 42 respondents. In this regard, this is noteworthy to mention that the Training Centre (BKTTC) has lack of female trainees. While conducting fieldwork at the BKTTC, very few female trainees were found.
same time. Therefore, Dual Certification can be introduced. The empirical evidence suggests that two year trade certificate course is more likely to be effective to develop technical skills of the trainees as it is more likely to allow the trainees to use technology and thereby allowing the trainees to be practically sound. Given this matter, it is recommended that BMET should reintroduce two year long certificate course with giving valuation of HSC (Voc). However, if it is not possible on the part of the BMET to introduce HSC (Voc), one year skill certificate course should have a strong focus on practical class alongside theory, and there should be a scope for the trainees of the BKTTC to continue his/her studies after completion of the training;

e) The empirical evidence suggests that ‘using Korean technology’ has influenced or contributed to the effectiveness of vocational training at the BKTTC. Hence, there should be a strong focus on using Korean technology or practical orientation alongside theory as part of vocational training;

f) The research finding suggests that most of the trainees of the BKTTC have enrolled with a view to seeking overseas employment, particularly in Korea. Moreover, one of the core objectives of the BKTTC is to promote exporting of highly skilled workforce. Nevertheless, there is no direct channel or no such arrangement on the part of the BMET to allow the trainees to be employed in Korea or elsewhere after completion of their training. As such, the BMET should correspond with the KOICA or concerned agencies of Korea so that Korea could take skilled manpower from the BKTTC based on the merits of trainees each and every year. Or there should be a quota for the trainees of the BKTTC in the Employment Permit System (EPS) of Korea so that the BKTTC not only could attract a number of trainees from across the country to develop their skills and but also could export skilled manpower abroad and thereby contribute to Bangladesh economy. Thus, Korean Government should prioritize this issue and take skilled or semi-skilled labor from each of the six trades of the BKTTC based on the trainees’ merits each and every year.

Conclusion

In summary, it may be argued that while Korea’s technical cooperation (KOICA’s project-type cooperation), has been effective to develop the skills of the BKTTC, it has not been very effective to develop their skills despite the KOICA transferred modern technology and skills. Moreover, the KOICA’s Project has not been so effective to attract its targeted groups to undertake vocational training at the training centre and to generate overseas employment, in particular, in Korea even though there is high demand for labor in Korean labor market. As such, the KOICA’s Project with introduction of Korean vocational training system and transfer of modern technology has not fulfilled its overall objectives due to mismatching between trainees’ needs and desires and government’s policy, and lack of absorptive capacity to take advantage of Korean technology. Hence, TC to be effective both for developing and developed partners, there should be strong focuses on demand-driven or need-based approach and building absorptive capacity in the international development cooperation efforts. In addition to recipient country’s needs, much emphasis should be paid on the needs and desires of the beneficiaries or targeted groups. Before implementing TC, it is very necessary to assess whether or not it could meet the beneficiaries’ needs and desires and be aligned with the recipient country’s policy. Finally, it can be said that though the KOICA’s Project on VET has
not optimized its results, the Project has not failed as a whole since the BKTTC is now offering short or modular vocational training courses on 26 different trades by taking advantage of Korean training equipments that has become popular across the trainees, and thereby supporting in human resources development in Bangladesh.

References


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