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LEADING IN A CRISIS

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Whether it was Nkandla or the Fees-must-Fall movement, these two major events of 2015 raised a simple question - how does one lead in a crisis? It is a question about presidential leadership as much as it is about university leadership. And when the dam wall broke, in the courts and on campuses, many of our leaders were found to be sadly lacking.

To begin with, you lead in a crisis by leading in peace time. Or, as a friend put it, you build dams during a drought. If the President had accepted the report of the Public Protector, as many of us urged at the time, several things would not have happened. He would not have made Parliament the spectacle which it has become; in the process, many citizens have lost respect for this important institution. He would not have been dragged to court, and lost. He would not have cost the reputations of several senior politicians who far too willingly came to the President's defence. He would have reinforced the authority of a Chapter Nine institution, the Public Protector. He would have saved the country millions in needless legal expenditure. And he would have been able to focus on what is really important - the still unmet developmental needs of millions of South Africans. But by refusing to lead when things were still relatively calm, the President dragged the country into a mess from which it might never recover.

Imagine if every university leader had built strong relationships with their students with ground-floor offices, lived modest lives rather than flashing wealth and privilege, invested back into student funding some of their excessive salaries, and created endless schemes to enable the poorest child to access higher education. True, funding would still not be adequate but a relationship would have been built so that when the crisis hit, there would have been space for dialogue, partnership and change. It took a massive uprising by students to command our attention which of course begs the question - where were we during the calm? Why were we not listening then, and making plans when the students knocked down our doors? In American football terms, when you try to lead in a crisis, you're playing defence.

But now the crisis is upon you as a leader - now what do you do? You listen. The President should have listened to those in his inner circle, and those outside, who said "Pay back the money" long before it became a disruptive chant in Parliament. And by the way, he would not even have had to pay it himself; there are enough opportunistic individuals who would gladly have parted with their millions now for much greater benefits down the line. But he should have listened.

Vice-Chancellors have the habit of speaking when we should shut up. Our voices are shrill in a crisis even when all the signs are there that we should sit down and shut up, and listen: listen to the anxiety, the pain, the things not said but felt. Our predisposition to speak is a self-destructive habit. In a crisis you listen in order to understand deeply what the problem really is. The rush to solutions, however logical, should recognise that in times of crisis students want to vent, to unleash what they could not do during peace time. And when the crisis comes, listen not to answer but to absorb.

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Then, especially in a crisis, set clear and simple standards for behaviour. Leaders who allow students to run riot, destroy property, intimidate non-protestors, disrupt meetings and occupy buildings have failed in their duty to lead. The longer the inaction, the less manageable the crisis. The right to protest is sacrosanct in a democracy. The right to destroy, demean and diminish is not. Here lies the problem - when as leaders we lack the credibility to speak into the noise, we are not heard and then coercive force takes over when persuasion should have been sufficient. Even so, clear lines must be drawn, and drawn early, or else our leaders will find themselves locked into a whirlwind of disorder from which they cannot escape.

Finally, the crisis is never the problem. Inventive leaders find ways of turning a crisis into an opportunity. The President still has some space, however minimal that might be, to emerge as a great leader with an unequivocal statement about mistakes he has made and the intention to set things right. We are a forgiving people. The State of the Nation speech of February 2016 offered such a platform, but our leader was tone-deaf to the noise inside, and especially outside Parliament. And yet there is still time.

University leaders, instead of solving only the short-term dilemmas for the sake of immediate peace, could have used the crisis to fundamentally change the way their institutions function and the way government funds higher education. But we are so short-term in our thinking, allowing the here-and-now to dictate strategy, knowing full well that there will have to be another 0% fee increase in 2017 and that the housing backlog will escalate even further into the future. In the one place where you would expect bold new ideas – the public university – we stumble from one crisis into another.

We have yet to learn how to lead in a crisis.

MANAGING GLOBAL BUSINESS COMPETITION: THE DYNAMICS OF OFFSHORING AND OUTSOURCING

W. Wachira[1], M. Brookes[2] & R. Haines[3]

ABSTRACT

Over the years, profit-making organisations globally have been facing increasing competition. Consequently, this has forced management to establish new strategies and techniques to achieve productivity and efficiency. At present many organisations worldwide employ outsourcing in their daily business operations, many of which are outsourced to other countries This study evaluated the global offshoring trends through the use of secondary data collection method. The findings suggest that offshoring can either be a success or failure, or both, due to the fact that the global business environment consists of opportunities as well as challenges. Findings also suggest that both developed and developing countries contract outsourcing companies in foreign countries to facilitate in ensuring certain business functions are performed. India dominates in outsourcing. However, Africa still has a long way to go with regard to being an attractive destination for offshoring. African countries have the potential to grow the offshoring industry.

Offshoring promotes foreign direct investment and contributes to either job creation or job loss as well as skills and technology transfer.

Keywords: Business process outsourcing (BPO); offshoring; outsourcing.

INTRODUCTION

Changes in global production in the recent past have been motivated by trade liberalisation, technological improvements and economic transformation. Theories of comparative advantage suggest that differences between countries determine what they manufacture. Nations which have a large pool of skilled workforce manufacture goods that require skills. It can be argued that, if offshoring and outsourcing are associated with specialisation gains arising from an increase in the division of labour, domestic outsourcing tends to increase wages for both unskilled and skilled labour. The relative demand for unskilled labour in Western Europe and the United States (US) has declined through international specialisation (Feenstra & Hanson, 2003). Outsourcing is considered biased towards activities that are intensive in the use of unskilled labour. The comparative advantage effect is due to specialisation gains which result from the exploitation of capability differences across nations globally.

This study sought to establish the global offshoring and outsourcing trends because of several resultant benefits of these two business concepts, despite associated disadvantages. The first disadvantage is that developed countries are losing jobs to developing countries as jobs are being offshored to developing countries. In addition, Ghimire (2006) states that offshoring (transferring) jobs to India or China or other countries where labour cost is cheaper has resulted in job losses in the US and Europe.

However, the first benefit of offshoring and outsourcing is that these two phenomena contribute to increased economic growth. According to Article Base (2012), China and India have been identified as the fastest growing economies in recent years. Part of this growth is attributed to the movement of manufacturing activities from the US to China (where labour cost is cheaper). In

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particular, white collar jobs, call centres and software companies have been created in Bangalore. In India today, call centres are considered important for modern business and job creation, particularly for young college and university graduates in urban towns.

The second is that there are opportunities in offshoring and outsourcing. Entrepreneurship literature further identifies many reasons why small and medium enterprises (SMEs) decide to outsource and offshore. Reasons could be motivated by the transaction cost analysis (TCA) theory. TCA theory is based on the assumption that firms seek to cut down on business expenses. The theory suggests that investments, including outsourcing, help to reduce transaction costs which in turn reduce the size of the organisation, making a firm more productive (Putterman *et al*, 1995).

But what are outsourcing and offshoring? What is the evolution of both terms? Why are outsourcing and offshoring of concern in global business and management literature? The next section provides an overview of outsourcing and offshoring where all these questions are dealt with fully.

AN OVERVIEW OF OFFSHORING AND OUTSOURCING

According to studies by Olsen (2006), Metters (2008), Zeynep and Masini (2008), definitions for the terms 'outsourcing' and 'offshoring' are based on two variables, namely the 'ownership of company assets' and the 'location of the provider'. Outsourcing is defined as the relocation of functions to external providers irrespective of the outsourcing provider's location (Olsen, 2006). Thus, outsourcing may incorporate relocations within a country or between countries. Offshoring, however, refers to the relocation of functions to any foreign nation, regardless of whether the outsourcing provider is considered to be 'external' or 'affiliated' to the organisation (Olsen, 2006). This means that 'offshoring' refers only to international relocations.

The expansion and increased capability of offshoring and outsourcing companies in India, China and the Philippines, among other countries, have led to software development, increased call centres and outsourced accounting (Stack & Downing, 2005; Oshri, Kotlarsky & Willcocks, 2008; 2011). Mao, Lee and Deng (2008) agree with some observations cited by Kumar, Van Fenema and Von Glinow (2009) that an offshoring firm may increase its vendors' trust through effective communication and increased information sharing.

Today it has become common practice in competitive business environments to find organisations focusing on core business functions such as manufacturing and leaving the non-core functions such as cleaning to be conducted by outsourcing companies (Kim & Won, 2007; Sahay & Mohan, 2006). Outsourcing can be difficult to execute, although beneficial to the parties involved if strategically and professionally managed (Inkpen, 2001). According to Nembhard, Shi and Aktan (2003), the value of outsourcing is determined by the cost of transportation, delivery time and the uncertainty of the future market.

Mindrum, Hindle, Lacity, Simonson, Sutherland and Willcocks (2012) assert that globally, outsourcing of information technology (IT) and business processes (BP) is becoming more or less a routine activity of management in various major private and public organisations. According to Quinn (2000), the strategic move to outsourcing is probably the most useful tool in management. Today it is not enough for an establishment to simply rely on its employees as the knowledgebase for ideas (Carayannis, 1999; Chesbrough, 2003; Dodgson, 1991; Desouza, Awazu & Jasimuddin, 2005; Hitt, Ireland & Lee, 2000). Many company executives have now realised the importance of collaborating with other organisations in order to source new ideas, skills and capabilities.

Outsourcing in the past has been seen to mainly save costs. Today, the benefits are more than just cost saving and include productivity, flexibility, speed and innovation in developing business processes and accessing new technologies and skills (Greer, Youngblood & Gary, 1999; Bacon, 1999). On the other hand**,** some of the shortcomings of outsourcing encountered by the management of client firms are the loss of managerial control, hidden costs, and the threat to information security and confidentiality (Bucki, 2014).

Jenster, Pederson, Plackett and Hussey (2005) state that the pressures of outsourcing have changed over the years. Current outsourcing pressures that need to be addressed and examined in order to foster successful outsourcing outcomes comprise competition, more demanding customers, technological obsolescence, increasing pressures to deliver shareholder value, and the fact that recession is a periodic occurrence globally. Lacity, Rottman and Khan (2010) suggest that in order to remain competitive, outsourcing vendor firms need to appeal to client organisations, and at the same time they need to motivate and maintain personnel.

Outsourcing seems to be a practice that is adopted globally despite its challenges. Thus the strategic implementation of outsourcing initiatives is essential. Collaborating with the correct vendors also plays a significant role in the successful outcome of outsourcing.

Power, Desouza and Bonifaz (2007:11) cite four factors that have driven global outsourcing efforts, namely the growing numbers of highly skilled educated workforce, the availability of sophisticated facilities, the availability of infrastructure in the global marketplace and the sophistication of shared technology solutions. These factors assist international outsourcing vendor providers in providing quality goods and services in the global market but at competitive prices. This means that when quality control and price regulations are in place, a favourable market environment is created where competition is fair.

Literature on offshoring and outsourcing further suggests that, while saving on the cost of labour remains the main motivator of offshoring, other strategic considerations emerge due to offshoring and outsourcing. These range from access to skilled and qualified personnel to major functions such as innovation (Lewin & Peeters, 2006; Willcocks, Cullen & Craig, 2010). This means that top management would be confident that when production processes are offshored, innovation emerges in the manufacturing process.

Factors affecting the success of offshoring business processes in low-income countries have been considered by Abbott (2013). Some of the factors considered are labour force, cultural similarity/difference, government regulations, and political risk, among others (Willcocks *et al*, 2010).

According to Abbott (2013:30-31), some of the factors considered under labour force are labour productivity, availability of labour force, human resource policies, and specific skills, for example language skills and technical skill. In low-income countries it is common to find inadequate skilled labour, lax attitudes towards productivity and punitive human resource policies.

Cultural similarity or difference, however, considers factors such as cultural similarity to home country or the disadvantages of cultural difference. In low-income countries it is common to find dissimilar cultures, and unfamiliarity with the business language when dealing with offshoring outsourcing (Abbott, 2013).

Government regulations, on the other hand, involve factors such as import/export restrictions, policies, taxation structure, and attitudes/incentives towards foreign direct investment. Low-income countries are affected by high duties and taxes on technology equipment and high corporation tax (Abbott, 2013:30-31).

Political risks also affect the success of offshoring outsourcing. Political risks refer to attitudes towards free market economies, stability of the political system, the relationship with neighbours, security, and attitudes towards western political systems. Low-income countries are affected by political disorder/disaster, frequent changes of government, anti-western political discourse, anti-western sentiment, disputes with neighbouring countries, and internal disputes amongst tribal groups (Abbott, 2013).

As can be seen, debates on outsourcing provide insights for development and leadership into the opportunities and challenges of offshoring outsourcing. This is an indication that there are positive aspects and negative aspects of offshoring. Debates held in the US could serve as an example of how developed nations perceive offshoring. Further, the debates indicate the benefits obtained by developed countries and developing countries when those countries offshore to developing nations. Thus, the impact of offshoring is considered.

The first argument that favours offshore outsourcing is that global competition now has an impact on both services and manufacturing. If an automobile can be manufactured more cheaply in a country such as Ghana, then it should be. (This is because the production costs and labour costs are lower, making economic sense as cost savings will result). Such a venture raises revenue as resources are advantageously dispatched, with increased investment and growth to the exporting nation and consequently, lowers prices in the importing nation. Trade is viewed to be a positive activity (The Economist, 2004). However, the negative aspect of this argument is that millions of manufacturing and technology jobs are transferred to foreign countries (developing countries) where firms are in a position to pay employees far lower wages/salaries (Solheim, 2004).This could be seen as exploitation of the labour force.

The second argument that favours offshoring and outsourcing is that major change is taking place as hundreds of thousands of jobs are transferred to foreign countries. Even though the wages are considered low for these job positions in comparison to American wages, they are considered to be generally more than those offered by local employers in other countries (such as countries in Africa and Asia). Thus, a new middle class is developing in cities previously dominated by inequality. Spending will help grow the economy, which may result in increased salaries and improved conditions of employment (Monbiot, 2004). On the other hand, it has been argued that offshoring will create new employment opportunities in highly paying professions. The US has no ‘comparative advantage’ or ‘superiority in innovation’. At present the US is empowering its competition with the necessary resources to be able to innovate equally as well. Loss of jobs due to offshoring reduces the tax base for the US, results in high unemployment benefit costs, and further increases the cost of government retraining programmes to some extent (Terry, 2004).

The third argument that favours offshoring is that there are new trade restrictions in the US to preserve current jobs. There is no major difference between jobs lost owing to trade and those lost owing to technologies or work processes (Lindsey, 2004). It is painful that job losses occur. However, this must take place in order for the US to achieve innovation and increase in productivity, which is considered the source of new wealth and a means to increasing standards of living (Lindsey, 2004).

However, it has been claimed that the jobs lost owing to offshoring are offset by the millions of American workforce hired by foreign firms to produce new products and services. Notably, most employment opportunities are associated with new investments by foreign companies, which have resulted in the purchasing of US firms, for example, Daimler taking over the Chrysler Company. This resulted in insourcing where 2.78 million US employment opportunities were lost in foreign-owned companies between the years 1991 and 2001 (Scott, 2004).

The offshoring debate is complex to tackle as it has to do with the economic, social and political benefits and losses involved in the transfer of technology and service jobs overseas. Nonetheless, two major concerns arise: how to minimise job losses and how to ensure adequate compensation.

COMMON ERRORS IN OFFSHORING/INTERNATIONAL OUTSOURCING

Despite the fact that offshore outsourcing can be a lucrative business venture, some client firms today do get trapped when they decide to engage in offshoring. Factors such as political, cultural, legal, and economic, among others, influence the outcome of offshoring globally. Semerdjian (2010) mentions several common mistakes client firms make when engaging in offshoring outsourcing. Firstly, organisations may fail to build a complete business proposal, which is vital for this process. Secondly, contracting firms may lack the necessary skills for formulating an outsourcing contract. Thirdly, ineffective change management is yet another mistake. Change management outlines the terms and conditions under which the two parties (client firm and outsourcing vendor) will execute any post-contractual alterations to the contract. Fourthly, client firms also make the mistake of relying heavily on benchmarking. Benchmarking refers to the process of comparing a company's products/services and procedures to those of competitors or leading firms in other industries in order to establish ways in which to improve performance (Kotler & Armstrong, 2006:1).

Mismatching the outsourcer's goals and the outsourcer's capabilities is another error that needs to be considered. The fifth is underestimating the necessity of effective communication. The final two aspects to consider are setting objectives that are not clear and measurable and not addressing business risks.

A client firm needs to be able to clearly define and measure the process and service they are outsourcing, what it involves, how it is conducted and why it is conducted. Client firms thus need to address the following two questions: What do clients demand from the outsourcing firm's international logistics service? And what does the management of a client firm expect from international outsourcing supplier/s? (Supply Chain Management Consulting, 2002). The management personnel of international outsourcing firms should insist that client firms provide detailed descriptions of the services that are to be rendered and as such these need to be clearly indicated in the contract. Negotiations may be professionally done without the motive of putting down one party (that is the outsourcing vendor's team or the client firm's team).

LEGAL ISSUES GOVERNING OFFSHORE OUTSOURCING

Borchert *et al* (2012), in their article 'Policy barriers to international trade in services: evidence from a new database', indicate that little is known about policies that affect global trade in services (including outsourcing). Studies that have been conducted in the past have concentrated on policy commitments conducted in global contracts. The research described a new initiative to gather equivalent data on trade policies for services from 103 nations in a range of service industries and useful methods of service delivery. The study revealed that even though public monopolies are now rare and few, market services are completely closed. Some of the fastest-growing nations in Asia and the oil-rich Gulf States have prohibitive policies in services, while some of the poorest nations are exceptionally open. Across industries, 'professional' and 'transportation' services are among the most protected industries both in industrialised and Third World nations. On the other hand, 'retail', 'telecommunications' and 'finance' are considered to be more or less open.

Bierce (1999) indicates a number of questions to consider when dealing with legal issues of offshoring. The questions aim to investigate tax regulations, permits and licensing, local sovereignty, cross-border considerations, intellectual property, client firm rights, and risk management.

OFFSHORE BUSINESS PROCESSES

It has been acknowledged that there are pressures against offshoring (Smith & McKeen, 2004; Venkatraman, 2004). However, the potential effect of pressures against offshoring on organisational use and the management of offshore services have largely not been evaluated (Lacity *et al*, 2010). India's business process outsourcing (BPO) industry's potential in international outsourcing is evident. It began when Indian entrepreneurs began selling to the US and Europe and became knowledgeable of other prospects, where cheap labour would be a major competitive advantage. Indians were IT aware and they identified many areas where IT could be adopted to shorten the distance between the West and India, with the aim of transferring services offshore to India (Davies, 2006). India has the potential to dominate the international BPO arena, as it has the advantage of cheap labour when compared to First World nations where labour is costly. India serves as an example of the fact that developing and transitional nations can capitalise on offshore outsourcing, if they identify the services they can offer in the international market as outsourcing initiatives.

GLOBAL TRENDS IN OFFSHORING

Africa and other transitional nations such as India, China and Malaysia engage in outsourcing domestically and internationally. It is common to find the offshoring of business processes taking place globally. With reference to the country rankings based on the Global Services Location Index (GSLI) for the year 2011, India continues to dominate as the global leader in outsourcing, followed closely by China and Malaysia respectively (Outsourcing Defined, 2012). Ghana topped the sub-Saharan African countries while Mauritius ranked favourably at 25th position. Ghana's top position was attributed to its strong people skills and a suitable and stable business environment (Kearney, 2009).

The Global Service Location Index (GSLI) 2011 ranks countries based on their attractiveness in terms of IT, BPO and voice-related work. The ranking is based on surveys of 50 countries selected on the basis of corporate input, current remote services activity and government initiatives to promote the outsourcing industry. Furthermore, these countries were tested against 39 measures across the three major categories previously mentioned, namely 'financial attractiveness', 'people skills and availability' and 'business environment' (Outsourcing Defined, 2012). Table 1 provides the Global Service Location Index (GSLI) for the year 2011.

Table 1: Global Service Location Index (GSLI) 2011 (Top twenty countries)

Rank	Country	Financial attractiveness	People skills and availability	Business environment	Total score
1	India	3.11	2.76	1.14	7.01
2	China	2.62	2.55	1.31	6.49
3	Malaysia	2.78	1.38	1.83	5.99
4	Egypt	3.10	1.36	1.35	5.81
5	Indonesia	3.24	1.53	1.01	5.78
6	Mexico	2.68	1.60	1.44	5.72
7	Thailand	3.05	1.38	1.29	5.72
8	Vietnam	3.27	1.19	1.24	5.69
9	Philippines	3.18	1.31	1.16	5.65
10	Chile	2.44	1.27	1.82	5.52
11	Estonia	2.31	0.95	2.24	5.51
12	Brazil	2.02	2.07	1.38	5.48
13	Latvia	2.56	0.93	1.96	5.46
14	Lithuania	2.48	0.93	2.02	5.43
15	United Arab Emirates	2.41	0.94	2.05	5.41
16	United Kingdom	0.91	2.26	2.23	5.41
17	Bulgaria	2.82	0.88	1.67	5.37
18	United States	0.45	2.88	2.01	5.35
19	Costa Rica	2.84	0.94	1.56	5.34
20	Russia	2.48	1.79	1.07	5.34

Source: Outsourcing Defined, 2012

South Africa, Nigeria and Kenya were considered Africa's best investment destinations in 2011 (Insight into Business in Africa, 2012). From the previous literature it is evident that it is possible for African countries to attain returns from offshoring outsourcing by ensuring that Africa is an attractive investment hub for global companies to set up branches. This will not only provide revenue for African countries but, more importantly, skills and technology transfer as well as employment opportunities. Furthermore, according to the latest 2013 Tholons Ranking, eight out of the top 100 outsourcing destinations worldwide are based in Africa (Maining, 2013).

Transitional countries in Africa such as Kenya, Ghana and Rwanda are considered to be at different stages of development with regard to their BPO industries. For instance, in the past, the BPO industry in Kenya was limited by costly and poor communication connectivity, which hindered effective communication to the world. Despite this, the installation of a fibre optic cable in Kenya in 2011 resulted in a boost in the country's status as Africa's best economy (Okongo, 2012). Kenya now also has improved IT infrastructure, political stability and English language capabilities, which are essential in BPO if a country hopes to become a major BPO destination globally (Manning, 2013).

The Internet, according to Nicholas (2012), has made the distance between countries seem shorter. At present more firms in First World countries outsource tasks such as call centre services, preparation of salary payment vouchers, business development, Internet research, data entry and web design work. India has been observed to dominate in providing services to First World nations. This is an indication that developing nations can follow the example of India to try and capitalise on offshore outsourcing. This will create economic and job opportunities in Africa as well as other developing countries.

The potential of India's BPO industry in offshoring outsourcing is evident. This began when Indian entrepreneurs began selling products and services to the US and Europe and became knowledgeable of other prospects where cheap labour would be a major competitive advantage. Indians were knowledgeable of IT and they identified many areas where IT could be useful to shorten the distance between countries in the West and India, with the aim of transferring

services offshore to India (Davies, 2006). India has dominated the international BPO arena, as it has the advantage of cheap labour when compared to First World countries where labour is costly. India serves as an example of the fact that developing countries can capitalise on offshoring if they identify services they can offer in the international market. Sri Lanka, on the other hand, also provides a number of companies and individuals with outsourced services, particularly in the USA, Canada, France and the United Kingdom (UK).

In recent times, offshoring outsourcing has been identified as a multi-billion dollar industry (NASSCOM, 2012) that involves various countries (Gartner News, 2008). In 2008, the list of offshore-providing nations increased to 72 (Gartner News, 2008), where Egypt, South Africa and Morocco were ranked to be in the top 30. Further, South Africa remains a key player in offshore outsourcing in Africa (Bargent, 2012) while countries in North Africa are experiencing challenges in retaining their former popularity due to business uncertainty brought about by recent political activity (The Africa Report, 2012).

A report by Reuters suggests that Africa has an opportunity to grow its BPO sector. The report indicates that intense competition in India's BPO sector has forced a technology firm called Spanco Ltd to expand to Africa where the firm is expecting to make nearly half of its profits in two years. The Chief Executive Officer of Spanco BPO Services, Pravin Kumar, believes that Africa is a solid opportunity for the company owing to its location and similar time zone to its key markets in Europe and the United States in comparison to India. Spanco is to launch its operations specifically in Kenya, Burkina Faso, Tanzania, Chad, Niger and Nigeria. India's BPO industry is currently considered to be worth an estimated $30 billion. Kumar further mentioned that "The BPO industry is completely saturated in India…the benefit of expanding in India is not as much as that of Africa" (Imara Africa Securities Team, 2011). This indicates that there is potential for African countries to expand their offshore BPO sector. India's success in the outsourcing industry, as well as that of many African nations such as South Africa, Egypt, Morocco, Kenya, Ghana and Mauritius, has also motivated the enhancement of outsourcing capabilities in the recent past (Manning, 2013). Ghana, for example, has strategically positioned itself as an attractive BPO destination (Zachary, 2004; Imara Africa Securities Team, 2011).

In South Africa, the Western Cape Province is an offshore outsourcing destination, specifically for the UK and other English-speaking nations. Further, South Africa's offshore BPO market is observed to be relatively small with a contribution of £585m in comparison to India's £10.4bn contribution to the offshore BPO industry, according to the outsourcing trade association Business Process Enabling South Africa (BPeSA) Western Cape (Harris, 2012). This is an indication that the full potential of offshoring in South Africa has not yet been exploited. This provides economic opportunities that can be utilised in the country to increase the gross domestic product as well as job creation.

It is commonly reported that globalisation has created opportunities for transitional countries to become part of a growing global labour market (Shao & David, 2007; Javalgi, Dixit & Scherer, 2009). This has been observed to be particularly common where globalised work consists of adopting information and communication technologies (ICTs), the relatively low cost of investment of which has brought about an increase of industries such as offshore software outsourcing (Friedman, 2005).

The key offshoring destinations in Asia and Africa are favoured by developed and transitional countries owing to the availability of mostly cheap skilled and unskilled labour. According to Sourcing Line (2014), India provides information technology (IT) and business process outsourcing (BPO) services to its key clients, Europe and America. Pakistan offers offshoring services such as software development and information technology services such as medical transcription and call centres (most popular) to the Middle East. Another Asian country is Sri

Lanka which offers software development IT (focused on research and development) and offshoring services to Europe, the USA and India. Malaysia offers knowledge, oil and gas logistics services to Asia and the Middle East. Singapore offers BPO services to Asia and the USA.

On the other hand, three African countries that offer offshoring services include Tunisia, Ghana and South Africa. Tunisia offers IT services to Europe while Ghana offers information communications technology (ICT) and BPO services to Europe, Asia, the USA and India. South Africa, however, offers services to the domestic markets of Eastern Europe, Mexico and Canada. Services rendered by South Africa are IT and BPO. South Africa's BPO sectors are highly involved in telecommunications, insurance, financial services and other outsourced processes that involve web design and development, sales services, human resources, data capture and conversion, benefits administration, and accounting (Sourcing Line, 2014).

Looking at the previous examples of offshoring destinations in Africa and Asia, it is evident that the most commonly offshored services are BPO and IT. The examples also indicate that Asia dominates in offshoring activities in comparison to African countries as there are more Asian countries represented. It is also evident that Tunisia, Ghana and South Africa are the leading African countries as far as offshoring destinations in Africa are concerned. However, Pakistan's most popular outsourced service is call centres. This means call-centre services are services that are commonly outsourced by the Middle East to Pakistan companies. The examples further indicate that Asian countries such as India contract other Asian countries such as Sri Lanka, Singapore and Malaysia to conduct offshore outsourcing. Finally, the leading clients of offshoring are Asia, the USA and Europe. This is an indication that offshoring opportunities can be found in both developed and developing countries, thus promoting foreign direct investment (FDI).

CONCLUSION

Outsourcing domestically or internationally is an activity that involves the complex combination of logistics, investing, contract negotiation and management. Emerging outsourcing trends are an indication of the continuation and deepening of new business strategies that promote foreign direct investment (FDI). FDI by multinational companies is one of the most appropriate means to promote private sector growth and a good way to reduce poverty in developing countries. First World countries are now depending on developing countries to manufacture goods and provide services.

Many have failed to see the larger impact of offshoring jobs; that the first to benefit from offshore outsourcing is the contracting firm, which indicates that their nation's economy benefits as well. Furthermore, the reduced cost of production encountered by the client firms is transferred to its consumers as products are more affordable. This allows increased purchasing by customers. When jobs are offshore they are transferred, not lost. Offshoring also facilitates in fostering development in the developing nation through taxes paid by foreign firms. It is, however, vital that employment opportunities be created for citizens in developed countries. This could be done through providing some jobs opportunities in multinational companies that choose to establish branches in developing countries. This will create a win-win environment for both developing countries and developed countries.

Offshoring can be viewed to be a favorable or unfavorable business practice: it all depends on the perspective in which it is examined. The following are factors to be considered: Loss of jobs and creation of jobs in developing countries; creation of economic activity in developing countries; transfer of knowledge and technology; and understanding the global offshoring environment and factors that influence the successful offshoring environment.

Offshoring is a complex business strategy as it entails outsourcing companies that outsource to foreign companies or those outsourcing firms that begin branches in other countries. Further, in some situations some outsourcing firms sub-contract other companies to fulfil their contractual requirements and to ensure they deliver to the client firm's expectations. Factors such as political, cultural, legal, and economic, among others, influence the outcome of offshoring globally.

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EXIT DIMENSIONS OF LOW ENTREPRENEURIAL START-UP OF BUSINESS VENTURES AMONG GRADUATES IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

This study on the low entrepreneurial start-up of business ventures among Nigerian graduates is based on the theory of planned behaviour. The study sought to understand the dimensions of dysfunctional aptitude towards new venture creation among graduates with a high number collegiate entrepreneurship courses. The study used convenience sampling technique by adopting a whole contact class survey of graduating accounting students in a public university. Descriptive statistics and factor analytical techniques were used to analyse the data. The results identified factors beyond the classroom environment and further indexed the variance among the noted factors. There are some recommendations with possible policy implications.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship education; new venture start-up; entrepreneurial intention.

INTRODUCTION

The ennobling role of entrepreneurship in the national economy has been well-documented in the literature (Romer, 1994; Zahra, 1999). This role includes its recognition as a veritable alternative to growing global youth unemployment (Gelard & Saleh, 2010). Nigeria as a nation has a high youth unemployment rate. Recent figures from the National Bureau of Statistics showed as high as a 54 per cent youth unemployment rate. Evidently, unemployment presents enormous developmental challenges (Awogbenle & Iwuamadi, 2010).

Certainly, the societal shift from "managed" economy to an "entrepreneurial" society (Audretsh, 2001) with the inherent benefits has been noted as instrumental to the motivation of nations and nationals to pursue entrepreneurial endeavours (Chowdhurry, 2007). Despite the growing enthusiasm, the global total entrepreneurship activity is low (Linan, Rodriguez-Cohard & Renda-Cantuche, 2011). Reasons given include a lack of supportive environment, fear, lack of finance capital and a glass ceiling for would-be women entrepreneurs, among others. In an attempt to understand the determinants of individuals' decision to pursue entrepreneurship, studies including those of Hao, Siebert and Lumpkin (2010); Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud (2000); and Autio, Keeley, Klofsten, Parker and Gray (2001) have been undertaken. These studies suggest an enterprising future trend of entrepreneurship and identify students as potential drivers. Evidence shows a strong correlation between educated entrepreneurs and higher firm productivity (Anderson & Eshima, 2013; Van der Sluis, Parag & Vijverberg, 2003). If earlier studies had been conducted in developed economies, the 2014 World Bank study on three African countries of Ghana, Kenya and Mozambique has demonstrated the universality of this claim, underscoring the inroad of entrepreneurship courses into classrooms. Entrepreneurial training is seen as a foundation for generating entrepreneurial intention capable of enabling business start-ups among students.

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Entrepreneurship is a compulsory teaching subject in Nigerian universities. It is included among the "minimum benchmark" subjects by the National Universities Commission (NUC), the regulatory agency. It is believed to have been first taught as an academic discipline in 1947 to MBA students of Harvard (Blackford, Sabora & Whitehill, 2009). The aim is to encourage entrepreneurial intention among these students. Understanding and encouraging the entrepreneurship intentions of students are within the dynamics of the entrepreneurship domain. Bird (1988) defines entrepreneurial intention as the anticipated and planned creation of a business venture and the desire to become an entrepreneur. The policy shift to mainstreaming entrepreneurship education at the university level is expected to encourage the capacity for business start-ups among the students upon graduation. But, evidence from Nigerian youth unemployment does not align with this expectation. With a youth (15-35 years) population of about 40 per cent to the entire population (NBS, 2012), 20 per cent of youth unemployment comes from graduates of tertiary institutions (NISER, 2013). Leaning in this direction, Kale and Doguwa (2015) believe "…the problem of unemployment is more prevalent among the 15-24 and 25-34 age groups which in Q4 2014 registered unemployment rates of 11.7 and 6.9 per cent respectively. These rates are higher than the national rate of 6.4 per cent recorded in the quarter." Since information on graduate business startups was not available, we assumed the information on youth unemployment to indicate the low entrepreneurial startup among the study interest group. But, do students in core business decision science such as accounting display such tendencies? This is what motivated this study. The result of the study could give further insight into the impact of formal education on entrepreneurship described as problematic by Chell and Allman (2003). To achieve this, the following objectives were set:

i. to identify the demographic characteristics of the respondents;
ii. to analyse the entrepreneurial start-up interest dispositions among the respondents; and
iii. to analyse the underlying dimensions of new venture start up interests.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The inability of researchers to agree on a common definition of entrepreneurship has created confusion and a large number of interested parties in the entrepreneurship domain (Fiet, 2000; Thomas & Muller, 2000). This pre-paradigm (Kuhn, 1962) nature of entrepreneurship has polarised its domain, thereby fragmenting research endeavours. Expectedly, entrepreneurial training programmes and education have been influenced in a negative manner (Garavan & Ocinneide, 1994). The typologies of entrepreneurship motivation factors into the pull and push influences (Zahra, 1993) have further blurred the understanding of entrepreneurship. The pull factors are those positives which include the desire for independence, the desire to exploit opportunity, financial autonomy, family security and education. The push factors include redundancy, frustration, deployment, job dissatisfaction, divorce, and unemployment or the threat of it, among others. Entrepreneurship can thus be defined as a process of initiating, managing and sustaining a business concern.

Entrepreneurial action is behavioural (Kruegar, Reilly & Carsrud, 2000) and the literature is rich in intention theories (Bandura, 1986; Shapero & Sokol, 1982; Reitan, 1996). It takes a process to think of and initiate a business enterprise through the creation of mental maps within a given environment. This process captures the service/product to be served, resources needed, benefits derivable as well as the challenges involved in the process. The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), for example, identified three predictors of intention. It postulates that the intention to start a business enterprise depends on the personal attitude (desirability), the social acceptability to a normative reference group (subjective norms) and the perceived feasibility of actually becoming an entrepreneur. The more favourable these predictors are, the greater the intention to engage in entrepreneurial endeavours, the theory explains. The attitude (self-

efficiency) refers to the extent to which the individual feels capable of initiating and managing an entrepreneurial venture. The subjective norms represent the societal, family and peer group acceptance of the person's entrepreneurship environment. The Bandura's social learning theory earlier cited establishes the influence of environment on behaviour, focusing on the concepts of reinforcement and observation. In entrepreneurship, it could be inferred that a previous encounter with entrepreneurs or entrepreneurial training could influence such behaviour. Shapero and Sokol (1982) in their entrepreneurship event model queue along the entrepreneurial intention path. The model believes an individual usually has an inertia which guides behaviour until displaced by an event. Such displacement, it is believed, comes with a capacity to initiate a 'start-up' in the entrepreneurship environment. Fusing the entrepreneurial event model with the planned behaviour theory, Reitan (1996) introduced variables including perceived future family commitment, employment, emigration, and tested over short, medium and long term intentions to start a business venture.

Empirically, the entrepreneurship intention models have been tested by researchers including Gibson, Harris and Barber (2008); Ali, Topping and Tariq (2010); and Zain, Akram and Ghani (2010) in Brazil, Pakistan and Malaysia respectively and other researchers including Ferreira, Raposo, Rodrigues, Dinis and Paco (2012) and Gerba (2012) have successfully linked entrepreneurial intention with formal education.

METHOD

The survey method was adopted where sixty-seven copies of a questionnaire were distributed to final-year accounting students of a university in Nigeria. The choice was based on the fact that accounting as an academic discipline emphasises business in its philosophy and the respondents were assumed to fully comprehend issues pertaining to entrepreneurship training. All the distributed copies of the questionnaire were returned and used for the analysis. Before then, a content analysis of a class assignment had identified eight major factors of low entrepreneurial start-up in Nigeria. The assignment had asked for major factors negatively influencing business venture start-up among youths in Nigeria. The eight identified factors as indicated in Table 3 are a lack of self-motivation, lack of vision, negative parental influence, false idea from friends, corruption, fear of public opinion, belief that business is a career for the less-educated and inadequate starting capital. Frequency count and factor analysis were statistical analysing tools used in this research.

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

Table 1: The demographic characteristics of the students

Item	Demographic variables	Frequency	Per cent
1	**Age range**		
	22 years and below	26	33.8
	Above 23 years	41	61.2
2	**Gender**		
	Male	38	56.7
	Female	29	43.3
3	**Are you currently involved in any business activity?**		
	Yes	13	19.4
	No	54	80.6
4	**Are your parents currently self-employed?**		
	Yes	39	58.2
	No	28	41.8

Source: Field survey, 2013

A sample of 67 respondents was studied of whom 57 per cent were males. Respondents of 22 years and above constituted the majority of 61.2 per cent with the remaining 33.8 per cent representing respondents of 22 years of age and below. Perhaps, a reminder that the minimum entry age into the Nigerian university is 16 years and Accounting which constituted the study interest area is a four-year course with six years as maximum. Certainly at 22 years, a respondent who entered the university at the minimum age would have graduated in the maximum permissible sixth year. Herein is the interest of 22 years as the benchmark. The study revealed that only 19.4 per cent of respondents were combining their studies with some kind of business endeavour with an overwhelming 80.6 per cent not being involved in any kind of business. Thirty-nine of the respondents were from parents with a business background. Studies including that of Lankard (1955) show parents-child future career path relationships. The information on Table 1 was essentially to examine the demographic characteristics of the respondents, ascertain business background and influence, recognising the fact that favourable perceptions alone may not necessarily lead to intention.

Table 2: Analysis of entrepreneurial start-up interest dispositions

		SD	DA	S	A	SA
1	Starting my own business sounds attractive to me.	11.9	0.0	3.0	1.5	83.6
2	I personally consider entrepreneurship to be a highly desirable career alternative for people with my education.	9.0	1.5	11.9	11.9	65.7
3	I would rather found a new company than be the manager of an existing one.	11.9	7.5	11.9	19.4	49.3
4	In business, it is preferable to be an entrepreneur, rather than a large firm employee.	4.5	1.5	14.9	9.0	70.1
5	In my university, there is a well-functioning support infrastructure to support the start-up of new firms.	43.3	13.4	19.4	10.4	13.4

Source: Field survey, 2013

Note: SD= Strongly disagree, DA= Disagree, S= Seldom, A=Agree and SA= Strongly agree

On a five-point Likert scale, most respondents broadly aligned with the ennobling role of entrepreneurship and becoming entrepreneurs. A total of 43.3 per cent of respondents strongly disagreed with the opinion that the university was providing a well-functioning infrastructure support for start-ups, 13.4 per cent disagreed, 10.4 per cent agreed, 13.4 per cent strongly agreed and 19.4 per cent were undecided. The information on Table 2 was the pattern of testing the adequacy of the entrepreneurship content and teaching since it is a major variable of the study.

Table 3: Prominent underlying factors of entrepreneurship start-up interest

s/n	Component (A)	Extraction index (B)	Loading index			
			Factor 1:	Factor 2:	Factor 3:	Factor 4:
1	Poor self-motivation	0.705	0.832			
2	Lack of vision	0.569	0.715			
3	Negative parental influence	0.622		0.706		
4	Fear of corruption	0.722		0.721		
5	False idea from friends	0.591		0.716		
6	Fear of public opinion	0.772			0.802	
7	Business is for the less educated	0.776			0.837	
8	Inadequate starting capital	0.714				0.782
	Initial eigenvalues		2.201	1.755	1.263	1.053
	% of variance		22.007	17.552	12.634	10.533
	Cumulative %		22.007	39.559	52.192	62.725
	Extraction Method: Principal component analysis					

Source: Field survey, 2013

The dimensions surrounding low entrepreneurial start-ups among the respondents were ascertained using factor analytical procedure, with the aid of the principal component analysis. Table 3 column B shows the communalities extraction index, which portrayed the extent of interrelationship between each of the eight identified factors responsible for low entrepreneurial start-ups. Communality explanation of item 2 (0.569) and item 5 (0.591) accounted for the relatively lowest variations in the factor matrix. A minimum eigen criterion (0.559) equal to or greater than one (≥1) was then applied to determine the basic underlying dimension of the correlation matrix of constraints. The eight factors earlier identified significantly realign themselves into four mutually exclusive and independent salient factors or dimensions of low entrepreneurial start-ups (Table 3). The resultant factors thus suggested the following indicants:

Factor 1: Low need for achievement; factor 2: Cultural influence; factor 3: Low self-esteem of entrepreneurship career; and factor 4: Finance capital, thus collaborating earlier works including those of Collins, Hanges and Locke (2004); Callaghan and Venter (2011); Laguna (2013); Anyanwu (2004) and Moses and Adebisi (2013).

The order of percentage of variance as shown in Table 3 depicts the relative decreasing order of the magnitude of the identified significant underlying factors. Each magnitude suggests the amount of change the underlying dimensions can induce if a systematic approach is deployed in the business start-up decision of the respondents. And, should there be a holistic intervention programme to solve factor 1, the percentage variance suggests a likely 22 per cent reduction of low entrepreneurial start-ups and factor 2 would likely lead to a 17.55 per cent reduction. In similar trend, factor 3 and 4 would statistically guarantee 12.63 per cent and 10.53 per cent likelihood change respectively. Generally, the programmatic solutions can be addressed by each factor loading or in combination. Collectively, the factor loadings significantly identified exit strategic precursors that can statistically reduce the low start up situation by 62 per cent, implying 38 per cent of the undesirable situation is yet unidentified. Thus, this study considered the identified dimensions as overtly observed attributes and the unidentified factor as inert attributes of the trainees.

LIMITATIONS AND AREA FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study utilised a small convenient sample of one department in an institution and there was no departmental or regional comparison. Notwithstanding the above, the result cannot be invalidated and there is a provision of a base for further examination. Further research may be directed at the start-up response rate along departmental and regional bases.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Entrepreneurship training plays a vital role in the sensitising the mindset but this alone cannot deliver the creation of the needed business start-ups. Societal factors as grouped into four categories of low need for achievement, cultural influence, low self-esteem for entrepreneurship career as well as finance capital are issues of joint attention for expected outcome. Simultaneous holistic attention of the identified factors alongside entrepreneurship training remains the feasible exit dimension to the low business start-ups by graduates of Nigerian universities. It is even more encouraging now given the entrepreneurship enthusiasm index of Nigeria among her African counterparts as captured in the 2013 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor Report. In the factor-driven economies of eight studied African countries, Nigeria came fourth at 16.3 points. Uganda, which took the first position, scored 15.0 against Angola which was placed eighth at 67.7. Others were South Africa, 27.3; Ghana, 24.6; Botswana, 18.6; Zambia scored 15.4 and Malawi, 15.1 points. Certainly, entrepreneurship can thrive in Nigeria if given adequate attention. Based on the above, the following suggestions are recommended:

- The general public should be sensitised to the positives of entrepreneurship;
- A pool of funds should be made available for interested entrants into entrepreneurial endeavours;
- The general public and students should be consistently sensitised to the dwindling school-to-job opportunities;
- Entrepreneurship as a compulsory teaching discipline should continue; and
- Better enabling business environment should be canvassed through policies and programmes.

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CONSIDERATIONS FOR TEACHING PRACTICES IN DEVELOPING ECONOMIES: MANGOSUTHU UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY IN SOUTH AFRICA AND THE DILI INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY IN TIMOR-LESTE

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ABSTRACT

Mangosuthu University of Technology (MUT) and the Dili Institute of Technology (DIT) are universities of technology in developing economies with students from educationally disadvantaged backgrounds. Both organisations aim to deliver educational programmes that are locally relevant and meet international standards. This article identifies the teaching challenges that they face trying to achieve this goal. It reviews issues identified by theorists, comparing them to those identified by academic staff within these institutions. It concludes with a brief discussion of some recommendations that have been made and solutions other organisations have used to strengthen their capabilities in this area.

Keywords: Tertiary education; teaching practices; developing economies.

INTRODUCTION

The two organisations that are the focus of this study are not-for-profit higher education institutions (HEI) in Timor-Leste and South Africa. Both countries are classified as developing economies. Both organisations aim to produce graduates whose education is locally relevant and who meet international standards of education. This article examines the various teaching challenges that the organisations are facing as they try to establish themselves as significant teaching and learning organisations.

To create a context for this study the article provides an overview of current literature. The overview identifies the teaching challenges for HEIs in developing economies as articulated by academics and theorists. The article then goes on to identify, through structured interviews with the staff from both organisations, the typical challenges that the teaching staff have encountered and the various impediments that have arisen that militate against good teaching practices. It measures these views against the literature review and identifies new issues that have been raised.

Theoretical framework

Definitions

This article adopts the following definition for higher education institutions:

- **Higher education institutions (HEIs)** are tertiary educational institutions with degree-awarding legal status. They include universities and other forms of tertiary institutes (Materu, 2007:26). Although noting that there is some discussion and controversy around defining and categorising countries into developing economies, the article will not attempt to argue a particular position but will reference the following definition:

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- **Developing countries/economies** are countries in which the bulk of the population exist on considerably smaller incomes and with far fewer basic public services than those of industrialised countries (The World Bank, 2012).

Literature review – Challenges for teaching practices in a developing or emerging economy

Rita van Deuren from the Maastricht School of Management comments on the paucity of research on higher education institutions in developing countries (Van Deuren, 2013:2). Although this is true, some commentary exists on challenges that staff in HEIs in developing countries face as they attempt to pursue good teaching practices. In addition, a number of challenges faced by academics in developed countries have relevance for and are sometimes aggravated in developing countries. What follows is a summary of these issues as mentioned by various theorists and practitioners.

A Ugandan case study identified a number of challenges faced by HEI academic staff. It identified lack of availability and unsuitability of infrastructure as a challenge. Comments included "Libraries are not modern; they are too small for the number of students and not well stocked, a majority of the books being out-of-date… lecture rooms are too small for the number of students and insufficient seats." A further challenge that was identified was that of information technology (IT) accessibility. In fact, it was noted that a category of students had done IT as a course theoretically for a whole year and in that time had not touched a computer. The study also spoke of the challenge associated with students' lack of preparedness for university. In particular it pointed to "secondary education that does not adequately prepare them for higher education". Finally, it brought up the challenge of student poverty and noted that peasants were selling off land, their only asset, to pay for their children's education (Bunoti, 2011:3-5).

A synthesis report for the Africa-U.S. Higher Education Initiative commented on the issue of "outdated curricula" and programmes of study that do not "match labour market requirements, causing concern about the relevance of curricula and the effectiveness of preparing students for the employment market" (Yizengaw, 2008:8). Other commentators speak of increasing workloads and worsening staff-to-student ratios (Saint, Harnett & Strasser, 2003:273), an increasing bureaucratisation of institutions with consequent disenfranchising of academics in favour of managers and bureaucrats (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2009:93) and government interference that undermines institutional autonomy and academic freedom (Akor, 2009).

A major challenge that has existed for more than ten years and continues to plague teaching staff in developed and developing economies is the pressure that they are under to be prolific researchers. In 2003 the prioritisation of research over teaching and "the failure of institutions worldwide to really value teaching" was being hotly debated (Jenkins, 2003). Although a number of scholars have argued that research informs and strengthens undergraduate teaching this debate is still not resolved; "…potential synergies exist between faculty research and undergraduate teaching, but empirical studies clearly show that the existing linkage is weak" (Prince, Felder & Brent, 2007:290).

In 2009 there was still considerable discussion around the tension between the three missions of the university, namely teaching, research and public service (Altbach *et al*, 2009: xvi, 129). And commentators in 2013 mention the tendency by HEIs and government departments of education to pressure staff towards subject specialisation and research rather than support them in improving training in teaching or building teaching skills (Cashmore, Cane & Cane, 2013:22-23). In that year, however, the UK Minister of State (universities and science) spoke about redressing the balance with regard to the tendency to prioritise research over teaching because "…that is

where the funding and prestige came from, and where the competition was strongest" (Willits, 2013:36).

Similarly, in Australia an emerging trend for HEIs to appoint only teaching staff on the understanding that this increased teaching productivity was identified. But, the article asserts, they still only make up 10 per cent of the academic workforce (Probert, 2014). Most HEIs in the developing world have as their objective the need to graduate skilled professionals to address social and economic upliftment (UNESCO Media Services, 2014). Also as noted above, their entry-level students have an educational deficit and staff-to-student ratios are worsening. It is reasonable to assume that the onerous teaching workload that this gives rise to would make the pressure to research be felt as an extra hardship.

CONTEXT

Educational context

South Africa

The population of South Africa is estimated at 52,914,243 (World Population Review, 2014). It achieved independence from apartheid rule on 27 April 1994 (The Telegraph, 2014). South Africa has 23 HEIs of which six are universities of technology (Higher Education South Africa, 2012). Two new universities have commenced student intake this year (Polity.org.za, 2014). In 2012 the state subsidy for higher education as a percentage of budget was 1.97 per cent (Higher Education South Africa, 2012).

Timor-Leste

The population of Timor-Leste is estimated at 1,141,462 (World Population Review, 2014). It achieved independence from Indonesian occupation on 20 May 2002 (The Daily Telegraph, 2012). Timor-Leste has nine accredited HEIs and two with provisional accreditation (Agência Nacional para a Avaliação e Acreditação Academica [ANAAA], 2013). In 2011 the tertiary education budget as a percentage of total government expenditure was 1.92 per cent (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2011).

Organisations' context and composition

MUT

MUT describes its core purpose as:

> *To contribute to the advancement of vocation-based education and training that will enhance the country's skills and competitiveness for the development of humanity. The needs of the community and the RDP are a central focus in all programmes the university undertakes* (Mangosuthu University of Technology, 2014).

Teaching began in 1979 at the newly created Mangosuthu Technikon. It was renamed Mangosuthu University of Technology in 2007 and offers degree and diploma qualifications (Mangosuthu University of Technology, 2014). The Institution has had an average student population over the last three years of 10 500 (MUT, 2014) and has 197 academic staff and 330 support staff (MUT, 2014). It offers its qualifications in faculties of Engineering, Management Sciences and Natural Sciences (Mangosuthu University of Technology, 2014).

DIT

The DIT describes its purpose as:

> *…committed to general education and training that will assist in skilling the nation in technical and business areas, building a workforce capable of meeting the demands of the private, public and community sectors in East Timor* (Dili Institute of Technology, 2012).

The institution was founded in 2002 directly after Timor-Leste won independence. It has a student population of 2868 and 145 academic staff and 57 support staff (Director Quality Assurance Unit, DIT, 2014). It offers degrees in Petroleum Studies, Tourism and Hospitality, Engineering and Science, and Business and Management. There are also two vocational training programmes in Building Construction and Automotive Engineering (Director Quality Assurance Unit, DIT, 2014).

RESEARCH INTO CONSIDERATIONS FOR TEACHING PRACTICES

Investigative process

A number of staff members in each institution currently engaged primarily in teaching were approached to participate in this study. The aim was to have at least eight staff members from each institution participate. There were no other criteria applied to the selection of participants in South Africa beyond a willingness to participate and active involvement in university teaching. These criteria also applied for the selection of participants in Timor-Leste with the additional requirement that they have a sufficient level of English to understand the questions asked, respond to them and provide informed consent. The researchers undertook an overview of the literature and compiled a summary of main issues identified as challenges or impedimenta to good teaching practices. This was supplied as an aide de memoire to the participants prior to the interview. The participants were also informed of the two questions that would be asked of them during the interview. The particular form of the questions was as follows:

"The attached Aide de Memoir has a list of issues that other researchers and theorists have found in their investigation of Teaching and Learning Practices in Tertiary Organisations in Developing Economies.

1. Are any of these issues relevant to you and your situation or your institution?
2. Are there any other issues not already discussed that challenge you in your teaching practice?"

All of the eight staff members at MUT who were initially approached agreed to be interviewed. Similarly all eight staff members who were initially approached at DIT agreed to participate. However, in the end, owing to English language skill levels, three staff members of DIT on the original list had to be substituted by three others.

The interviews were conducted and the questionnaires filled in. Respondents were encouraged to start the interview process by asking questions about the nature and purpose of the study or reflecting on how they had approached the exercise. This was done to encourage them to gain confidence in the interviewer and the procedure. Once they were perceived to be comfortable they were asked to address the questions. Interviewees were encouraged to speak more broadly and extensively to the concerns that they identified.

The interviewers' notes were written up and returned to the interviewees who were invited to comment on the accuracy or otherwise of the notes. The notes were then returned to the interviewer, amended if and as requested, and the final copy was returned to the interviewee. Consent was obtained for the publication of the information.

Analysis

Once the answers were transcribed they were coded and went through two steps of comparison. In the first instance the information was compared against the issues that had already been identified in the literature overview. The intention was to distinguish between those concerns that the researchers and theorists had identified that held true for the organisations under consideration and those that interviewees felt were irrelevant. In the second instance new issues identified by the interviewees that had not been uncovered in the literature review were examined and compared across institutions. The richer insights gained from encouraging the interviewees to expatiate on their understanding of why and how these issues arose was included in the discussion to provide useful context for evaluating future proposed solutions.

Results

Similar to the Ugandan study referenced above all 16 respondents responded that entry-level students were poorly prepared for university. They asserted that they needed to teach at basic level, laying foundations that should have been laid in school before they could introduce university level learning. In exploring this issue, more than half of the respondents spoke of the inadequacy of maths, science and language skills. A particular mention was made of students being encouraged to take maths literacy because it was easier for teachers in school to teach. This resulted in students entering university unable to cope with maths- related subjects. Students were identified as struggling with reasoning skills and sequential thinking and being 'passive learners' who did not interact in class or visit the library. They were characterised as unwilling to engage with lecturers and class content and lacking in confidence. Some respondents from MUT spoke of an extra year being added to study programmes to allow additional teaching for those students who failed to make entrance requirements but decried this as inadequate and said that it failed to address knowledge deficits.

The second issue that was universally commented on and that accorded with the commentators cited above was workload balance. In part this was seen as a result of the issue already identified, namely that the lack of preparedness of students for university required a greater degree of support from the academic staff. But a new theme that was introduced was the notion that as MUT and DIT are still developing and refining their systems, the degree of administrative and bureaucratic tasks that academic staff, especially senior academic staff, are required to undertake is considerable. DIT staff also mentioned that senior staff held down more than one full time position e.g. a full time Director role and a full time lecturing position and that this was in addition to participating in extra- curricular activities. The amount of time needed to deal with the other responsibilities and administration left very little time to identify and support 'at risk' students, keep up with latest developments in their fields, and review and update lecture materials. Quite a few respondents commented that they know of lecturers who use old and out-dated notes for their lectures.

Another issue that was identified in the literature and that resonated with the respondents was the preference of research over teaching. The general consensus was that although teaching expertise was constantly being promoted as a desirable goal, the real rewards for academics attached to greater subject specialisation and research productivity. The respondents felt that it was expected that the qualification goal for an academic was a PhD and that they would be prolific in conference presentations and publications. This they felt pressurised them in turn to prioritise research over teaching activities. They also felt that there was little in terms of coordinated support and training to help them become more effective teachers. Most acknowledged that they taught and lectured in the same way that they had been taught and lectured to. Some of them

revealed that the only guidance they had obtained was when, as new lecturers, they had attached themselves to more senior lecturers and learnt through observation. They also identified that although there was a lot of pressure to conduct research, very little of the research was done into teaching methods and practices and so there was very little innovation and change in teaching.

Again in concert with the commentators previously cited, all staff also raised the issue of class sizes and worsening staff-to-student ratios. They observed that the student numbers had grown and now classes were 'unmanageably' large. The unwieldy size of the classes meant that staff sometimes lost control of the class. Students became disruptive and would not answer questions posed to them by the lecturer but rather would talk amongst themselves. The number of students also made it difficult to set frequent assessments and provide students with prompt and individualised feedback.

Curriculum development was recognised as a major challenge. Staff either commented on the onerous amount of work and convoluted process that curriculum revision had to work through or they commented on the length of the development cycles. Both issues were thought to create a situation where the course content was never entirely up to date. Instead the material delivered was seen as lagging behind current theory and practice. There was also some comment on the development of what was thought to be elaborate syllabi with extensive and unnecessary content. There was further comment on the fact that the subjects included in the curriculum had more reference to the lecturers' own strengths rather than being reflective of the students', university, industry, or country needs and that there was very little practical learning built into the subjects.

Most of the respondents also agreed that the commentators had been correct to raise the issue of student poverty and the impact that this had. They recognised the financial pressures on students and mentioned that student fees were an issue. Some students are self-supporting and need to work to pay fees. Others are expected to help out at home or on the farm. Students' ability to acquire study materials was seen as a problem as were their poor living conditions. Some staff stated that literacy levels of parents and their understanding of studying and what it entailed were also problematic. Students received little sympathy or support from home. There was no time afforded them to study or do homework, and they did not learn the 'habit of reading' from home. A large number of students were also identified as lacking in motivation.

They also agreed with the commentators on the issue of the lack of availability and the unsuitability of infrastructure. One issue was inappropriate venues, designed for smaller numbers of students that are now obliged to accommodate much bigger classes. Another, the way in which staff are obliged to compete to book the limited number of suitable rooms for test and examination venues. Another, the fact that not all staff from the same department are co-located and students wander around the campus looking for staff members. And finally, the poorly equipped library and laboratory facilities.

Access to IT was seen as a further hindrance to teaching. More than half of the staff interviewed mentioned the poor experiences that they have had with regard to the availability and reliability of IT. This was brought up as an issue for them both in terms of its failing to support them in keeping up to date with the latest teaching practices and methodologies, and in terms of its ineffectiveness as a teaching tool.

In addition to the challenges identified above, a set of issues was raised that had not been discovered in the literature review but which at a generic level both institutions experienced as a challenge. In some instances the specific experiences of these issues differed. These issues are discussed below.

A few staff referred to institutional policies as creating an environment that dis-incentivised staff to improve their teaching practices. They observed that frequently decisions were made for management reasons and implemented by a bureaucratic process. The trimester system at DIT was mentioned as causing a doubling of the burden of administration and leaving students with little time to consolidate their learning. At MUT the semester system was discussed as a hindrance to being able to alter the pace of teaching to suit the student entry-level skills. It was felt that an annual course allowed the lecturer to start at a slower pace and then to accelerate the pace at the latter part of the year as the students acquired more skill and facility. A semesterised or trimesterised system did not allow for this. Staff at MUT also mentioned the inability of the institution to manage and control student riots. The loss of teaching time from protracted demonstrations and strikes was never adequately made up. Staff from both institutions also indicated that one issue was not the lack of institutional policies as much as the failure to implement them appropriately.

Interviewees brought up government policies as hurdles to be overcome. For DIT the new prescription by government that instruction to students be in either Tetun or Portuguese has, they say, created an unfortunate situation. Most staff are only fluent in Bahasa. Students speak Tetun but the language lacks a sufficiently extensive vocabulary to be used in technical or scientific study. Employers demand English. Lecturers are currently being forced to undertake Portuguese language training for two hours three times a week. This impacts on their available teaching hours and they still are not able to attain sufficient fluency in Portuguese to teach in that language. Government was also said to 'prescribe to universities at an inappropriate level of micromanagement'. This was seen as problematic, particularly in the areas of curriculum development, credit attribution, career regimes and an accrediting agency that was not independent but an arm of government.

Another issue that was remarked on was the difficulty of getting work experience for students. With large numbers of students to support, placement and supervision becomes a problem. The opportunity to have meaningful interactions with industry either to secure job placements or to assist with providing expert advice on curriculum development is limited.

Human resources issues that staff identified related to recruitment and support practices. The first of these was that lecturers were frequently recruited straight out of university and were very young with no teaching experience or competence. Staff felt that the institutions themselves did not have well-structured programmes to address this. They were also of the opinion that the pressure for staff to upgrade their qualifications led to some of them departing temporarily on study programmes. This put the institutions under great pressure to backfill these positions and not always with the most skilled or appropriate persons. Salaries were seen to be low and not able to compete to attract talent to the university sector.

Time management was another consideration raised by the interviewees. Students were frequently late at the start of the term and late to lectures. This again made it difficult for lecturers to go through the material at a reasonable pace. Timetabling exacerbated this. Free periods of lecturers and students were not matched so there is little or no interaction outside the classroom.

Staff also observed that the poor quality of student performance also leads to lecturers setting multiple tests and assignments to qualify students for entry to the examinations. These extra tasks increase the workload on the lecturer.

Some staff were identified as 'inappropriately qualified'. The necessity to obtain higher qualifications and meet the employment contract requirements leads staff to specialise sometimes in unrelated areas e.g. acquiring an MBA to teach Financial Accounting.

A further issue was identified by the DIT but was not brought up by MUT. For DIT students, the language in which the textbooks are written was also a difficulty. Most accessible texts are in Bahasa. Most students are not fluent in Bahasa and this was identified as a problem.

SUMMARY

An examination of the feedback revealed that all of the issues identified in the literature review were validated by the experiences of all or most of the 16 staff that were interviewed.

All 16 agreed that, notwithstanding the fact that teaching was recognised as the primary business of their organisations, in reality a research imperative existed for all academics. They also stressed that there was more of an emphasis on subject specialisation rather than training in teaching or support for building teaching skills. Furthermore, they asserted that students were ill prepared for university by the secondary schools.

All respondents raised the distribution of work effort, workload and class sizes as issues. And all commented on the large amounts of administration that made it difficult to accord teaching responsibilities sufficient time and effort. The class sizes and staff-to-student ratios were also seen as hampering efforts in student support and work placements.

Also, all agreed that the curriculum development process was too difficult and inefficient.

Beyond these four issues where there was general concurrence, the rest of the issues identified in the literature review were supported by most of the staff interviewed. These included:

- inadequate infrastructure and facilities;
- poor IT access and reliability;
- student poverty; and
- the issue of institutional and government policies and bureaucratic processes.

New insights, however, were added to this list. The respondents had in common challenges with:

- recruiting under-qualified and inexperienced staff;
- inadequate teacher training programmes and teaching support;
- the students' typical home background of 'uneducated parents' and no 'reading habit';
- poor time management of students and timetabling;
- having to duplicate assessment work to enable students to qualify for examinations;
- the question of 'inappropriately qualified' staff; and
- the difficulty of teaching in the non-native tongue of the learner.

DIT staff also raised the issue of

- the lack of study materials in local languages.

Some of the issues noted above are more taxing for HEIs in developing economies for reasons such as a restricted resource pool from which to recruit staff, relatively new and inexperienced government education departments and ministries that are themselves learning the appropriate balance between control and independence, and students who come from severely financially and educationally disadvantaged backgrounds. A fair number of them, however, are similar to issues with which other institutions in developed countries are grappling and have grappled in the past.

CONCLUSION

Van Deuren, analysing the work done by the World Bank and Ashcroft and Raynor, suggests that for HEIs to function effectively and efficiently in a developing economy, they need to develop the following characteristics:

- A diversified HE system with a variety of institutions, each uniquely contributing to the country's needs and missions;
- A national qualification framework with well-defined standards for programmes, institutions and student progression;
- Collaboration between HEIs and linkages within educational sectors;
- Sustainable funding to enable development and execution of plans for improved performance;
- Performance improvement through competition between similar institutions for students and staff;
- Flexibility and adaptability to levels of enrolment and labour market demands;
- Insulation from political manipulation and political interests with a supportive legal and regulatory structure; and
- State involvement at a remove so that alternative structures deal with quality control, performance monitoring, policy development, training, and funding (Van Deuren, 2013:71-72).

It could also be argued that good practices from particularly vocationally and technically focused HEIs in developed countries could be used to good effect to strengthen teaching capabilities.

These could include the following:

- Appointing senior personnel dedicated to the cause of teaching and learning (Aukland University of Technology, 2014);
- Defining teaching and learning strategies and plans (Swinburne University of Technology, 2014);
- Offering compulsory teaching graduate certificate training to all teaching staff (University of Tasmania, 2014);
- Creating a centre of "learning and teaching leadership, information, resources and support for university teaching staff" (Flinders University, 2014);
- Recognising outstanding teachers (Queensland University of Technology, 2013); and
- Hosting teaching and learning forums (University of Technology Sydney, 2013).

Both MUT and the DIT are already pursuing some of these. However, these recommendations are focused on improving the productivity and teaching performance of the HEIs themselves, and even here they fall short. For example, recognising that sustainable funding is needed does not necessarily mean that a solution to the problem is available and does not acknowledge that most developing economies have limited funding but a variety of competing funding needs such as the provision of basic health and basic services that are more pressing. In addition, some of the issues that have the greatest impact are outside the control of the HEIs such as poor secondary schooling and challenging home environments and will need generational change to improve. In conclusion, though, the study did identify a series of new challenges, all of which would benefit from further investigation before comprehensive solutions can be created.

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AN ASSESSMENT OF MANAGERIAL KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS AND ATTITUDES REQUIRED FOR IMPLEMENTING A PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM FOR ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE AT THE NEWCASTLE MUNICIPALITY

M. Bhengu[1] & Z. Ndevu[2]

ABSTRACT

In South Africa, performance management systems (PMSs) are widely implemented in municipalities to monitor and evaluate service delivery mechanisms for the purpose of improving organisational performance. The implementation of an effective PMS depends on several factors, including human elements. Therefore, the purpose of this study at the Newcastle Municipality in KwaZulu-Natal was to assess the available managerial knowledge, skills and attitudes required for implementing an effective PMS for organisational performance. A qualitative article design was employed to describe the performance management processes currently implemented at the Newcastle Municipality as well as the characteristics of these processes. A quantitative survey method was useful for collecting data and for precluding the management and performance practitioners identified through a stratified sampling method from providing data that was not within the scope of this article. The study found that managerial knowledge and skills were available and adequate at the Newcastle Municipality. Despite these findings, there was a minor but significant need to improve existing managerial skills. Furthermore, the article uncovered mixed reactions towards managerial attitudes and it was difficult to determine the purpose of the implementation of a PMS at the municipality and the attitude of members towards it.

Keywords: Performance management system**;** organisational performance; assessment and evaluation; public sector.

INTRODUCTION

In a world that is constantly changing it is now more important than ever for an organisation to know how it is performing and how it can improve what it is doing. It is concomitantly more urgent for public institutions such as municipalities that must deliver public services effectively and efficiently, irrespective of limited resources (NPMAC, 2010: vii). In the current period of financial turbulence and expectations imposed by New Public Management (NPM), public institutions should improve and sustain organisational performance progressively, and then account for managerial actions pertaining to public resources utilised.

Tung, Baird and Schoch (2011: 1287) suggest that "…to survive in today's rapidly changing environment, organisations must identify their existing positions, clarify their goals, and operate more effectively and efficiently". To give effect to this normative, managers must pay attention to the development of an effective and consistent performance management system (PMS) in the municipality in order to measure organisational performance successfully; if not, they should revamp an existing PMS that has previously not supported the municipality in attaining its desired performance. Therefore, a consistent PMS is a "…system that covers all aspects of

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performance that are relevant for the existence of an organisation as a whole" (Flapper, Fortuin & Stoop, 1996: 27).

Developing and implementing an effective PMS is fraught with problems. The existing scientific literature on performance management (PM) outlines several development and implementation challenges (Newcomer & Caudle, 2011: 110). The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2011: 40) asks the rhetorical question: "Is the management function in the public sector well equipped to respond to the challenges?" At the core of this article, the need to conduct an assessment of managerial capacity necessary for implementing an effective organisational PMS is inevitable. The findings indicated in this article might help to answer this rhetorical question.

To heed the call for change, managers of performance in the municipalities must be capacitated to implement PMS effectively. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2010:8) suggests increasing knowledge through education, training and learning as a mechanism to enhance capacity development. Tung *et al* (2011: 1292-1293) believe that "…the provision of training resources indicates that an organisation is willing to provide sufficient resources to support the development and implementation of PMS". Existing scientific literature has shown a strong correlation between human and organisational performance (Crook, Todd, Combs, Woehr & Ketchen, 2011: 443; Tung *et al*, 2011: 1292). Several authors have also confirmed that knowledge, skills and abilities are significant in the endeavour to induce desirable organisational performance (Crook *et al*, 2011: 444).

It is assumed that knowledge and skills on their own cannot obtain desirable organisational performance, but coupled with positive attitudes, organisational performance may improve. To support this assumption, an article by De Waal (2003: 694) states that human behavioural factors are significant to the effective implementation and utilisation of PMS. Zairi (1994) cited in De Waal and Counet (2009: 377) affirmed that central to the challenges of PMS there is a human element. Human behaviour is an attitude or a feeling about something (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2010: 80). Schein (2010) cited in Padovani and Young (2012: 102) believes that organisational culture can both encourage and discourage certain attitudes. For this reason, Padovani and Young (2012: 103) propose PMS that embraces a positive organisational cultural climate. Positive attitudes promote value consensus and the acceptance of a PMS in the organisation (De Waal & Counet, 2009: 369).

In view of the above background, a scientific investigation of managerial capacity in municipalities is necessary. Therefore, managerial knowledge, skills and attitudes required for implementing an effective PMS should be investigated.

THE CONTEXT OF PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

A brief historical perspective of performance management (PM) is deemed important in this review to help us comprehend its importance and its adoption in the public sector. PM has been in existence since the Roman Empire. Documented history indicates that ancient Rome used a performance measurement system (Furnham, 2004: 83). According to Furnham (2004: 84), the 1950s and 1960s marked the adoption of performance measures in big companies in the USA and Europe. Around the 1970s in the USA, followed by Britain in the 1980s, the governments of these countries promulgated legislation on PM in the public sector (Furnham, 2004: 84).

Venter, Van der Waldt and Van der Walt (2007: 110) have confirmed the use of PM in South Africa's public sector since 1994. This was partly motivated by a need to monitor and evaluate the limited resources available for service delivery, particularly in the newly formed local government (Venter *et al*, 2007: 110). "Although the measurement of performance in the public

sector is relatively new…", the existing scientific literature on PM has embraced concepts such as performance measures, performance indicators, performance appraisal, and value for money since the seventies (Venter *et al*, 2007: 110).

A new wave of public reform swept the public sector in the name of NPM around the nineties. According to Kettl (2000) cited in Julnes (2008: 65), "…the period since the early 1990s has seen quite a remarkable reform in the public sectors of many countries around the world". Julnes (2008: 65) states that the concept NPM was "coined by Hood (1991)" and argues that its central focus was to improve performance. Minogue, Polidano and Hulme (1997) cited in Larbi (1999: 10) affirm this and hold that the purpose of NPM is to improve performance through management systems that are premised on 'good governance' and 'managerialism'.

Performance management system

Armstrong (2009: 10) defines PM as an 'operational process'. Hartle (1997) cited in Oliver (2008: 7) articulates a valid argument that the process of PM "…should not be isolated within the organisation" and suggests that it should be integrated into a PMS. To give effect to PM in the local government, PMS is implemented. Public reforms, such as NPM, have triggered the development and the adoption of a PMS in government, both internationally and in all spheres of government in South Africa. This trend is evident in the literature of the following authors: Curtis (1999: 262), De Waal and Counet (2009: 367) and Padovani *et al* (2010: 591).

Conceptualisation of an effective PMS

Padovani *et al* (2010:594) argue that to understand problems affecting PMS implementation in municipalities, the meaning of effective PMS must be defined. According to Clinquini and Mitchell (2005) cited in Tung *et al* (2011:1289), an effective PMS is a system that is able to attain "objectives set for a task". Bouckaert (1993) cited in Padovani *et al* (2010: 594) holds that effectiveness in PMS has the dimensions of validity, legitimacy and functionality.

- Validity refers to "sound, cogent, convincing and telling" (Bouckaert cited in Padovani *et al*, 2010: 594).
- Legitimacy means that the "performance measures should not be forced by top management of the organisations or other external forces such as legislation" (Halachmi cited in Padovani *et al*, 2010: 594).
- Functionality refers to the "benefits arising from the use of performance measures" (Padovani *et al*, 2010: 594).

Given the above, it may be inferred that PMS is designed and institutionalised for managers to inform their decisions as to whether an organisation is achieving its goals; hence it provides opportunities for improving organisational performance.

Benefits of a performance management system

There are many benefits of PMSs and these differ for various institutions. Tung *et al* (2011: 1289) hold that an effective PMS should promote "goal congruence" in the organisational strategy and produce useful information for managers concerning the progress made in a manner that is resourceful. Langfield-Smith, Thorne and Hilton (2009) cited in Tung *et al* (2011: 1289) state that it should signal the position of the organisation and assist managers to develop solutions. The purpose of a PMS is to cater for both financial and non-financial information that is used by managers to support decisions and proper actions (De Waal, 2003: 688). Behn (2003) cited in Padovani *et al* (2010:592) states that a PMS can be used for various reasons such as to (i) evaluate, (ii) control, (iii) budget, (iv) motivate, (v) promote, (vi) celebrate, (vii) learn, and (viii) improve performance.

Ammons and Rivenbark (2008) and Hatry (2002) cited in Padovani *et al* (2010: 592) contend that there is less evidence suggesting that a PMS influences decisions or improves services. Despite this belief and the foregoing, it is argued that managers in municipalities should use a PMS to generate multi-dimensional information on a range of municipal activities in order to ensure evidence-based decisions. This argument is supported by De Bruijn (2002) cited in Padovani *et al* (2010: 595) who states that an effective PMS promotes quality in policies and decision making. Furthermore, Padovani *et al* (2010: 595) also maintain that in the ideal situation, the system should inform decisions.

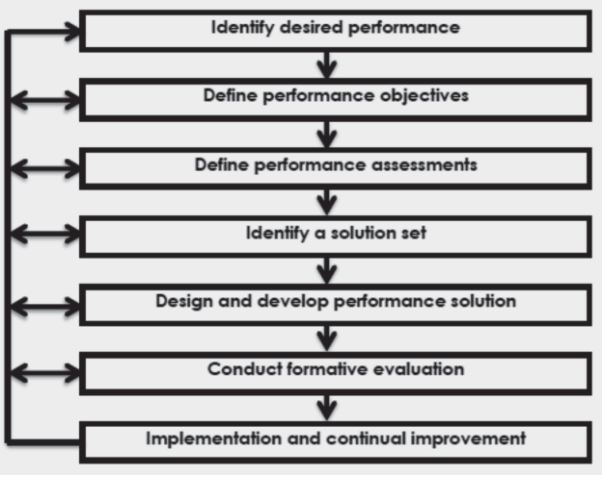
Hall (2002) cited in Esu and Inyang (2009: 100) states that PMS is institutionalised as an approach to organisational performance improvement.

Developing an effective performance management system

There is a need to develop and implement an efficient and effective PMS in the municipality in order to enhance performance. The demand for an efficient and effective PMS has increased over the years for the reason that several organisations that employ PMS effectively have improved their performance (De Waal & Counet, 2009: 367). When developing a PMS, several factors should be considered. Therefore, the system designers should ascertain that the challenges central to the PM of an organisation are integrated into the system being developed in order to improve organisational performance successfully. Watkins (2007) cited in Esu and Inyang (2009: 101) identifies seven components that comprise an effective system. Figure 1 illustrates how these components fit together.

The first step identifies the desired organisational performance targeted and the results that the organisation seeks. It can be anything desirable and closely associated with the vision of the organisation. The second step involves defining performance objectives, such as performance goals of individual departments and those of an organisation. This process is a collaborative responsibility between employees and top management (Eus & Inyang, 2009: 101). According to Esu and Inyang (2009: 101), the objectives must be specific, measurable, attainable, relevant and time bound.

Figure 1: Performance Management System components



Source: Watkins (2007) cited in Esu and Inyang (2009: 105)

The third step is about performance assessment. Esu and Inyang (2010: 101) contend that the fundamental purpose of this step is to understand "what to measure and how to measure it".

Armstrong (2004) cited in Esu and Inyang (2009: 101) states that (i) performance measurement must measure results rather than effort, (ii) results must show a link between the performance and the performer where it is controlled, (iii) the measuring instrument must be objective and observable, (iv) performance data related to the measured aspect must be available, and (v) any existing performance measurement must be adopted, if possible.

The fourth step in the process is to identify a solution strategy to the performance challenges that impinge on organisational performance. Esu and Inyang (2009: 102) propose a SWOT analysis to identify solutions to the problems. The fifth step involves designing and developing a performance solution (strategy). Esu and Inyang (2009: 102) caution that the type of strategy identified in the previous step will determine the intervention. Watkins (2007) cited in Esu and Inyang (2009: 102) recommends the Electronic Performance Support System and Balanced Scorecard. One takes cognisance that the municipalities are experiencing financial constraints. Notwithstanding these financial challenges, it is suggested that efforts should be made to invest in electronic PMS to promote efficiency and heighten effectiveness in the municipalities.

Conducting formative evaluation is the sixth step in the process of developing an effective PMS. Esu and Inyang (2009: 102) suggest that a PMS should be evaluated before it is implemented. This will help managers to gain knowledge of how the system operates (Esu & Inyang, 2009: 102). Following this suggestion, Armstrong (2004) cited in Esu and Inyang (2009: 102) holds that an evaluation should be done by those involved in the system. In the scope of this article, management and PM practitioners should evaluate the municipal PMS.

The final step in developing an effective PMS is its implementation and continual improvement. It should be understood that PM "…is a comprehensive approach for planning and sustaining improvements in the performance" (Esu & Inyang, 2009: 102). Therefore, it can be argued that to improve organisational performance systematically in the municipalities, the PM process should be aligned to planning. Accordingly, Esu and Inyang (2009: 102) believe that the intention of a PMS is to implement performance plans that were adopted in the organisation.

Performance management system challenges

Several authors, such as Tung *et al* (2011), De Waal (2003), Padovani *et al* (2010), Esu and Inyang (2009) and Reddy *et al* (2003) have indicated that a PMS benefits organisations in different ways. Despite these benefits, it can be assumed that organisations are not reaping the benefits from their PMSs. The reason for this assumption is that McCunn (1998) and Neely and Bourne (2000) cited in De Waal and Counet (2009: 367) indicate that PMS in the majority of organisations is failing. Following this reasoning, this may also hold true for the majority of municipalities in South Africa. The challenges facing the implementation of PMS are examined in the subsequent sub-sections.

Performance management planning

It is difficult to align a PMS to planning, such as budgetary processes. This is owing to the implementation of a PMS, which takes longer, while the planning cycles in the municipalities are short term (Padovani *et al*, 2010: 595). Padovani and Young (2012: 68) coined this complexity a "seduction of planning". According to Padovani and Young (2012: 68), planning is complex, owing to data that is collected and analysed, cost benefit analysis that must be done to weigh alternatives, time that is spent on quantifying data, and budget constraints in the organisation.

Time management

Time management is of the essence in the implementation of a PMS. The implementation of a PMS demands time and effort from managers (De Waal & Counet, 2009: 368). Furthermore, managers tend to invest less time in the implementation of PMSs (De Waal & Counet, 2009: 369). The availability of time and work pressure in the organisational environment are some of the reasons that cause managers to invest less time in the implementation of PMSs (De Waal & Counet, 2009: 368).

Knowledge and skills

Several institutions are unable to deliver services effectively and efficiently because "…managers lack the requisite managerial skills" (Esu & Inyang, 2009: 98). According to Ingraham, Joyce and Donahue (2003) cited in Andrews and Boyne (2010: 443), managerial capacity is one aspect that is a cause for concern in public organisations. Therefore, Andrews and Boyne (2010: 444) argue that public institutions with "low-capacity" will find it difficult to develop and implement a PMS. It is for this reason that Newcomer and Caudle (2011: 124) regard knowledge and skills as vital for the implementation of PMS.

Knowledge and skills may include training that is received in the use of the system (De Waal & Counet, 2009: 370). According to De Waal and Counet (2009: 370),"…if organisational members lack the understanding and skills required to work with the new PMS…" the utilisation of the system will be ineffective. Therefore, Newcomer and Caudle (2011: 124) suggest that the system should accommodate knowledge and skills in order to ensure that users "…know how to operate the system and use the performance information".

Attitudes

The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2010:80) defines attitude as "the feeling about something or as behaviour towards something". If positive attitudes are promoted, users will understand and accept the system (De Waal & Counet, 2009: 369). According to Schein (2010) in Padovani and Young (2012: 102), "every organisation has a culture", that is "…the climate or atmosphere in which certain attitudes are encouraged and others discouraged". Padovani and Young (2012: 103) therefore propose that system designers should capture the overall cultural climate when designing the system.

To promote the right climate in an organisation, positive change in senior management is required to support performance managers reporting to them (Newcomer & Caudle, 2011: 122). Therefore, Newcomer and Caudle (2011: 122) suggest that "…any top-down approach should be coupled with a bottom-up approach that allows flexibility and involvement of all staff and other stakeholders".

Leadership role

DuBrin (2010: 6) mentions that "…effective leaders manage, and effective managers also lead". If management does not play a leading role in the implementation and utilisation of a PMS in the organisation, subordinates "…will put less or no priority on working with the new system" (De Waal & Counet, 2009: 369). Therefore, Holroyd and Field (2012: 5) hold that "…performance will have to be led and managed". *The Manager's Guide to Performance Management* (2006), published for local government in the United Kingdom and cited in Holroyd and Field (2012: 5), states that "…the hard systems, processes and data are inseparable from the soft aspects such as culture, leadership and learning".

Roles of managers in performance management systems

The generic functions of managers in any organisation consist of planning, leading, organising, co-ordinating and controlling several organisational processes. All local government, big and small, engage in management control and management control systems formalised for the purpose of accomplishing such managerial functions (Padovani & Young, 2012: 32-33). In the South Africa's municipal context, the term 'PMS' refers to such a system institutionalised for managerial functions.

Lussier (2009) cited in Ile, Eresia-Eke and Allen-Ile (2012: 74) states that senior management determines an organisational purpose, strategies and plans; middle managers put strategies into effect, while line managers ensure that operational plans are implemented. In light of the above, municipality managers at strategic level will constantly adjust their processes and plans to achieve organisational performance goals. According to Ile *et al* (2012: 75), "…a plan is a roadmap of action; it should state what we want to achieve (destination) and how we seek to achieve it (route)". The fundamental purpose of planning performance is that it "…determines what successful performance looks like" (UNDP, 2009 in Ile *et al*, 2012: 75).

In local government, the PMS is located between "strategic and task control" to give effect to goals adopted in the strategic planning and to direct "the activities needed to attain them" (Padovani & Young, 2012: 34). The authors further define task control as "…the process of assuring that the activities are carried out effectively and efficiently".

Knowledge, skills and attitudes for implementing PMS

Implementing an effective PMS in municipalities requires detailed knowledge, skills and the right attitudes from managers. This article is premised on assessing the managerial knowledge, skills and attitudes that are required for implementing PMS in the municipality. According to Andrews and Boyne (2010: 443), managerial capacity is paramount in realising effective service delivery and improving performance in the public sector. Ingraham, Joyce and Donahue (2003) cited in Andrews and Boyne (2010: 443) state that inadequate managerial capacity is persistent in public institutions.

According to Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004) in Andrews and Boyne (2010: 443), in an effort to curtail inadequate capacity in government, various initiatives that enhance management reforms and managerial quality are adopted worldwide. The OECD (2011: 40) states that "…mobilising the skills and competencies of the public workforce will help develop and implement better policies to do the right things in the right way at the right time". The OECD (2011: 40) poses a rhetorical question: "Is the management function in the public sector well equipped to respond to the challenges?" The question that resonates with this article is: What are the available managerial knowledge, skills and attitudes required for implementing a PMS for organisational performance at Newcastle Municipality?

Managerial competencies (knowledge, skills and attitudes) in the context of this article are seen as enablers that will promote an effective functioning of individuals in a PMS. Kaslow (2004) cited in Falender and Shafranske (2007: 232) defines competency as "…an individual's capability and demonstrated ability to understand and do certain tasks in an appropriate and effective manner consistent with the expectations for a person qualified by education and training in a particular profession or speciality thereof". This is the definition adopted in this article.

According to Holroyd and Field (2012: 5), managerial knowledge and skills on their own will not achieve desirable performance. In view of this, it is argued that managers should have positive attitudes to ensure effective implementation of a PMS in the municipality. Simons (2002), in De Waal (2003: 689), believes that "performance measurement and control systems cannot be

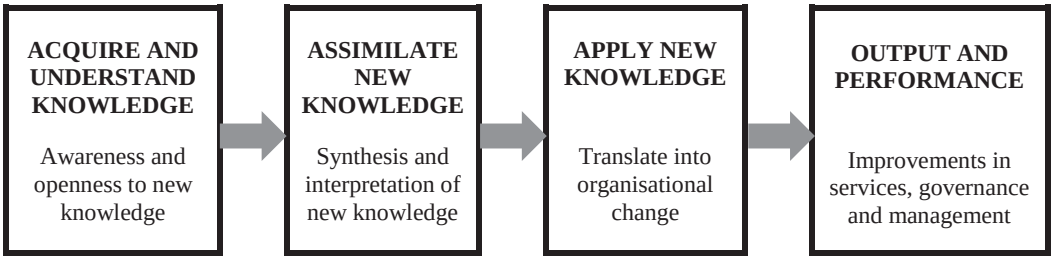
designed without taking into account human behaviour". Along the same lines, De Waal and Counet (2009: 369) state that positive attitudes are essential in promoting the acceptance of a PMS. Furthermore, Holloway, Lewis and Mallory (1995) cited in De Waal (2003: 689) assert that "…successful implementation of performance management depends above all on understanding and accommodating the human element".

Knowledge required implementing PMS

According to Easterby-Smith (1997) and McInerney (2002) in Walshe, Harvey and Jas (2010: 3), organisations are systems of "knowledge processing". Accordingly, Walshe *et al* (2010: 10) describe the nature of knowledge as "…tacit or explicit, a continuum, which expresses the extent to which knowledge is seen as personal" and furthermore knowledge may be seen as "…peripheral to the performance mechanism or central to its working". Knowledge is a key factor that helps organisations to identify failures when they are engaged in improving performance (Walshe *et al*, 2010: 33). Walshe *et al* (2010: 33) argue that an organisation can find solutions to undesirable performance, provided its environment is "more known". In contrast, Tsoukas (1997) in Walshe *et al* (2010: 34) holds that having more information may not translate to the understanding of organisational performance. Walshe *et al* (2010:34) further believe that "…the use of information is often conceived in a bipolar way, either is used or not". Therefore, Walshe *et al* (2010: 34) conclude that the use of information is a "…direct relation between performance information and managerial decision".

Knowledge can be obtained and manipulated to obtain better performance in the organisation. Zahra and George (2002) cited in Walshe *et al* (2010: 230) define the process of acquiring, assimilating, transforming and exploiting knowledge as the absorptive capacity. Buenstorf and Murmann (2005) in Walshe *et al* (2010:230) hold that organisations with absorptive capacity are capable of applying knowledge to a changing environment. Walshe *et al* (2010:230) contend that absorptive capacity can allow organisations to learn through generation of knowledge, and then apply generated knowledge to enhance performance (see Figure 2). According to Lane, Koka and Pathak (2006) in Walshe *et al* (2010: 230), absorptive capacity works by connecting three component processes in a logical manner, namely, knowledge acquisition, knowledge assimilation, and knowledge application. Walshe *et al* (2010: 230) hold that if the absorptive capacity is logically applied in this way, it can contribute to the improvement of performance in the organisation.

Figure 2: Absorptive capacity



Source: Adapted from Lane *et al* (2006), cited in Walshe *et al* (2010: 231)

Importance of knowledge management

Knowledge is power, whether it is the knowledge of the organisation or of individuals in the employment of the municipality. Authors such as Stehr (2001) and De la Mothe and Foray (2001) cited in Earl (2003: 57) regard knowledge as power and state that experts are convinced that this "power intensifies when it is shared". Ananthram, Nankervis and Chan (2013: 287)

believe that knowledge is an asset. Liebowotz (2002) and Chen and Chen (2005) in Ananthram *et al* (2013: 287) propose that knowledge management (KM) should "…receive considerable attention in the strategic management and strategic human resource management literature", as it forms the basis for achieving competitiveness in the organisation.

Earl (2003: 58) defines KM as "…any systematic activity related to the capture and sharing of knowledge by the organisation". Chen and Chen (2005) in Ananthram *et al* (2013: 287) conceptualise KM as the "…creation, conversion, circulation, and completion of knowledge". According to Swan, Scarbrough and Pretson (1999) cited in Ananthram *et al* (2013: 287), KM is "…any process or practice of creating, acquiring, capturing, sharing and using knowledge, wherever it resides, to enhance learning and performance in organisations". Davenport and Prusak (1998) in Ananthram *et al* (2013: 287) hold that knowledge is produced within individuals and through interaction with others. Chen and Chen (2005) in Ananthram *et al* (2013: 287) suggest that knowledge produced or retrieved from existing sources in the organisation must be "…applied to meet identified needs, distributed around the firm appropriately; and then recorded, reviewed or reconfigured" in order to improve organisational performance.

It is inferred, therefore, that KM is more likely to benefit the municipality to (i) promote competitiveness amongst employees, (ii) improve organisational strategies and processes, (iii) promote learning and improvement on performance, (iv) promote interaction and innovation amongst individuals, (v) contribute to organisational and individual knowledge, (vi) encourage performance solutions from within the organisation, (vii) develop and implement best solutions from several knowledge repositories within the organisation to address societal needs, and (viii) promote teamwork and the spirit of collectiveness through existing knowledge-sharing practices.
In the light of this review, it is argued that in the context of organisational performance, managers must possess extensive knowledge which cuts across their generic functions, different components of a PMS and knowledge pertaining to the organisational contextual factors. Furthermore, it is argued that managers must be able to (i) generate a range of knowledge, (iii) sythesise and interpret knowledge, and (iii) then translate knowledge into an organisational strategy in order to improve the municipal overall performance.

Skills required implementing PMS

The emerging changes in the organisational environment have granted practitioners and researchers an opportunity to investigate the roles of Human Resource Management (HRM) regarding performance improvement, such as "dynamic skills" required by individuals to manage performance (Ananthram *et al*, 2013: 282). According to Roca-Puig, Beltrán-Martin and Cipres (2012) cited in Ananthram *et al* (2013: 282), this has heightened the interest of researchers to focus on concepts such as "measurement, accountability, reporting" in order to validate their role in improving organisational performance. The subsequent section explores managerial skills necessary for implementing PMS.

Skills in performance management

Regardless of the position in the organisational structure, Grobler, Wärnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2011: 341) believe that managers use a "…mix of technical, conceptual and human-relations skills". Technical skills embrace knowledge of equipment, work methods and work technologies that impact on a manager's job; moreover technical skills are 'more important' to line managers than any other managerial levels, as line managers work closely with employees to apply organisational technology (Grobler *et al*, 2011: 341). Conceptual skills are used by managers in the organisation to "…coordinate and integrate a wide array of organisational functions, activities, goals and purposes", such as integrating production and financial functions to attain organisational goals (Grobler *et al*, 2011: 341-342). The human relations skills are used

by managers to exercise leadership skills in "…cooperative, satisfying relationships among workgroup members" to accomplish the task. According to Grobler *et al* (2011: 342), human relations skills are important for all managers in the organisation as they embrace the ability to communicate effectively with employees.

Stogdill (1948), Vroom and Jago (2007), and Bass (2008) cited in Van Wart and Kapucu (2011: 490) state that "leadership and management require different competencies based on different situations". Therefore, in times of crisis or uncertainty, managers should respond decisively to steer an organisation out of danger. In view of potential crises in an organisation, Van Wart and Kapucu (2011: 491) conceptualise crises and catastrophes to mean that "the system has been overwhelmed or taken off guard and outside resources and the concomitant external coordination are necessary for effective response and recovery". An inference is that in the midst of crisis, such as undesirable organisational performance, managers must 'step out of' their ordinary management roles to assume the ultimate responsibility to remedy the situation. In this way, a leader is unleashed from a manager. This view coincides with what DuBrin (2010: 6) has stated, namely that "effective leaders also manage, and effective managers also lead".

Implications of skills in government institutions

The OECD (2011: 33) states that the public sector is competing for skilled labour with the private sector. The private sector pays competitive and market-related salaries in comparison with government institutions. It is stated that the "…negative image of government may also make attracting qualified personnel that much tougher" (OECD, 2011: 34). Furthermore, the existing HRM policies have succeeded to "…integrate people with different backgrounds and experiences into the public workforce"; as a result the possibilities to obtain a range of skills necessary for adapting or organisational change management are limited (OECD, 2011: 34).

In pursuit of "…better management for a more efficient public sector", public sector reforms should strive to ensure that "the appointments of office-holders or members of governance bodies must be based on merit, with adequate safeguards for the integrity of the recruitment process, good induction and training, and suitable terms of appointment including tenure" (OECD, 2011: 36). The OECD (2011: 39) further indicates that skilled public servants ensure that (i) government's performance and good public governance are improved, (ii) good policy making is promoted and sustained, (iii) effective service delivery mechanisms are implemented, and (iv) efficiency in utilising public resources is promoted.

Attitudes required implementing PMS

Attitudes influence the implementation of an effective PMS. Schein (2010) cited in Padovani and Young (2012: 102) indicates that attitudes are embedded in an organisational culture. According to De Waal and Counet (2009: 369), if positive attitudes are not promoted, employees may not understand and accept the utilisation of a PMS. These views suggest that positive attitudes should be promoted in the municipality. Perhaps the question is, 'How?' To answer this question, Padovani and Young (2012: 103) propose that an organisational climate that encourages positive attitudes should be integrated in the design of a system. Moreover, Newcomer and Caudle (2011: 122) state that change in attitudes of senior management is necessary and suggested a top-down approach that is linked to a bottom-up approach that is flexible and capable of involving all employees in an organisational performance.

This might pose yet another question: 'Which positive attitudes?' The answer to this question is commitment. Armstrong and Baron (2005: 17) note that evidence from literature shows that management commitment is an important means to organisational policies. Furthermore, De Waal and Counet (2009: 369) contend that "when management commitment and leadership buy-in for the implementation and use of the PMS is lacking, other organisational members will put

less or no priority on working with the new system". Following this, it is proposed that senior management must herald the importance of a PMS in order to mitigate further resistance which might emerge from subordinates (De Waal & Counet, 2009: 369). Accordingly, De Waal (2003: 689-690) cautions that the utilisation and successful implementation of a PMS may be possible if "…managers have an intensified awareness of the importance of a performance management system".

To improve organisational performance, an effective and efficient PMS must be implemented to assist managers to (i) clarify and agree on the strategy, (ii) collect useful information to measure whether performance is still progressing as planned, and (iii) to learn from collected information, lessons that will improve organisational performance.

The implementation of a PMS in municipalities requires detailed knowledge and skills. Therefore managers must acquire a wide range of knowledge, synthesise knowledge, and apply it to improve organisational performance. Moreover, managers must possess technical, conceptual and human relations skills in order to implement PMS in municipalities effectively and efficiently.

Knowledge and skills will not suffice in isolation. Positive managerial attitudes, such as commitment, will drive the implementation of PMS in the organisation. Therefore, an organisational culture that encourages positive managerial attitudes must be promoted in municipalities.

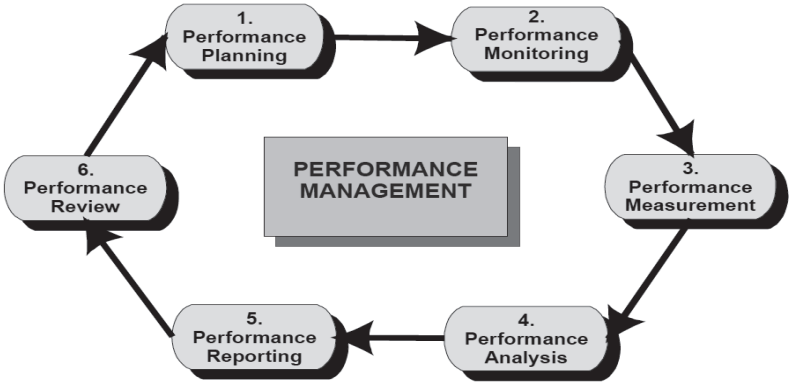
PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT FRAMEWORK FOR THE NEWCASTLE MUNICIPALITY

Following legal requirements from diverse legislation and Municipal Planning and Performance Management Regulations, the Newcastle Municipality has implemented a PMS guided by a policy titled "Performance Management Framework for the Newcastle Municipality" (Newcastle Municipality, 2005: 3). A PM framework for Newcastle Municipality (2005: 4) states that PM will be carried out on its (i) Integrated Development Planning (IDP), which constitutes performance at an organisational level, and (ii) Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP), which constitutes performance at an operational level (departmental). Furthermore it is envisaged that both the IDP and SDBIP will link performance measures to individual managers as required by the Municipal Planning and Performance Regulations and the Municipal Finance Management Act (MFMA) (Newcastle Municipality, 2005: 5).

The Newcastle Municipality (2005: 5-6) states that the goals of its PMS are to (i) enable accountability between stakeholders, (ii) provide lessons for improvement, (iii) sound the alarm on performance deviations, and (iii) inform decision making. To mention a few, the PMS in Newcastle is grounded on principles of (i) simplicity in order to accommodate the "current capacity constraints", (ii) cognisance of existing resource limitations, (iii) integration with other management processes, (iv) and credible and reliable information (Newcastle Municipality, 2005: 6-7).

The municipal manager, directors, line managers and steering committee are mentioned as key role-players in the process of PM (Newcastle Municipality, 2005:9). Figure 3 illustrates how the process is carried out in the Newcastle Municipality.

Figure 3: Process of performance management in Newcastle Municipality



Source: Newcastle Municipality (2005:8)

According to the Newcastle Municipality (2005: 10), the process is cyclical and commences with performance planning where an IDP is compiled and an annual review of the previous year's performance is undertaken concurrently. Performance monitoring soon follows and "…is an ongoing process" that is carried out by respective managers who must gauge current performance against pre-set targets in their designated sections (Newcastle Municipality, 2005: 10). Performance measurement succeeds monitoring. The Newcastle Municipality (2005: 11) views it as a method of "collecting and capturing performance data" on specified indicators and targets that will be part of reporting. The role of individual managers is to collect, organise and record performance information in a prescribed system (Newcastle Municipality, 2005: 11).

Performance information is then interpreted and analysed to ascertain whether performance targets have been met. According to the Newcastle Municipality (2005: 11), performance analysis will serve to facilitate ascertaining what has worked and what has not, necessitating recommendations. The last two stages in the process of PM are performance reporting and reviewing. Newcastle Municipality (2005:12) states that the first performance report is paramount, since it culminates in a 'blueprint' which will guide the implementation of PMS in the municipality. In the Newcastle Municipality the last two stages are intertwined in order to report performance to the leadership, at the same time allowing the leadership to review performance and to decide "on appropriate action" (Newcastle Municipality, 2005: 12-13).

Refinement of the PMS for Newcastle Municipality, 2013

The Newcastle Municipality, in terms of its PMS framework as mentioned above, commissioned Sigma IT, an independent company, based on unspecified reasons, to refine PMS in the municipality. According to Sigma IT (2013: 4), they were appointed under BID NO. 03/2013 to refine a PMS in the Newcastle Municipality. The project vision hopes to "…develop an easy-to-use and aligned performance management system which encourages a culture of performance and boosts oversight and reporting on service delivery progress" (Sigma IT, 2013: 5).

Sigma IT (2013: 6) notes that the project deliverables include (i) "reviewing a PMS framework and aligning it to the latest" legislation framework, (ii) amending current policies to cater for electronic performance management and transferring of a PMS to "lower levels", (iii) developing PMS standards, and (vi) training managers and councillors on a PMS. It was envisaged that the project would commence on 21 May 2013 and conclude on 7 June 2013 (Sigma IT (2013:11).

Performance management framework for the Newcastle Municipality, 2013

The Newcastle Municipality refined its PMS and enacted a draft framework in 2013, the Performance Management Framework for the Newcastle Municipality. The majority of sections remained in line with the former framework and a new draft framework has made significant strides to cascade PM down to employees at lower levels to ensure that every employee in the Municipality contributes effectively to organisational performance (Newcastle Municipality, 2013: 14).

Following the refinement of the PMS, the Municipality rearranged its PM process into (i) planning, (ii) monitoring, (iii) measurement, and (iv) reviewing and reporting to clarify in detail the responsibilities of relevant role-players. In the performance planning phase the IDP is developed, reviewed and "seamlessly integrated" with the PM process. The Newcastle Municipality (2013: 19) contends that in this manner the "integrated development planning fulfils the planning phase of performance management", while PM "…fulfils the implementation management, monitoring and evaluation of the IDP process". It is a series of steps that includes identification of key performance areas (KPAs), development of indicators, setting performance objectives and targets in the IDP, developing and adopting a SDBIP, development and acceptance of organisational and departmental score cards, and aligning processes to legislative requirements (Newcastle Municipality, 2013: 19-24).

The Newcastle Municipality (2013:34) acknowledges that a PMS may fail due to "inappropriate organisational culture", lack of skills and capacity. It is further suggested in the draft PMS framework that causal factors should be analysed "through coaching sessions" at all levels of the organisation and proper solutions implemented ranging from (i) identification of training and skills needs, to (ii) change and diversity management courses to correct inappropriate organisational culture (Newcastle Municipality, 2013: 35). Moreover, the framework requests "commitment and dedicated leadership from stakeholders participating in the PMS" (Newcastle Municipality, 2013: 63).

METHODOLOGY

The article design chosen to answer the article question was qualitative in nature. This approach was useful to describe existing processes at and characteristics of the Newcastle Municipality (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994 cited in Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:8).

A quantitative survey methodology was employed to collect empirical primary data from participants at the Newcastle Municipality. This data-collection method was ideal for limiting participants from responding with data that was not within the scope of this article. Moreover, the method was sufficient for quantifying collected data and for presenting findings statistically using graphs and tables.

A stratified sampling method was used to identify an eligible sample of management and PM practitioners from the municipal organogram. The eligible sample comprised the municipal manager, chief of operations, strategic executive directors, directors, line managers, PMS unit practitioners and IDP practitioners. All these municipal employees stood an equal chance to be included in the article population at the Newcastle Municipality.

A probable population size that was identified from the Newcastle Municipality's organogram for the purpose of this article was a total of 89 employees; however, only 50 employees made themselves available.

FINDINGS

The following major findings were established:

Managerial knowledge required for implementing PMS

The majority of respondents at the Newcastle Municipality have shown (see Figure 4) that they possess all the knowledge that is required for implementing a PMS in the Municipality. This includes knowledge to identify desired performance and to determine performance objectives; knowledge to identify solution strategies to performance challenges that impinge on the Municipality's success; knowledge to conceptualise a logic model into a programme during planning; knowledge management and knowledge-sharing practices for improving performance; knowledge of developmental local government in a period of transformation; knowledge of how to link planning budgeting and implementation; knowledge of the context in which the municipality operates as well as its people and politics; knowledge pertaining to the implementation of a PMS in the Municipality and the ability to relate the knowledge to others; knowledge to conceptualise, analyse and implement policies in the Municipality, as well as to relate them to broader government policies such as government-wide monitoring and evaluation (GWM&E); knowledge of more than one municipal functional field or discipline; and the understanding of how the municipality is related to other institutions in South Africa.

Although the majority (24) of respondents were confident that they knew how to conceptualise, analyse and implement policies in the municipality and to relate them to broader government policies, a considerable number (13) of respondents were undecided in their responses and it is a cause for concern for this study as it was partially motivated by the 'knowledge requirement' contained in the policy.

Table 1: Managerial knowledge available at Newcastle Municipality

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	TOTAL
Use of knowledge to identify the desired performance and to determine performance objectives	4	0	3	18	13	38
Use of knowledge to identify solution strategies to the performance challenges impinging on organisational success.	3	1	4	17	13	38
Use of knowledge to conceptualise a theory of change (logic model) into a programme	2	1	5	17	13	38
Promotion of knowledge management and knowledge sharing practices in the organisation for improving performance	2	0	5	19	12	38
Possession of knowledge about developmental local government in a period of transformation	2	0	5	14	17	38
Possession of knowledge about how to interact planning, budgeting and implementation	1	1	6	13	17	38
Possession of knowledge about the context in which the organisation operates, its people and the existing politics	2	1	5	12	18	38

Knowledge of the implementation of PMS in the organisation and how to relate the knowledge to others	2	0	1	17	18	38
Knowledge of how to conceptualise, analyse and implement policies and to relate them to broader policies such as GWM&E	1	0	13	14	10	38
Knowledge of more than one functional field or discipline and understanding of how the municipality is related to other institutions	1	2	7	13	15	38

Managerial skills required for implementing PMS

In the above section, respondents were provided with a list of 15 skills and requested to rate their confidence in each skill using a Likert scale, where 1 to 5 denoted:

1	2	3	4	5
Very bad	**Bad**	**Neutral**	**Good**	**Very good**

The analysis of responses is summarised and presented in Table 2. No respondent indicated the confidence as ‘very bad’ in all the skills. Only eight respondents indicated their confidence as ‘bad’ in certain skills from a combined list of skills which can be identified from the following skills:

- Change management.
- Report writing and communication of performance.
- Interpretation and implementation of legislation.
- Designing a performance measurement framework.
- Monitoring and evaluation of performance.
- Research practice and methods.

The results also show that to some extent, above half of the respondents indicated their confidence as ‘good’ in all skills; this is taken from the double-digit responses under the column ‘good’ in Table 2. Comparatively, fewer than half of the respondents indicated their confidence as ‘neutral’ in all skills and fewer than half of the respondents indicated their confidence as ‘very good’ in all skills.

To ensure that the results were reliable and valid, the skills identified in Table 2 were further analysed by reducing a Likert scale from five points (i.e. Very bad, Bad, Neutral, Good, and Very Good) to three points (i.e. Bad, Neutral, and Good). The reduction in scale was achieved by merging closely related scale points (i.e. Very bad and Bad were merged into Bad, while Good and Very Good were merged into Good). The results of all skills further analysed using a reduced Likert scale are summarised and presented in two graphs, Figure 4.4 and Figure 4.5. Green bars denote ‘good’, yellow bars denote ‘neutral’, red bars denote ‘bad’ and blue bars denote the total respondents. A further analysis of data also confirmed that above half (50%) of respondents perceived their confidence in all the skills as ‘good’.

Table 2: Confidence of Employees in Skills at Newcastle Municipality

Skill	Very bad	Bad	Neutral	Good	Very good	TOTAL
Financial management	0	0	9	25	4	38
People management and empowerment	0	0	8	22	8	38
Leadership for strategic planning and decision making	0	0	8	19	11	38
Programme and project management	0	0	6	21	11	38
Change management	0	2	14	20	2	38
Knowledge management	0	0	9	25	4	38
Problem solving and analysis	0	0	3	26	9	38
Report writing and communication of performance	0	1	4	21	12	38
Interpretation and implementation of legislation	0	1	11	21	5	38
Designing a performance measurement framework	0	2	16	19	1	38
Monitoring and evaluation of performance	0	1	7	26	4	38
Research practice and methods	0	1	7	22	8	38
Planning of performance	0	0	10	26	2	38
Setting key performance indicators	0	0	10	23	5	38
Drafting of improvement plans based on recommendations	0	0	9	21	8	38

The results further showed that the municipality has made minimal efforts to fund respondents for the enhancement of skills required for the implementation of PMS and the most prevalent method adopted in the municipality is an in-house training programme facilitated by organisational members. Furthermore, the majority of respondents showed that PMS training was acquired mainly through job-related activities in the municipality, over a period equal to twelve months or more, and that the overall quality of training was acceptable to the majority of respond.

Managerial attitudes required for implementing PMS

The results revealed that the majority of respondents at the Newcastle Municipality believed that management dedicates more time to the implementation of a PMS; the implementation of a PMS takes more time and effort than anticipated; a PMS implementation has clear goals and an understandable strategy; management plays an active role in the implementation of a PMS from beginning to end; a PMS is not used for the daily management of the organisation; there is a lack of knowledge and skills pertaining to the implementation of PMS; and the Municipality does not have sufficient resources and capacity vital for implementation of PMS. They also believed that the Municipality has a performance management culture in place.

The results also revealed that the majority of respondents were undecided whether there was a lack of positive attitudes from members in the Municipality. Furthermore, the respondents were neither able to agree nor disagree whether PMS was implemented for complying with legislation rather than as an internal control tool in the Municipality.

An assessment of managerial knowledge, skills and attitudes at the Newcastle Municipality has shown that the majority of respondents possess the required knowledge and skills required for implementing a PMS for organisational performance. Contrary to these positive findings, the

article further elicited that there is a need to improve existing skills, despite the Municipality's making efforts to provide training opportunities in the organisation. Some findings on managerial attitudes did not plainly show the status quo at the Municipality, owing to the majority of respondents who were unable to indicate whether members lacked positive attitudes in the Municipality and whether the implementation of a PMS was carried out for the sake of compliance with legislation, rather as an internal controlling tool in the Municipality.

Table 3: Managerial Attitudes at Newcastle Municipality

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	TOTAL
Management dedicates less time to the implementation of PMS	4	13	11	6	4	38
The implementation of PMS takes more time and effort than anticipated	0	6	3	21	8	38
There is a lack of positive attitude from members in the organisation towards PMS	2	5	16	14	1	38
PMS implementation does not have clear goals and understandable strategy	6	12	10	8	2	38
Management plays an active role in the implementation of PMS from beginning to end	0	4	5	20	9	38
PMS is implemented for complying with legislation rather than as an internal control tool in the organisation	6	7	12	7	6	38
PMS is not used for the daily management of the organisation	3	5	14	13	3	38
There is a lack of knowledge and skills pertaining to the implementation of PMS	2	10	11	13	2	38
The municipality does not have sufficient resources and capacity vital for implementation of PMS	4	7	12	10	5	38
The organisation does not have a performance management culture	7	8	12	7	4	38

RECOMMENDATIONS

The article proposes recommendations for the Municipal PMS. It is therefore suggested that the Performance Management Framework for the Newcastle Municipality (Newcastle Municipality, 2013), as a policy guiding the implementation of PMS, should be adjusted accordingly to capture and reflect on the overall performance management issues. The following are proposed recommendations:

- The municipality is commended for enhancing KM practices in the organisation and is advised to consider including these as a section in the Performance Management Framework, as well as to consider the establishment of a repository for storing information shared and generated.
- The Municipal Performance Management Framework (2013) acknowledges the value of knowledge and skills improvement in the midst of PM. It is for this reason that the Performance Management Framework must be adjusted in order to explicitly show how Human Resource Management and Development Strategy or Human Resource Policies will play a role in employees' capacity development. As goodwill and a point of departure,

reference is made to the Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (No. 32 of 2000) which compels the municipality to develop a Human Resource Development Strategy to give effect to section 56(b) of the Act.

- The researcher proposes the utilisation of the following existing policies as the Human Resources and Development Strategy. Furthermore, these policies should be authorised by the Municipality, meaning that they should contain the organisational logo, proposal dates, amendment dates and be signed and adopted by a person in authority:
    - Internship Policy;
    - Human Resources Development Policy; and
    - Policy for the Granting of Bursaries and Article Assistance.
- The need for skills improvement was identified during the study and the following skills are recommended for immediate improvement:
    - Change management;
    - Financial management;
    - Designing a performance measurement framework;
    - People management and empowerment; and
    - Setting key performance indicators.
- The Municipality is advised to increase the personnel in the PMS unit so that the unit will be able to provide effective support to the various sections of the organisation and play a leading role in skills' improvement. It was highly evident from the findings that internally facilitated training was well received by fellow employees in the organisation.
- The Municipal Performance Management Framework (2013) acknowledges the value of the PM culture in the organisation. For this reason it is advisable that the Municipality plainly spells out the type of culture which will encourage positive attitudes and discourage negative ones. The researcher recommends that the Municipality should consider the following:
    - Commitment from various role players;
    - Teamwork, sharing and collaboration of role players;
    - Value of PMS in organisational performance; and
    - Value and the role of all employees in organisational performance.
- Furthermore, the researcher proposes the adoption of a 'top-down approach' that is complemented by a 'bottom-up approach' as a strategy to promote organisational culture, and the involvement of all employees in the PM. Following this, it is proposed that the following role-players be the champions of the strategy:
    - Municipal Manager;
    - Strategic Executive Directors;
    - Directors; and
    - PMS Unit.

CONCLUSION

The study at the Newcastle Municipality was driven by a need to assess the available managerial knowledge, skills and attitudes required for implementing an effective PMS for organisational performance. The findings disclosed that the requisite managerial knowledge and skills are available at the Newcastle Municipality. Therefore, it is concluded that managerial capacity at the municipality is adequate. Despite this conclusion, there is a minor but significant need to improve

existing managerial skills. Furthermore, these findings bring a different perspective to the current body of knowledge which believes that managerial capacity is inadequate in government institutions.

It was not in the interest of this article to investigate what has contributed to the positive shift in knowledge and skills respectively; however, it is assumed that it was due to an interaction of performance managers and the existing KM-sharing practices in the Municipality. Therefore, this warrants future research in this regard.

The findings on managerial attitudes revealed a mixture of reactions. Some did not reveal the status quo at the Municipality, while others contradicted what was established about managerial knowledge and skills. Therefore, the article concludes that the entire managerial attitudinal aspects that were tested should be replicated.

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PROMOTING POSITIVE SCHOOL LEADERSHIP AND DEVELOPMENT THROUGH THE INTEGRATED VALUES MODEL (IVAMO)

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ABSTRACT

The concepts of leadership and development apply to all human experiences, including schools. For school environments to produce quality products of education, such schools must support the implementation of good school leadership and ultimately quality school development. However, the promotion of positive learner discipline is one among the many factors that influence progressive school leadership and development. In this article the view is explicated that school discipline is partly articulated by the IVAMO framework. This framework provides the promotion of discipline using a set of human values because values are moral choices providing avenues through which human character is formed and shaped in order to make it appropriate for social interaction. It is argued that when values are properly articulated in schools, positive discipline is realised. Positive discipline allows school leaders to influence actions of people, especially learners, so as to make rational decisions that aid the fulfilment of school development. The IVAMO framework therefore articulates clearly how school discipline, school leadership and school development are inter-related to promote quality schooling and education. The model provides eight metaphorical pillars which can be implemented in schools.

Keywords: School leadership; school discipline; school development; visionary leadership.

INTRODUCTION

Effective school leadership is essential to improving the efficiency and equity of schooling (Mugagga, Genza, & Ssemulya, 2013). Efficiency and equity of schooling means the extent to which school development is attained (Bush & Glover, 2003). Within each individual school, leadership can contribute to improved learning by shaping the conditions and climate in which teaching and learning occur. Beyond the school borders, school leaders can connect and adapt schools to changing external environments. And at the school-systems' interface, school leadership provides a bridge between internal school improvement processes and externally initiated reform (Pont, Nusche & Moorman, 2015). It is these school leadership factors that later on determine the pattern of school development because they enhance quality supervision and accountability (Leithwood, 2001). At the centre of the debate on school leadership and school development is the need to influence the learning environment by targeting the conduct of students and learners (Rossouw, 2003).

When we talk about the conduct of learners in a learning environment, we are focusing attention on the concept of school discipline - how conduct is influenced through an educational process. But school discipline is a major factor influencing school leadership and school development (Moloi, 2002). This is so because, when people are disciplined, it becomes much easier to

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introduce appropriate leadership values. People are equipped with values appropriate to promote positive discipline, and these values facilitate the internalising of the leadership process. This is because values are avenues through which human character is reformed and moulded in order to make it appropriate for social interaction (Sekiwu, 2013). Thus, if people have harnessed appropriate social values, then school leadership can influence their actions to what is universally acceptable. Sergiovanni (2006), for instance, defines school leadership as a process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it in a positive manner. Leithwood (2001) concludes that influencing others to do what needs to be done requires them to be disciplined. Through discipline, people acquire a set of educational values appropriate to enabling leadership (Maree, 2000).

Generally, development refers to the systematic use of scientific and technical knowledge to meet specific objectives or requirements (Mathar, 2013). It is the process of organisational transformation. Historians have understood development to refer to a steady transition from one stage of existence to another. For example, development is a transition from the primitive stage to the civilisation stage. In the context of schools, development is a process of changing the internal or external school environment from one stage to another, usually changing to a better stage. Similarly, modernists have viewed development as a transitional structure from the traditional to the modern. The school administrators' efforts to improve student grades, for instance, are a clear roadmap to school development. Interpreted culturally and socially, development is based on complex cultural and environmental factors the interactions of which define the level of maturity and improvement required for the activity to materialise. Within a school, these cultural and environmental factors could relate to learners' discipline and the nature of school leadership. If the discipline of learners remains wanting, as Katunguka (2011) seems to contemplate, a school's development process may be impeded. For example, student performance is integral to the development of schools. If student performance increases, then the school profile transforms historically: it implies that there is a progressive degree of development for a particular school (Naluwemba & Sekiwu, 2015).

Rossouw (2003: 414) sums up the debate by positing that poor school discipline can distort the culture of leadership and school development:

> *In an education system that is still struggling to create a culture of teaching and learning, ill-disciplined behaviour can cancel all well-intended efforts to restore or create this culture. Learner safety, security and success in education are often adversely affected by disruptive behaviour or other forms of misconduct by fellow learners.*

As such, in this article it is argued that positive school leadership and school development can be promoted using the integrated values model (IVAMO). The IVAMO framework tries to show that it is important to fuse educational values into the holistic management of learners' discipline in the classroom and on the school compound (Sekiwu, 2013). Because school discipline is a fundamental requirement for promoting appropriate school discipline and the subsequent school development, it is critical to provide a logical process through which learners' discipline could be linked to school leadership processes and school development. This logical process therefore rests upon the IVAMO framework, according to this article. Explaining how the IVAMO framework is designed and used is the aim of this article.

MOTIVATION TO DEVELOP THE IVAMO

This article evaluates the relevance of the IVAMO (Fig.1) which was developed based on a preliminary study conducted between 2009 and 2013 (Sekiwu, 2013). The research in this preliminary study supported the need for the development of the IVAMO framework to address the concerns of educational stakeholders regarding the promotion of positive school discipline by integrating a set of human values into schools. Its structure is supported by, and is based on, several earlier research findings that focused on the roles of values in schools (Rossouw, 2001; Kasibante, 2001; Felderhof, 2002). The IVAMO framework is set out in Figure 1 and discussion of the model is based on this.

The primary purpose is to point out how the IVAMO addresses concerns that school discipline is no longer a mere infliction of pain and punishment, but the cultivation and integration of values in education in order to nurture civic responsibility and life-long learning. Its primary purpose is the general change of education towards sustainable development. This means that a school must be seen as a role model for sustainable development. Learners and students spend an increasing part of their life at school, and more and more real life experiences must be offered and realised at school.

In a world where formal education is losing its influence for being too theoretical, it is important to begin a campaign that integrates school education with life-long learning and citizenship. The IVAMO framework therefore tries to impress upon school systems the fact that through nurturing positive learner behaviour, schools can help develop school environments where positive leadership is the priority and such leadership must lead to sustained school development. The IVAMO framework therefore builds education on the foundation of human values. This framework redefines the original intent of schooling as elaborated by the Greek philosophers such as Socrates that education is the process of changing learners' character through fostering moral sensibility in order for them to have a positive world view of life. In fact, some contemporary scholars (Maree & Cherian, 2004) indicate that values, if integrated into the management of school discipline, provide solutions to the moral and leadership dilemma. Values are relatively stable moral choices which some believe build a sense of obedience among learners to respect the directives of educators. According to this viewpoint, values would enable schools to respect the authority of school leadership.

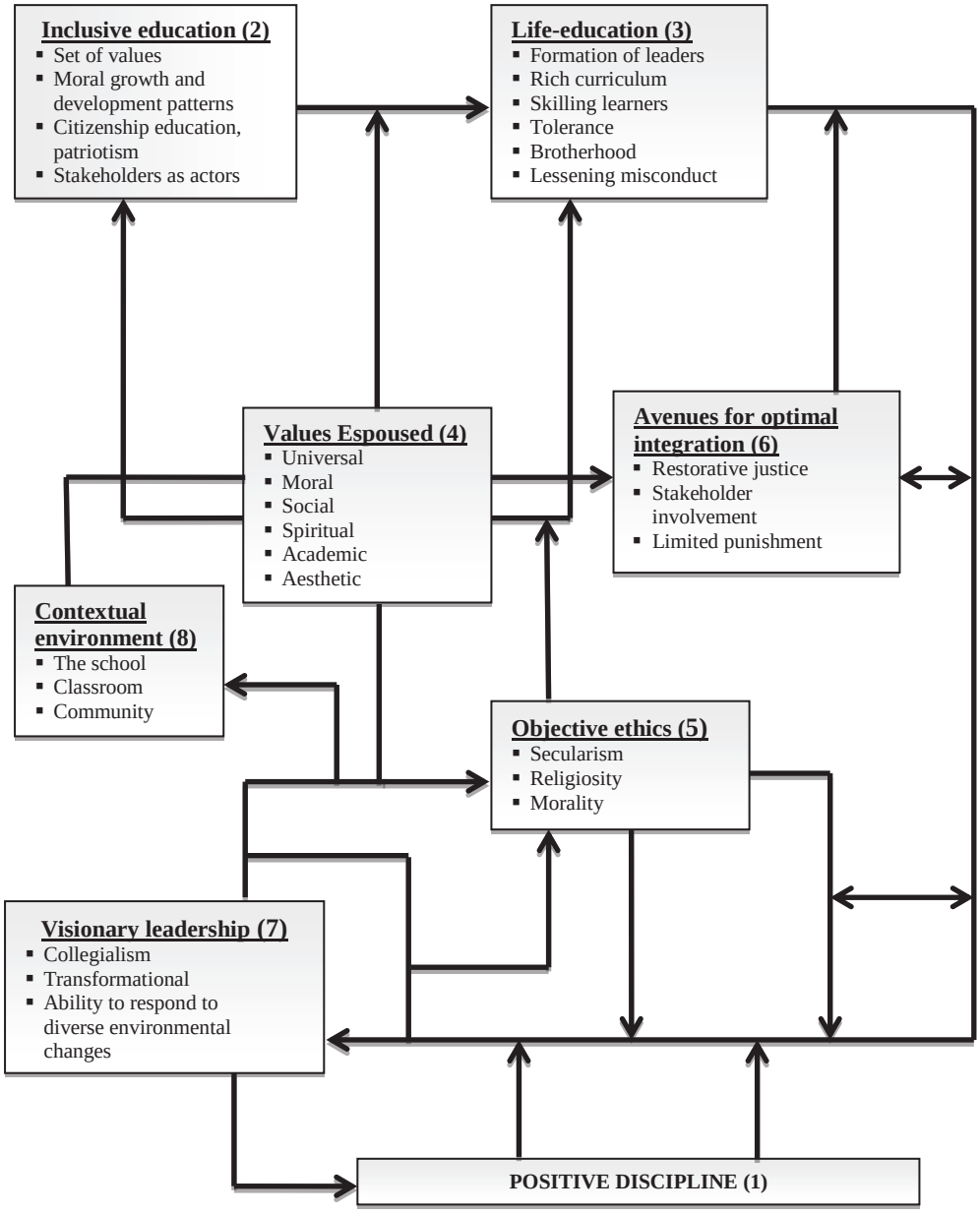
The IVAMO provides a broad framework through which to designate a set of global educational values and supportive mechanisms to aid in infusing these values into the school ethos as builders of positive discipline. The eight metaphorical principles of values integration into school discipline are flexibly developed and applied throughout the process in order to create an environment of positivity as the conduit through which to produce responsible citizens. Learning needs to go beyond looking at knowledge acquisition to include the development of human values in the learners using a metaphysical understanding and identification of key global educational values.

EXPLANATION OF THE INTEGRATED VALUES MODEL (IVAMO)

The IVAMO is developed around the conceptualisation of eight metaphorical pillars which illustrate the process of integrating global educational values into the school process of the curriculum, leadership processes, and the contextual environment which describes the development of the school (See Fig. 1). The eight pillars are collectively employed to shape a values-based school climate in Ugandan schools. This climate, it is noted, fosters positive discipline. With the existence of positive discipline, there is strong assurance that good school

leadership shall smoothly prevail to harness potentials for school development. These cardinal pillars are: 1) inclusive education, 2) life-education, 3) avenues for optimal integration of values, 4) values espoused, 5) objective ethics, 6) visionary leadership, 7) the contextual environment, and 8) positive discipline. The interaction between these metaphorical pillars provides the roadmap to positive school discipline and each of the eight pillars contains specific contents, conditions and dimensions that are pertinent to the development of the IVAMO.

Figure 1: The integrated values model (IVAMO)



Source: Sekiwu, 2013

Metaphorical pillar 1: Positive discipline

In the first metaphorical pillar, positive discipline is expected to be an outcome quadrant after the successful integration of values by educational stakeholders. It constitutes three outstanding socially desirable elements: positive learner behaviour, outcome-based education, redemptive discipline and citizenship education. Lategan (2009) argues that positive discipline is when learners acquire and practise behaviour that is socially desirable for positive learning to take place. When positive learning takes place, school leadership is strengthened to be in position to pursue development change. School development, according to Tillman and Colomina (2000), is enabled where an outcome-based education (OBE) system is pursued. Outcomes-based education, according to Howard (2001), offers the capacity for schools to facilitate positive learning and discipline which are relevant to community and national needs. OBE promotes positive citizenship through creating social entrepreneurs, patriots, professionals, and democratically conscious individuals. Positive discipline is first created within the microcosm of the school through the following important processes:

a) Enacting appropriate rules and regulations;
b) Promoting restorative justice mechanisms that encourage more flexible disciplinary alternatives such as counselling and guidance, role modelling, and curriculum instruction; and
c) Imparting aesthetic, academic and leadership values to the learners (Hunt, 2004).

In other words, positive discipline within the schools will enable the establishment of order, leading to the reduction in deviant behaviour (Knight, 2004:227). When deviancy is reduced, school leadership finds it conducive to influence change (Mugagga *et al*, 2013).

Metaphorical pillar 2: Inclusive education

Metaphorical pillar two paints a picture that through an inclusive educational process, educators manage to integrate relevant educational values into the learners. The inclusive education concept involves a set of values and school leaders (educational stakeholders) to implement the set of values. The expectations or outputs after values integration would be the production of an academic and professional person who is set to contribute to citizenship building. Enabling the set of values to interact reasonably through the educational process would imply that school leadership provides optimal development internally and externally. For example, school leadership needs to invest in academic growth of the schools through recruiting good teachers, buying instructional materials, as well as designing policies conducive to ensuring that school progress is realised.

In this process, the educator plays a role of supporting learning through the manipulation of the curricular demands. On using his or her professional competencies, he or she could clearly articulate the right set of values to the learners with an aim of positively transforming the learners' behavioural pattern and outlook to societal demands. The educator is also charged with the duty of positively transforming learners' behaviour, using curriculum instruction, to reflect the realities of a changing society. The school principal, on the other hand, is charged with the duty of school supervision and the immediate implementation of policy. According to Mugagga *et al* (2013), the principal is a torch bearer who is mandated to bring together educators in an effort to ensure that the right set of values is identified and implemented in the management of discipline and in ensuring the school's development. The school governing body (SGB) is the topmost body charged with school management.

The SGB sets policy and directs policy (Kasibante, 2002). Therefore, besides promoting the interests of the school founders, the SGB must design effective policy that will enhance the smooth integration of moral, spiritual, aesthetic, academic, social and civic values into the education process and the schools. When values are perfectly and totally integrated into schooling, there is an expectation that school development will be realised (Kendziora & Osher, 2009). Finally the learner is also an important factor in school development. The learner must support values integration into school discipline (Rossouw, 2001). This implies that the learner must respect the established set of rules, values and educators' decisions as collective mechanisms for positive school transformation. The learner, finally, must accept the transfer of the discipline learned and the values acquired beyond the school premises to the external society where civic growth takes place.

The community, as a contextual factor, defines the societal demands (Maicibi, 2005), then the school leadership orients child training towards these societal demands (Majmudar, 2008). The school leadership, comprising teachers, administrators, parents, the community leaders and the home, progressively defines the sort of citizenship education and lifelong learning needed to propel positive discipline and education (Malan, 2000). The author tries to examine the fact that school discipline, leadership and school development must end in a full description of citizenship education. The government provides welfare support to schools in order to enable the latter to implement a school leadership programme in the smoothest way possible. Therefore strengthening the socialisation process in building a values education, as Freeman, Wicks and Parmar (2004) mention, would require adopting the stakeholder theory. In adopting a stakeholder theory, therefore, school principals must develop relationships, inspire their stakeholders and create communities where everyone strives to give their best to deliver the right set of values to child education, as well as positioning schools towards sustained development.

Metaphorical pillar 3: Life education

This metaphorical pillar typifies the school to be a centre for life education where there is a formal relationship between the school and the society. Dewey (2008) argues that the only way to prepare for social life is to engage in social life. To form habits of social usefulness and serviceableness apart from any direct social need and motive, apart from any existing social situation, is teaching the child to swim by going through motions outside of the water. The most indispensable condition is left out of account, and the results are correspondingly partial. This preceding observation of Dewey interprets that for life education to take place, educators must identify life values, especially those that are vital to the child and, at the same time, society will benefit from such values. For example, professional skills and knowledge are life values which every developing and developed school must continuously pass onto every student, and the reasons to support this thinking are articulated thus:

a) The school is erected by society to shape learners for society. The process of shaping learners constitutes programmes for lifelong learning such as leadership values. These programmes must therefore be imparted to the learners.

b) At the same time, the school curriculum must address the needs of society, especially elements of national development, as well as enabling learners to acquire a sense of self-respect, honesty and independence as members of some neighbourhood. To do so, is to ensure progressive school development where activities that promote such a curriculum are developed, supported financially and implemented without problems.

c) Life-education is also important in exercising a certain social function by the school and crucial in the process of integrating values into the management of school discipline (Greef, 2005). Through life education, educators training future social leaders ensure that they teach learners to tolerate diversity and universal peace which are the decencies and graces of civilisation.

Metaphorical pillar 4: The educational values

The author argues that increased indiscipline among learners in post-modern Ugandan schools is partly due to a lack of proper articulation of educational values in child training. In order to deal with the question of positive discipline, a set of values important to child education must be identified, assessed and developed. These same values must, later on, be proliferated throughout the school process to maintain a steady development of the school. Values are the yard-stick for the enhancement of good human conduct (Rossouw, 2001). Good education is the process of nurturing the right values-mix that will create in learners a sense of positive citizenship and good moral conduct as elements of progressive school development and holistic education. Without values imparted in the schooling process, educators will not realise positive education. The IVAMO therefore emphasises the following set of values: spiritual values, moral values, aesthetic values, academic values, universal or civic values and social values which provide an instrumentality process that enables school leadership to ensure that learners acquire the right formal education.

Metaphorical pillar 5: The philosophy of objective ethics

In a multicultural society, values are relative choices because they are numerous. Their description varies with variations in social settings. Hence there is a dilemma in defining what constitutes values unless a set of values is provided (Iliescu, 2010). When making a choice of how learners must be educated, schools must adopt both the theist (religious) and atheist (secular) interpretations to be integrated into schooling. According to Brink (2007), the theist position on values dictates that education should be interpreted in a spiritual dichotomy. This implies that God being the source of wisdom and knowledge, all schooling must focus attention to the spiritual reality of knowledge. This view shows the theological obsession of what constitutes values.

On the other hand, the atheist position provides that schooling is a secular affair where knowledge obtained from school is simply to develop, in learners, the ability to appreciate science without emphasis on Godly virtues. Schools are seen as providers of knowledge and skills that will enable learners to have the capacity to reason rationally and change the welfare of society other than focusing knowledge to God (Briley & Wyer, 2001: 199). In a multi-cultural classroom, respect is accorded to both atheists and theists as long as both views are to promote the greater good of education for societal development.

Metaphorical pillar 6: Avenues of values integration

This pillar tries to define the avenues for values integration into the management of school discipline. The avenues can be restorative justice where values are imparted using flexible alternatives that include counselling, career guidance, mentoring, and the use of social clubs and coaching of learners mixed with close supervision of the progress in terms of behaviour exhibited after the programme (Smith, 2009; Sekiwu, 2013). Again, educational stakeholders such as teachers, administration, the community and parent must participate collectively in managing school discipline. Stakeholder involvement is intended to maximise shareholder value as part of

building strong corporate governance in schools. It gives school management a greater capability to deal with the discipline challenge, as well as supporting strong school development programmes because people have a common voice (Mathieson, 2005). In an era when organisations are committed to value-chain partnerships, it is quite natural to suggest that stakeholder collective participation into school development is increasingly crucial. For example, the parents- teachers' association (PTA) framework and the school governing body (SGB) are common platforms for enabling this collective effort (Mayega, 2010). Collective stakeholder engagement in school affairs helps to breed collegial leadership for greater emancipation. People in a partnership arrangement tend to work as a team which is important in fostering accountability.

Metaphorical pillar 7: Visionary leadership

Implementing school values in a successful way, promoting worthy leadership and the resultant school development require the presence of visionary leadership (Leithwood, Karen, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). Visionary leadership has two functions, namely "providing direction" and "exercising influence." Without direction and a degree of influence, it is hard to implement the IVAMO as a tool for enhancing commitment among every stakeholder of the school. Visionary leadership influences the interpretation of events for followers, the choice of objectives for the school, the organisation of work activities to accomplish objectives, the motivation of followers to achieve the objectives, the maintenance of cooperative relationships and teamwork and the enlistment of support and cooperation from people outside the group or organisation. All these processes are fundamental to a successful leadership of the school and increased development of the same. Therefore if schools are to maintain positive discipline, good school leadership and change for improved school development, they must project a strong visionary leadership structure.

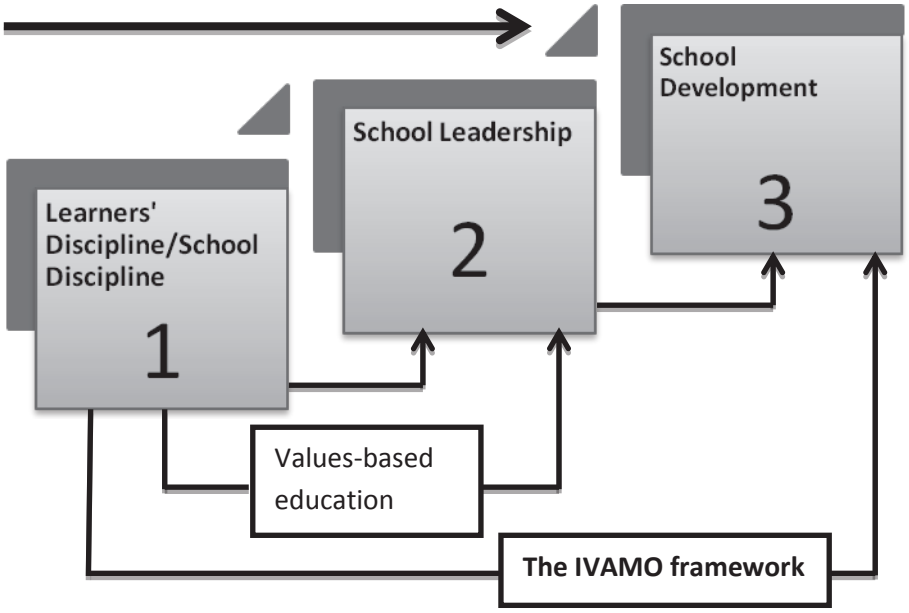
According to Lee (2000), if school principals are to get the best out of the educators whom they lead and manage, they need to understand what makes educators tick. In this way, they need visionary leadership styles that will enable them to appreciate what kind of things enthuse and challenge educators, what gives them a "buzz", what interests and preoccupies them, what has them walking six inches off the ground, what sends them home happy and satisfied. Leithwood (2001) says that visionary leaders know what irritates and angers educators. They also know what hurts educators and what makes them dread going to work. Leithwood is trying to explicate the power of visionary leadership in the campaign to make schools progressively important. Thus visionary leaders must be at the centre of ensuring that discipline is integrated into schooling, leadership is strong and school development becomes the resultant support function of the modern school.

Metaphorical pillar 8: The contextual factors

Every organisational arrangement must define critical contextual environments. These contextual environments must enable a values-education programme to take lead in school programming. This interaction defines the professional learning community (PLC) in which values are cast and implemented. In a professional learning community (PLC), all stakeholders are invited to take part in shaping the destiny of school education. There are several programmes therefore that describe a PLC and these could be professional teacher development programmes to equip them with the skills to enable quality transpire. There is also the development of collegial management, supervision and implementation of school policy. This is so because all a school's actors are supposed to give an equally supportive measure to the advancement of their school. In other words, for good leadership and development to take place, all stakeholders must accept working as a team to see to it that the disciplinary programme, school leadership profile, and development of the school are entirely on par and implemented optimally. In the contextual

environment, the school therefore defines the character of the learner through a character education paradigm. The classroom defines the sort of curriculum to pass on to the learner through a pedagogical paradigm. Finally the community, through a multi-cultural paradigm, defines the diverse experiences in which values are transmitted and optimally clarified.

Figure 2: Linking school discipline, school leadership and school development through the IVAMO framework



Source: Sekiwu, 2013

WAY FORWARD AND CONCLUSION

The quality of formal education is determined by the nature of the products of schooling (Türkkahraman, 2012). If the products of schooling cannot cope ably with societal demands, then the quality of education is questionable. In order therefore to ensure that quality education transpires in Ugandan schools, three supporting variables must be articulated in a chronological order (Fig.2) and these are positive discipline, school leadership and school development. But fundamental to all of them is the idea of positive school discipline. Without a disciplined school environment, one cannot expect good leadership and increased school development. This is so because discipline provides people or learners, in this sense, with the inherent capacity to respect decisions and adhere to change without deviant submissions. Leaders in schools will therefore influence those segments where there is a sizeable degree of order, sanity and caring.

The discipline model relies on the ability of educators to define a set of values which they then implement in school education. The values-based education which is defined by educators is the basis upon which positive discipline is built. Positive discipline, in this sense, refers to the capacity to change learners' behaviour to reflect appropriate citizenship values. Citizenship provides the process of equating education with societal demands. Therefore, the products of education are judged by their inherent capacity to positively change society or cope with the

ever-changing social, moral, cultural, universal and democratic demands of society. However, discipline lays the ground for leadership in schools. When the learner is disciplined, it implies that school heads can easily influence actions and control behaviour in order to ensure increased school performance. Therefore, good school leadership must compel school development to take place because good leaders have the capacity to make decisions that aim at promoting the development of schools. Figure 2 shows that for learners' discipline to progressively ensure good leadership, a set of values has to be in place. It means that in the process of managing school discipline, values have to be defined and these values, in turn, define the sort of desired discipline that educators impart in learners. Then positive discipline will, in turn, allow school leadership to influence decisions that enable the implementation of programmes that promote school development in terms of improved performance, professional development, visionary leadership and a culture of change.

For this entire argument to prevail, the content of the IVAMO framework must interconnect freely but in a results-oriented manner. It means that all the eight metaphorical pillars of the IVAMO framework are at work and each, when diagnosed properly, articulates its inner processes. Therefore the development of any school must depend holistically on visionary leadership. But visionary leadership is made possible when there is a conducive climate of positive discipline in schools. Positive discipline is further defined by a values-education programme. This entire complexion is expressed in the IVAMO framework for positive school discipline and development.

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INFLUENCE OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY PROGRAMMES OF MULTINATIONAL OIL CORPORATIONS ON PEACE DEVELOPMENT IN NIGER DELTA NIGERIA

O.O. Okoji[1]

ABSTRACT

The study adopted an ex post facto descriptive survey research of the influence of corporate social responsibility programmes of multinational oil corporations on peace development in the Niger Delta, Nigeria.

The stratified random sampling technique was used to select 1126 residents from twelve communities in the Akwa-Ibom and Rivers State. These two states were selected because the multinational oil corporations (MNCs) operate mainly in the areas prone to conflict. The purposive sampling technique was used to select 50 officials each from Exxon Mobil and Total Exploration. The Host Community Multinational Oil Responsibility Inventory (HCMORS) (r = 0.74) and Multinational Oil Corporations Company Officials' Scale MOCOS (r = 0.71) were used complemented by focus group discussions held with residents of the selected communities. One hypothesis and a research question were answered and tested at the 0.05 level of significance. Data were analysed using descriptive and Pearson's Product Moment Correlation. The result of the influence of Multinational Oil Corporations Corporate Social Responsibility on peace building is as follows r = .029, N = 1126, P >.05. Provision of good drinking water $\bar{X}$ = 2.6980, renovation of hospital $\bar{X}$ = 2.6980, solution to electricity problems $\bar{X}$ =2.6522, educational development $\bar{X}$ =2.5853, road construction $\bar{X}$ = 2.3002, peaceful relationship $\bar{X}$ = 2.2691, economic empowerment $\bar{X}$ = 2.0870. The study will help the multinational oil corporations' officials to understand the reasons for the conflict in the region and also the effect of such conflict on their operations and its economic impact on the host communities. If the MNCs operating in Niger Delta follow the principle of corporate integrity, they will be able to reach out to the host communities in their area of operations and this will help them to maintain cordial relationships with these communities.

Keywords: Corporate integrity; conflict resolution; peace building; Niger Delta.

INTRODUCTION

The concept of corporate social responsibility embraces the notion that organizations have moral, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities in addition to their usual responsibility to earn a fair return for investors and comply with the law (Carrol and Bucholtz, 2003). It requires corporate organizations to embrace a broader view of their responsibilities to include not only stockholders but also stakeholders. The concept of corporate social responsibility is closely related to the call in the 1960s and 1970s by civil rights movements, environmentalists and consumer societies for large scale business organizations to take on their responsibilities (Afinotan and Ojakorutu,

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2009). Corporate social responsibility is based on the idea that corporate organizations, rather than being instrumental to societal problems should participate in solving them. In this respect, business organizations are expected to pay more attention to business-related responsibilities such as equal employment opportunities and they should voluntarily participate in solving the problems in their area of operations whether they had caused them or not (Afinotan and Ojakorutu, 2009).

Conflict management and resolution is a familiar theme in several public and academic forums in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. Community leaders, social crusaders, environmental activists and academics have all been engaged in seeking solutions to the incessant conflicts between Multinational Oil Corporations (MNOCs) and their host communities in the region. It is evident that the business climate of the oil industry, especially in the Niger Delta, has largely been unfavourable due to incessant conflict between oil corporations and the local community (Asawo, 2011).

The flip side of conflict is peace. Laue (1991) defined peace as a process of continuous and constructive management of differences towards the goal of more mutually satisfying relations, the prevention of escalation of violence and the achievement of those conditions that exemplify the universal well-being of human beings and their groups from the family to culture and the state. Efemini (2005) posited that peace is a dialectical concept that has character and therefore to understand the character of peace in the Niger Delta region, there is the need for the multinational oil corporations to appreciate the political economy of oil production within the context of the Nigerian state.

The objectives of the study include the following:

- To examine the factors contributing to the conflict between the host communities and multinational oil corporations in Niger Delta Region.
- To identify the role played by the multinational oil corporations in the settlement of conflict through their corporate social responsibility programmes.
- To examine the effect of the crises in the Niger Delta on the socio-economic development in Nigeria.

Statement of Problem

The social and environmental costs of oil production have been very extensive and includes the destruction of wildlife and biodiversity, loss of fertile land, pollution of air and drinking water, degradation of farmland and damage of ecosystems, all of which have caused serious conflict and the destruction of oil pipes belonging to the officials of multinational oil corporations in Rivers State and Akwa-Ibom State. All these activities have a negative effect on the oil production operations of Exxon Mobil and Total E & P in the two states.

Hypothesis

HO_1: There is no significant relationship between the corporate social responsibility initiatives or programmes of multinational oil corporations and peace building.

The study area was limited to the areas explained below.

Delta, Nigeria

The geographical Niger Delta is estimated to cover an area of between 19 100 km^2 to 30,000 km^2 based on hydrological, ecological as well as political boundaries (Keddy, 2010; Ibe, 1988; Merki, 1972; Murat, 1972). Rivers State and Akwa lbom are low-lying areas with an elevation of not more than 3.0 metres above sea level and are generally covered by fresh water, swamps, mangrove swamps, lagoon, marshes, tidal channels, beach ridges and sand bars along their aquatic fronts. The research area has a characteristic tropical monsoon climate at the coast with rainfall peaks in June and September/October with a prevailing tropical maritime air mass almost all year round with little seasonal changes in wind directions (Olaniran, 1986). The annual mean total rainfall is about 2,500mm. The mean monthly temperature range is 24-25^oC during the rainy season in August and 27-29^oC during the end of dry season in March/April (Dami, Odihi and Ayuba, 2014). The region is criss-crossed with tributaries and creeks. This area has been classified geomorphologically as tidal flat and large flood plains lying between mean, low and high tides. The major occupation of the people is fishing and farming (Okoji, 2012).

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The study adopted the descriptive survey design of the *ex-post facto type*. This research design was adopted because the variables of the study are already in existence. Thus, the researcher could not manipulate the independent variables because they had already occurred.

Population of the Study

The population in the study was in two categories. The first were the inhabitants of twelve oil producing communities in Akwa-lbom and Rivers State, while the second category was made up of officials of the Total E & P and Exxon Mobil Nigeria Limited.

Sample and Sampling Technique

The study adopted two major research methods namely, quantitative and qualitative. There were two different sets of samples. One sample was meant for the quantitative research segment while the other was the sample for the qualitative research segment.

This study adopted the multi-stage sampling procedure comprising the purposive, stratified and proportionate sampling techniques respectively. In stage 1, the purposive sampling procedure was used to select the 12 communities, 6 from each state. The reason for this was the heavy presence of the two multinational oil corporations in these communities. The stratified sampling technique was then used to divide the population into strata.

In the second stage, 12 communities were divided into stratums (strata) along the existing wards in each of the community, using the stratified sampling technique. The communities used for the study in Akwa-lbom were Iwuochang, Ussung Inyang, Ukpenekang, Ebana, Essit Urua and Mkanak. In Rivers State, the following communities were used for the study; Egita, Obite, Obiyebe, Ibewa, Akabta and Ogbo.

The third stage, quota sampling technique, was adopted to allocate quota (specific number) for each of the different categories of the study population which comprised community leaders, youth, men and women in each of the communities.

The researcher adopted the simple random and proportionate sampling technique to select 1200 respondents needed for the study. One hundred (100) questionnaires were administered to the officials of multinational oil corporations.

Research Instrument

Two major instruments were used for data collection. These were the Host Communities Multinational Oil Relationship Scale (HCMORS) and Multinational Oil Conflict Management Scale (MOCMS). A focus group discussion was used to complement and supplement data derived from the questionnaire. Copies of the data collection instrument were given to experts in the field of Community Education, Community Development, Sociology, Measurement and Evaluation for critical appraisal. Through this process, the face validity, content and construct validity of the instrument was enhanced.

The questionnaires were pre-tested in Okarioma community in Okrika Local Government in Rivers State. Fifty copies of questionnaire were administered to fifty respondents during the pre-test. This was to ensure that the items raised under the instruments conformed to what it is expected to address. The pilot study was done by selecting 50 respondents from Okarioma community in Okrika Local Government of Rivers State. The reason for this was because Okarioma is one of the communities where oil exploration takes place and the community is prone to conflict. The questionnaire was administered on the respondents and after two weeks, the same instrument was re-administered on the same set of respondents. Thus, the results were analysed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and the tests yielded coefficients of r = 0.74 for HCMORS while r = 0.71 for MOCMS respectively. This signified that the test items were consistent in their measuring values and so confirmed the high reliability of the instrument.

Method of Data Analysis

The data was collated and analysed using simple percentages and frequency counts for the demographic data of the respondents. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance, while mean and standard deviation were used to analyse the research questions raised in the study.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Research Hypothesis

Hypothesis One**:** There is no significant relationship between the corporate social responsibility programmes of multinational oil corporations and peace building.

Table 1: Relationship between the corporate social responsibility programmes of multinational oil corporations and peace building in Akwa-lbom and Rivers State

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	N	r	P	Remark
Multinational Oil	15.8135	3.5569				
Corporations and Peace Building	3.8792	1.4359	1126	.029	.325	n.s.

Table 1 shows that there was no significant relationship between the corporate social responsibility programmes of multinational oil corporations and peace building (r = .029, N= 1126, P > .05). This indicates that the corporate social responsibility of multinational oil corporations has not enhanced peace building in the two states.

The findings show that the two states used for the study were prone to conflicts due to the neglect of the states despite the huge revenue that accrued to the two multinational oil corporations as a result of their oil exploration in Akwa lbom and Rivers State.

This is in accordance with a report by Ibeanu (2006) that the socio economic condition of the people is worrisome as 73% of the people lack access to safe drinking water, while about 70% of household lack electricity and the poverty level in the region is very high.

It was revealed in the study that the slow response and the laissez-faire attitude of the multinational oil corporations to the socio-economic plights of the host communities in the two states used for the study is another factor that can be traced to the conflict in the region. The finding is in agreement with the opinion of Ikelegbe (2005) that the youths have been known to harass and disrupt the operations of several oil corporations in order to compel employment of community youth. Apart from this, the findings also correlate with the assertion of Nzeshi (2002) that when the multinational oil corporations failed to respond or responded slowly, they stop Multinational Oil Corporations production, take over or even vandalize oil facilities, take hostages and seize vehicles and properties.

In the focus group discussion (FGD) conducted in Egita community of Rivers State on 24th of April 2012, the findings of the study contradicted the report of a paramount ruler in Egita community in Rivers State. The FGD report revealed that the relationship between the officials of the multinational oil corporations and the host communities was cordial because they provided good roads, potable water and a stable electricity supply in their areas of operations in Rivers State.

In a similar focus group discussion held during 2002 with youth leaders in Mkanak in Akwa lbom State, it was revealed that the host communities' farmland and seawater have been destroyed by Exxon Mobil as a result of their oil exploration activities. This has been the major reason for the conflict between the host communities and multinational oil corporation officials. This correlates with the assertion of Babatunde (2008) that pollution from oil spills have destroyed marine life by making water unsuitable for fishing and rendering many hectares of farmland unusable, thereby aggravating conflict in the region.

The study revealed that the slow response and the nonchalant attitude of the multinational oil corporations to the socio-economic plights of the host communities in the two states used for the study are other factors that can be traced to the conflict in the region. The finding is in agreement with the opinion of Ikelegbe (2005) that the youths have been known to harass and disrupt operations of several oil corporations to compel employment of community youth. Apart from this, the findings also correlate with the assertion of Nzeshi (2002) that when multinational oil corporations fail to respond or respond slowly, they disrupt or stop Multinational Oil Corporations productions, take over or even vandalize oil facilities, take hostages and seize vehicles and properties.

RQ 1: To what extent does the corporate social responsibility programmes of multinational oil corporations meet the felt needs of the host communities in Akwa lbom and Rivers State?

Table 2: Multinational oil companies' social responsibility towards the host communities

s/n	Social Responsibility	SD	D	A	SA	M	S.D.
1	The multinational oil corporations have helped to provide good drinkable water	195 17.3%	250 22.2%	331 29.4%	350 31.1%	2.7425	1.0772
2	They have renovated hospitals and donated drugs in our community	274 24.3%	122 10.8%	400 35.5%	330 29.3%	2.6980	1.1335

3	They have solved the electricity problems in the community	241 21.4%	215 19.1%	359 31.9%	311 27.6%	2.6572	1.0986
4	They have compensated the community members who were affected by oil spills and gas flaring	215 19.1%	323 28.7%	274 24.3%	314 27.9%	2.6101	1.0856
5	They have constructed classroom buildings in our community	300 26.6%	197 17.5%	299 26.6%	330 29.3%	2.5853	1.1675
6	The multinational oil corporations have constructed roads in our communities	371 32.9%	293 26.0%	215 19.1%	247 21.9%	2.3002	1.1441
7	The multinational oil corporations have maintained peaceful relationship with the community members	314 27.9%	370 32.9%	267 23.7%	175 15.5%	2.2691	1.0326
8	They have supplied drug to these hospitals	420 37.3%	279 24.8%	315 28.0%	112 9.9%	2.1057	1.0200
9	They have encouraged educational development through the Scholarship they awarded our children	420 37.3%	317 28.2%	259 23.0%	130 11.5%	2.0879	1.0286
10	They have given loans to the fishermen and farmers in the community	370 32.9%	420 37.3%	204 18.1%	132 11.7%	2.0870	0.9859

The multinational oil corporations have helped to provide good drinking water, (Mean=2.7425) which was ranked highest by the mean score rating. It was revealed through the findings that the multinational oil corporations have provided drinkable water in their area of operations. This correlates with the report of Touching Lives, (2004) that in the area of water supply, Total Exploration and Production Unlimited also provides potable pipe-borne water for its host communities. The water schemes, which are of World Health Organization standard, are centrally located at Akabta, Akabuka, Amah, Erema, Obukegi, Obagi, Obite and Obiyebe.

This was followed by the report that the multinational oil corporations have renovated hospitals in their area of operation with a mean of 2.6980. Total Exploration & Production Unlimited, in partnership with Nigeria National Petroleum Corporation, constructed a hospital valued at fifty-eight million naira in Obagi community in Rivers State and donated two ambulance vehicles (Touching Lives, 2004).

Apart from this, the findings revealed further that multinational oil corporations have solved the electricity problems in this communities (mean=2.6572). This confirms the assertion of Idemudia (2004) that the efforts of Mobil Producing Nigeria were in the area of health care, education, road construction, electricity and water supply. The report also agrees with Touching Lives (2004) that the Egi electrification scheme was the most ambitious and comprehensive community development programme undertaken by the NNPC/Total Exploration and Production Unlimited joint venture in 2003. The finding revealed that the multinational oil corporations have compensated those affected by oil spills (mean = 2.6101).

The findings also indicated that the multinational oil corporations have constructed classroom buildings and have renovated some classrooms in their area of operation (mean=2.5853).

The findings revealed further that the multinational oil corporations have constructed roads in the communities (mean=2.3002). The result tallies with the report of Touching Lives (2004) about the road construction that was embarked upon by Total E & P Nigeria Limited. The road construction was in three phases and started in 2001. Under phase one of the project, 20km of the asphalted 6m wide road was constructed to link all communities in Egi from Erema through Obukegi, Akabta, Obiozimini and Obite.

The multinational oil corporations have maintained peaceful relationships with the community members (mean=2.2691). The findings show that multinational oil corporations have not

maintained a peaceful relationship with the host communities because the method adopted by the multinational oil corporation was too tyrannical and barbaric. This correlates with the assertion of Odoemena (2011) that the official response of the government and multinational oil corporations has been further repression of the agitators through the deployment of military troops and mobile police units with appropriate instructions.

The study further revealed that the multinational oil corporations have not supplied drugs to the hospitals (mean = 2.1057). This tallies with the personal communication of the FGD female participant in Ogbo community in Rivers State that the host communities have no access to drugs and intensive health care.

The finding revealed that multinational oil corporations have not encouraged educational development through scholarship programmes (mean=2.0879). The personal interview conducted with participants in Esit Urua in Akwa lbom where the female participant asserted that the multinational oil corporations have not contributed to educational development through scholarships.

Finally, the finding shows that the multinational oil corporations have not empowered the host communities economically with a mean=2.0870), which correlates with the opinion of all the participants in the focus group discussion conducted in Eginta community in Rivers State who stated that Total E & P Nigeria Limited has not economically empowered the entire community members and their neighbourhood.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

- Multinational Oil Corporations, in adopting the conflict management model (CMM) to address the increasing challenge of company-community conflict in the Niger Delta, should not only emphasise the development of their corporate integrity capacity but more importantly improve their corporate integrity communication competence.
- The success of peace making initiatives programmes in the Niger Delta communities will be guaranteed providing the unequal exchange relationship that placed the region in a disadvantaged position is properly addressed by multinational oil corporations.
- Peace is a dialectical concept that has character and therefore to understand the character of peace in the Niger Delta region, there is the need for the multinational oil corporations to appreciate the political economy of oil production within the context of the Nigerian state.

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EMBRACING NETWORKED JOURNALISM BETWEEN SHALLOWNESS AND DEPTH (A QUALITATIVE VIEW)

V. Kaul[1]

ABSTRACT

It is widely acknowledged that today's news media are changing radically. New forms of what is coming to be known as 'networked journalism' are increasingly visible. This new form of networked journalism based on new media is changing the core of news production and consumption, challenging the business models of the past and the efforts of traditional journalism organisations to control the news. In today's interactive digital information environment, journalists lose the power to define what makes and shapes the news. Media outlets now manoeuvre through a space characterised by continuous information flows, and share communication paths with new information providers in an online, always-on environment. This article sketches this dynamic sphere and introduces the paradigm of 'network journalism'. Structured around digital networks, the sphere of network journalism unravels evolving patterns of information production. The task for journalistic organisations now is to figure out how to include the many traditional and alternative information nodes in their everyday work. The loss of control over a formerly strictly regulated information-exchange sphere is viewed here as an opportunity for journalism to review its practices.

However, as journalists take on new roles and more voices are heard, there is a growing need to understand the implications of the new forms of boundary crossing that are being encouraged by this new form of journalism. Emerging forms of journalism may provide a foundation for public dialogue that enables stories about distant others to be told and better understood. The consequence may be that there will be new opportunities for enhanced sharing of viewpoints. Although convergent media platforms create opportunities for new exchanges, there are reasons to question whether the potential will be met.

Keywords: Networked journalism; traditional journalism; digital environment; media platform.

INTRODUCTION

Ever since the emergence of the journalistic profession, the practices in this field have been constantly evolving, leading gradually to patterns that can be called rituals of the profession. Working practices have appeared, developed and changed in accordance with various factors that have shaped and reshaped the frames within which journalists work. There is no doubt that these practices are still continuing to evolve. In a technology-driven process of accelerated change, journalism is being transformed in the ways in which it is produced, distributed, and used. We are witnessing the emergence of new tools and practices, phenomena that are yielding both a flurry of new ways to produce information and a redefinition of the place of professional journalism in this new information system. This spate of technological and other deep social shifts means there is no way that journalism can avoid radical change. Perhaps it needs to go much further, more quickly. Journalism is now permeable, interactive, 24/7, multi-platform, disaggregated and converged. A couple of general elections in some countries have made it

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absolutely clear that networked journalism has arrived. The journalism about the campaign, the result and its consequences has been a remarkable combination of online and mainstream, professional and citizen media. The question now is whether that added value can be produced in the future and in other areas of journalism.

The guru of networked journalism is US media blogger, entrepreneur and teacher, Jeff Jarvis, who says that journalism can and must expand even as the institutions that do journalism shrink (2007). The future is 'pro-am journalism', doing things together. In the digital environment in which journalists now work, new facts are being unearthed daily; more audience feedback is being integrated; more voices are being heard; more diverse perspectives on the same news stories are being presented; more stories are available, archived and searchable for longer periods of time; more men and women of power are being watched more closely; and more people are engaged more actively with the changes in the world - by taking photos or making videos of key moments, by commenting on blogs, or by sharing the stories that matter to them. This dynamic landscape of continuous and diversified witnessing and reporting does not represent a crisis of journalism, but rather an explosion of it. In fact, the profession seems to be more alive than ever and going through a multiplication of both forms and content at amazing speed.

A better term for what has been called ‘citizen journalism’, ‘social media’ or ‘grassroots media’, might be ‘networked journalism’. The approach towards coining ‘network journalism’ differs significantly from preliminary approaches of scholars who have used the term. Network journalism as well as the variation ‘networked journalism’ have appeared in publications over the past years, however infrequently, within different contexts and carrying various connotations. ‘Networked journalism’ has various synonyms such as ‘participatory journalism’, ‘stand-alone journalism’, ’citizen journalism’, ‘open-source journalism’ and ‘distributed reporting’. Without reflection, they all mean the same thing and are used interchangeably by most people - where citizens play an active or integral role in the collection, reporting, distilling, filtering and broadcasting of news and information. Networked journalism in the present context is not the same as citizen journalism (Gillmor, 2004). The former is understood to retain the essential functions of traditional journalism, that is, to report, analyse and comment, filter, edit and disseminate. In the case of networked journalism, throughout the process of news production the use of digital and online technologies is at the heart of the process of newsgathering, processing and dissemination. The news process itself, however, changes from a linear to a networked process whereby there is constant communication and interaction with information.

Networked journalism is creating – or some would say reflecting – a new relationship between the journalist, the story and the public. Newsrooms are no longer fortresses for the Fourth Estate; they are hubs at the centre of endless networks. News is no longer a product that flops onto your doormat or springs into life at the flick of a remote control. It is now a non-linear process, a multi-directional interaction. And journalism is no longer a self-contained manufacturing industry. It is now a service industry that creates and connects flows of information, analysis and commentary. It seems to be accepted now that becoming more networked is essential for journalism in an era of social media.

Beckett (2010) argues that networked journalism creates value for journalism in three ways. First, it foments editorial diversity, creating more substantial and varied news reports. Second, it produces connectivity and interactivity by distributing news in different ways. Third, it enhances relevance of news reports by relating audiences and subjects to create new editorial and ethical relationship to the news. The author believes a fourth element, namely networked journalism helps to increase trust, should be included in this list. Media outlets increase trust and credibility when they provide links to their source material or answer questions publicly from their readers.

These four benefits should provide motivation for journalism instructors and practitioners to embrace the methods that create networked journalism.

Scholars see networked journalism providing a variety of benefits. According to Beckett (2010), the practice generates editorial diversity - increasing the sources of information - to help create more substantive, authoritative, and varied news reports. Duffy (2011) also notes the increase in credibility. Outlets practising networked journalism increase trust when they provide links to their source material or publicly answer questions from their audiences. Journalism expert, Jay Rosen, calls linking to other sites or sources part of the "ethic of the Web" that is a focused on providing verification as a means to "connect knowledge to people" (2008). The refusal of news sites to provide links goes against the "ethic of the Web" and the natural tendencies of Web audiences.

Journalism is at its best when it is at its most reflexive and responsive. Networked journalism is a valuable enterprise. In a world of complex economic crisis, climate change, migration and conflict we desperately need better journalism. In an age of increasing education and individualism there is a growing demand for more open, accessible and informative news media. People like journalism so much they are prepared to help create it themselves – for free. This report is an attempt to highlight how we can deliver that through a journalism that values the public as well as the public value of what we do. Today's globalised network communication shapes new interactive formats, relevant not only for the dissemination, but, increasingly, for the production of news. The 'one-way' flow of news from a news outlet to the audience has been replaced by a network structure. One of the key benefits of networked journalism is the presumed increase in trust and credibility that accompanies such reporting. Trust increases when audiences receive links to information sources, engage in conversations with journalists, and see the news as a collaboration of resources rather than simply a delivered product. Following Manuel Castells's concept of the 'Network' (1996; 2001) as the central model of information structures in our 21st century Information Age, it is argued in this paper that *networks* transform the professional journalism sphere in many world regions in quite similar ways and create new forms of journalistic practice. A globalised journalistic network sphere is taking shape which involves mainstream journalistic outlets *and* bloggers, independently operating journalists in various corners of the world *and* so-called 'user-generated content'-providers alike. Within this sphere, an increasingly global flow of news is evolving which can be characterised by a new form of connectivity which establishes new (and continuous!) links between journalists, their sources *as well as* their audiences.

As the roles of journalists in this revised news sphere change, the dynamics of newsgathering, production and dissemination are transforming and public service broadcasters are being challenged through new journalistic 'network' practices. In fact, a multiple platform structure of journalism is taking shape in which boundaries between traditional media outlets of print, radio, and television and between national and 'foreign' journalism are blurring and merging online. Information spheres begin to merge and influence each other. Bloggers, so-called user-generated content providers, citizen journalists or media activists have entered the global sphere of information exchange and have become a vital part of the news exchange chain. A new level of connectivity is emerging that demarcates the end of a 'closed' journalism sphere in which a very small number of 'gatekeepers' secured journalism as "broadcasting to the masses" (Chaffee & Metzger, 2001: 369). The 'traditional' "one-way, hub-and-spoke structure, with unidirectional links to its ends, running from center to the periphery" (Benkler, 2006: 179) is being eroded.

Networked journalism is much more than a few blogs. It is about professional journalists recognising the full range of new media platforms and the role of the public throughout the journalistic process. It is about using their own blogs to reveal their workings and to invite

comment and contributions. It is about using techniques such as crowd-sourcing to involve the citizen in the process of gathering information. It is about allowing a flow of user-generated-content as part of the reporting, rather than a separate item. It is about feed-in as well as feed-back.

On the basis of these introductory reflections, it is argued that organisational structures in today's print, broadcast and online platforms need to be reassessed according to the dynamics of an evolving global news sphere – not least through developing a 'new' sense of connectivity. Within this evolving global news sphere, information flows are in fact multidirectional. A 'network' character of communication is taking shape based on a 'network' structure of journalism in which decentralisation and non-linearity are the key parameters defining news flows at the beginning of the twenty-first century. The basis of this evolving journalism culture is the structural pattern of what has come to be called 'network journalism.'

However, a more networked news media allows for greater public participation but it does not assure public control of its consequences. New networked journalism is providing an historic opportunity to use journalism for certain liberal, democratic and humanistic ends. Networked journalism as a synthesis between mainstream journalism and citizen activism is a compromise mode of co-production of news. It therefore contains the seeds of failure as well as progress.

NETWORKED JOURNALISM

Some scholars prefer to use the term 'networked journalism' to describe the current incarnation of participatory, interactive, stand-alone, open-source journalism or distributed reporting: without reflection, they all mean the same thing and are used interchangeably by most people. I do think network journalism should enter the lexicon of citizen media more, but I do not know whether it should replace 'citizen journalism'. What is suggested is a further refining of the various types of citizen journalism acts. Network journalism rests its fate on two principles: First, the 'wisdom of the crowd', the notion that a large network of people will have a collective intelligence that is greater than that of any single reporter. The second is 'crowdsourcing'; in this case crowdsourcing is the idea that a group of people will be able to tackle a large investigation in a more efficient manner than a single reporter.

New media expert Jeff Jarvis first coined the term "networked journalism" in 2006, suggesting it as a better term than "citizen journalism." Networked journalism means opening up the production process from start to finish - and beyond. It already has the tools: email, mobile phones, digital cameras, online editing, web-cams, texting and remote controls. These are channelled through new communication processes such as crowd-sourcing, Twitter, YouTube, and wikis as well as blogs and Internet Protocol television (IPTV). Networked journalism in the present context is not the same as citizen journalism (Gillmor, 2004). The former is understood to retain the essential functions of traditional journalism, that is, to report, analyse and comment, filter, edit and disseminate. In the case of networked journalism, throughout the process of news production the use of digital and online technologies is at the heart of the process of newsgathering, processing and dissemination. The news process itself, however, changes from a linear to a networked process whereby there is constant communication and interaction with information.

By 'networked journalism' a synthesis of traditional news journalism and the emerging forms of participatory media enabled by Web 2.0 technologies such as mobile phones, email, websites, blogs, micro-blogging, and social networks is understood. It demands concepts such as flow, creativity, crowdsourcing, intelligence, wikinomics and open/user-driven innovations. Networked journalism allows the public to be involved in every aspect of journalism production through crowd-sourcing, interactivity, hyper-linking, user-generated content and forums. It

changes the creation of news from being linear and top-down to a collaborative process. Not all news production will be particularly networked. Not many citizens want to be journalists for much of their time. But the principles of networking are increasingly practised in all forms of news media.

Networked journalism is a process, not a product. The journalist still reports, edits and packages the news. But the process is continually shared. The networked journalist changes from being a gatekeeper who delivers to a facilitator who connects. The emerging forms of networked journalism are strongly collaborative insofar as professional journalists and amateurs often work together. Frequently, boundaries are crossed within the production process as a means of sharing facts, raising questions, producing answers and ideas, and challenging differing perspective (Jarvis, 2007). This new form of journalism raises many ethical issues and it presents us with a paradox. It embraces the potential for both greater understanding and also misunderstanding to occur. This is because each boundary that is crossed in the production and consumption of networked journalism enables an increasingly wide range of different viewpoints, languages, cultures, values and goals to be encountered. As they are encountered, they are likely to affect people's everyday lives and their perceptions of distant others in ways that are increasingly unpredictable.

Networked journalism is about a shift in power. If you allow the public to help drive your agenda, you are sharing editing. By gathering from the public you are compromising your ownership of editorial material. You are losing control of authority and impartiality. Some people see these as grave dangers. I do not. The Internet and its applications, including blogs, web sites, and new online social networks or cyber communities, represent a huge change for the media. It is clear that online spaces for discussion and dialogue are playing an increasingly significant role in people's lives where they have affordable access to such spaces (Livingstone & Bober, 2005). Some argue that the digital environment and the Internet make possible a "space of flaws" (Castells, 2001) and it is within this uncertain and complex space that perceptions of risk of insecurity of mind or body may be heightened and that trust in authoritative viewpoints may be reduced (Bauman, 2000; Beck, 1992). Boundary crossing enabled by networked journalism allows for, and may even encourage, disorienting experiences in a variety of ways (Chouliaraki, 2006).

Just as it contains the seeds of the possibility of greater understanding of difference, it also may heighten the possibility of misunderstanding. Frequently, when the new online spaces are privileged, the significance of mundane, familiar practices that happen in near and distant places are discounted, despite the fact that they are encountered every day through the media. The new forms of news media support diaspora communities in many ways, enabling people to maintain ties with towns, countries, cultural, religious and political groupings, but, at the same time, they seem to encourage ever more fragmented communicative networks, giving rise to possibilities of misapprehension with respect to the values and desires of others.

Networked journalism also gives rise to more decentralised decision-making and non-hierarchical structures as well as to greater heterogeneity and diversity. This confronts the traditional practices of journalism which tend to be much more centralised, homogeneous and less pluralistic. The impact of this confrontation is profound for the news media and it is arguably even more profound for us as human beings. The new globally organised news media enable new forms of border crossing that are uncomfortable because they bring us into confrontation with others in ways that we suggest can be resolved and understood only through persistent dialogue. Thus, a central responsibility of the journalist today arguably must be to support and encourage new spaces for dialogue in a manner that is ethical and enhances trust (O'Neill, 2002; Paxman, 2007).

Again, what a good time it is then to be a journalist if you can help people to filter, connect, and understand. The demand is out there if we can add value. Ask yourself, does your journalism add authenticity, immediacy, verification, context, personalisation, human interest, even entertainment? If it does, it will succeed. Networked journalism is by nature democratic and delivers an unquestionable public service, which it is believed should remain journalism's main principle. But in order for networked journalism to take place, the responsibility of the professionals but also of the public is crucial. To exercise meaningful access to the information, the audience requires what Charlie Beckett describes as media literacy, which means the ability of the public to make use of a wide range of media in order to access and understand the information contained in them. Should the audience want to take this ability to a higher level, it would have to comprehend the information provided by the media to the point of being able to analyse, question and even construct a critical opinion. Once the public has obtained these participatory tools it will be 'networked to journalism'.

CONCEPTUALISING THE 'GLOBAL'

Views on the positive or negative impact of globalisation are also highly polarised. Proponents credit globalisation with promoting global prosperity, peace, stability, and democracy. For many, 'global' means big because we live in a global age. That goes too for the global village perspective, which emphasises the scaling dimension and equates the global with 'bigness,' part of a nested hierarchy of levels of analysis based on size: beyond local, regional, and national. 'Glocalisation', a popular concept in this literature, can be seen not as the inevitable interplay between local and cultural forces from a distance, but as the uniform imposition of a global (village) standard across a range of local circumstances. These interpretations, however, obscure the real complexity of globalisation. Today's globalised network communication shapes new interactive formats, relevant not only for the dissemination but, increasingly, for the production of news. A globalised journalistic network sphere involves mainstream journalistic outlets and bloggers, independently operating journalists in various corners of the world and so-called 'user-generated' content providers alike. Within this sphere, an increasingly global flow of news is evolving which can be characterised by a new form of connectivity which establishes new links between journalists, their sources, as well as their audiences. Within this transformed news sphere the roles of journalistic outlets change. They become nodes, arranged in a dense net of information gatherers, producers and disseminators. The interactive connections among these news providers constitute what is called the sphere of 'network journalism'. Studies within the 'global dominance' paradigm generally work within and update the critical tradition of political economy while those conducted under the 'global public sphere' paradigm represent a more diffuse group of recent disciplinary infusions from cultural studies, anthropology and approaches to the global network society.

There are several reasons to 'go global'. First, the news media is increasingly global. The facts are familiar. Media corporations are increasingly global enterprises. Technology gives news organisations the ability to gather information instantly from remote locations. The reach of the Al-Jazeera and CNN networks, for example, extend beyond the Arab world or the American public. The sufficiency of parochial ethics has been undermined by the globalisation of news media. Journalism ethics will not be credible if it avoids engagement with these news complexities.

Second, global impact entails global responsibilities (McPhail, 2006; Seib, 2002; De Beer, 2004). Reports, via satellite or the Internet, reach people around the world and influence the actions of governments, militaries, and humanitarian agencies. Publication of cartoons of Muslim's Prophet Mohammed in one paper in one country, Denmark, spread violence around the world. A parochial journalism can wreak havoc. Unless reported properly, North American readers may

fail to understand violence in the Middle East. Jingoistic reports can portray other cultures as a threat. Biased reports may incite ethnic groups to attack each other. We need to consider the impact of journalism across borders. Global issues and the power of global media organisations call for a media ethics that is global in its principles and in its understanding of media. This 'global responsibility' is not reflected in most journalism codes of ethics.

Third, a global journalism is required in a world where media bring together a plurality of religions and ethnic groups with varying values and agendas. Our world is not a cosy McLuhan village. In such a climate, we need to emphasise journalism as a bridge for understanding across cultures. Fourth, a global-minded journalism is needed to help citizens understand the daunting global problems of poverty, environmental degradation, technological inequalities and political instability. These problems require concerted global action, and the construction of new global institutions. Fifth, and finally, a global ethics is needed to unify journalists in constructing a fair and informed media. Without global principles it is difficult to criticise media practices in other countries, including severe restrictions on the press and the Internet.

Global journalism today accesses instantaneous, multimedia communication networks, products and sources. However, these same technologies also remove journalists' monopoly on international news, forcing a re-evaluation of who creates, transmits and ultimately owns the news. 'Globalised journalism' may be an oxymoron; it is certainly a paradox. When considering globalisation and journalism, it is tempting to come up with new categories of media, practice, professionals and content and elevate them to 'global' status. To classify 'global media,' for example, or find a group that can be identified as 'global journalists' has presented a definitional challenge, given their dispersal and inter-connectedness (Reese, 2001, 2008). Who qualifies as a 'global journalist' and is this just a new term for 'foreign correspondent'? This may ultimately be more of a provocative concept than a strictly defined empirical category. A volume entitled "The global journalist", for example, was in fact a country-by-country survey of professionals (Weaver, 1998), with few attempts then or now to explicate the concept. 'Global media' have been variously defined as those having a global reach or being owned by global transnational corporations (Herman & McChesney, 1997). Global news media content also suffers from difficulty in separating it out from other forms, although scholars have been experimenting with identifying in content analyses certain intrinsically global issues and perspectives in the news (e.g. Berglez, 2008).

The world has become increasingly globalised and "borders become markedly less relevant to everyday behaviour in the various dimensions of economics, technology, cross-culture conflict and civil society (Beck, 2000: 20) and in which "distances and boundaries are not what they used to be" (Hannerz, 1996: 3), the content of news provided reflecting diversity. Global journalism today accesses instantaneous multimedia communication networks, products and services whereas traditional media are deeply challenged by a number of different developments which question not only their business models but also ways of journalistic practice. Other studies of the sociology of news have examined how 'global media gatekeepers' affect the flow of news and information. These have included observations of editorial decisions at specific international news agencies, such as those key hubs in London (Paterson, 2001) and more emergent forms of news organisation, such as the way news leaders can participate with others across national boundaries to share agreeable stories. An early content and ethnographic look at the Geneva-based Eurovision was provided by Cohen *et al* (1996) of what they called the 'global newsroom.' Each of these approaches touches on some aspect of the global, without offering a fully satisfying conceptualisation. After all, globalisation is built on the intensification of connections, so we need a theoretical approach that captures these changing structures. More than a flow of information, journalism is a social practice that adapts to global influences, even if one big

'global village journalism' has not evolved. Rather than speaking of 'flows,' other network-oriented concepts such as 'articulation' capture the sense of influence arising from the coupling across boundaries. Research in this area is relatively sparse, so for now I am speaking more of conceptual pointers rather than specific empirical results.

CHANGING GLOBAL NEWS ARENA

Educators face the same shifting landscape of global news as do professional practitioners, citizens, and media scholars. The rapid changes in technology have given rise to new media platforms and greater interconnectedness while dramatically altering traditional news institutions and eroding professional boundaries. This raises new questions about the potential for cross-cultural understanding and the values of cosmopolitan citizenship. This interconnectedness is one of the hallmarks of globalisation which, along with a simultaneity and synchronisation of communication, contributes to our impression of the world as a single place. These networks of international journalism support what has been called a "global news arena" (Reese, 2008) which brings about pressures toward transparency, both on the part of governments and from journalism. Slanted or false reports are now more rapidly challenged or augmented – not only by other news organisations but by thousands of readers and viewers who circulate and compare reports through on-line communities. The emerging world networked journalism must be understood within the large context of a changing global news arena in which the public naturally seeks perspectives beyond one specific locality and nation (Croad, 2003).

The migration of news and information to an online platform has disrupted old patterns of reading and changed the relationship between audiences and news providers. Ultimately, it may be more useful to recognise that globalising media and journalism simply mean that the creators, objects and consumers of news are less likely to share the same nation-state frame of reference. To the extent that certain transnational media emphasise this approach to news, we may call it 'global journalism.' And to the extent that certain journalists operate from this perspective we may describe them the same way. Thus, the media role must not be regarded narrowly as equivalent to a specific satellite network, journalistic message, or world-wide audience, however vast. International channels and flows may be the most visible manifestations, but they constitute the 'CNN version' of media globalisation. One can more broadly imagine a 'global news arena' supported by an interlocking cross-national awareness of events, in a world further connected by networks of transnational elites, media professionals among them, who engage each other through mutually shared understandings.

To understand the emergence of new spaces more generally, it will be helpful to examine how actors in specific local settings engage with these broader networks. Transnational elites, globally connected and oriented, interact with others in specific local cultural and political contexts. Here, the global is seen in the convergent changes in norms at the level of these elites and professionals, embedded in their own networks and geographical places. The question then becomes: How do they communicate global issues in local settings? How do they interact with other professionals, through what coordinating global and local associations? What are the routinised structures for their interaction within and across specific locations, and how do they adapt to local circumstances? Journalism professionals and media officials are clearly among the globalising elites who represent an important source of influence and social change. These transnational elites participate in global networks connecting local settings, bypassing official state channels, and introducing their own logic into national spaces, including with local journalistic cultures and media systems.

In earlier periods, we could speak of media logic, or a more specific journalistic culture, that was rooted in a national structure and local community. This logic was both a result of, and an

integrative force for, the national system. A shared set of expectations and norms allowed the system to function and could be distinguished from other logics and cultures in other national settings (a comparative approach to these 'cultures' is exemplified by Hanitzsch [2007]). In the weakening of that common national framework, however, what logic is emerging to take its place, or at least take its place among existing ones? This emerging logic often has been over-simplified as either the domination of Western (often American) transnational corporate media or a benign pattern of hybrids arising between the global and local (e.g. Chalaby, 2005). That kind of cultural hybridity view, however, still fails to capture the systemic redistribution of power.

The ability of researchers to conduct comparative, cross-national studies and the analytical tools of network analysis are beginning to converge with and support these more spatially rooted theoretical ideas. Studies on hyperlinked online news and the blogosphere must necessarily tackle this kind of pattern with network analysis, which requires that every element in a social structure be understood in relation to other elements in the structure and to the external environment. Bourdieu (2005) similarly argues that a social field, including journalism, cannot be understood in isolation but rather in relation to other fields in society and in relation to its own unique historical development. We should not just measure attributes of people – including journalists – within social containers; they must be examined in their field relations to each other (such as with European journalists mapped by Kunelius and Ruusunoksa [2008]), and with respect to specific spaces. A global network perspective, therefore, takes into account both the importance of local spaces and actors, and how they are positioned relative to a multitude of forces beyond the immediate locale.

The rise of comparative research, with an emphasis on institutional fields within national cultures, leads us to be cautious about regarding the journalism within countries as homogeneous. The cross-national perspective helps sharpen our understandings of how media institutional fields differ, but the institutional level has a tendency to collapse differences among a nation's media systems. But certain components of a journalistic field may be more likely to converge toward a global standard, such as television and increasingly online news. The printed press, more firmly rooted in historical styles, may be less likely to change compared to its modern national media neighbours. On one hand, certain globally oriented media are becoming more similar, and satellite news channels, in particular, have helped create a convergent media style, strongly influenced by the Western 'objective' model. Accelerating this tendency, the speed, rhythm, and interconnectedness of online media seem to encourage an idea of news as an 'always on' utility. The headlines of the mainstream press can be distributed quickly to cell phones or laptops, much like the weather, time, and stock quotes. Another class of media, meanwhile, have been freed to be hyper-local and hyper-opinionated, fragmenting into opinion and analysis for more local and more dispersed audiences. Thus, a globalised journalism, while interconnected, has many faces.

TRENDS AND DYNAMICS IN NEWS MEDIA

I believe that for networked journalism to mean more than just interactivity it must be considered in the much broader context of changing technology and social behaviour. Networked journalism can take many forms which contribute new opportunities for public debate. For example, radio is increasing its audiences, even in markets with highly developed television or new media access. Radio seems to fit with increasingly mobile and time-poor life-styles. Radio can now be accessed via television, the Internet or mobile phones. And radio phone-ins are increasingly offered, thanks to the spread of the infrastructure for networks. However, for such phone-ins to be participative, the public needs to be allowed to influence the subjects for discussion and to trust that their safety as a result of participation is ensured (Ibrahim, 2007). Web forums or blogs also provide an online means of creating active spaces for discussion and the dissemination of information from public-to-public. They provide platforms for consumers to

critique and correct the media, but for this to become an open forum, news organisations must be transparent and embrace the criticisms that they receive.

Networked journalism can allow journalists greater engagement and more reflection upon their subject. This is the paradoxical goal of any good journalism. It is also a strategic as well as tactical concept. It is about more than focus groups. Networked journalism might ultimately move beyond the rather simple forms of 'interactivity' that are in use today. For example, journalists might retain their functions of editing, filtering and producing news but the 'journalist' might become the media-literate citizen who initiates as well as contributes to the news flow. This, in turn, might lead to public debate which the networked journalist might report in a reflexive way as part of the news production process itself.

There are, however, several conditions that would need to hold if news journalism is to develop in this way. More media organisations would need to become the driving force by building user communities around their activities, thereby preserving their brands and markets. Successful networked journalism providers might offer the premium service of skilled journalistic functions: editing, analysis, technical support and information packaging, but this would become integrated into the flow of information from users. The journalist would not act as a gatekeeper as in the past, but instead as a facilitator or moderator as Jarvis suggests (2007). In addition, policy makers would need to redistribute public service media funding away from the traditional media and towards support for increased media literacy, a topic addressed later in this article. If networked journalism is to develop in the way envisaged here, the public would need to encourage these developments as would the political classes. The enthusiasm with which politicians will support the accumulation of enhanced literacies for new media within the general population is likely to be moderated by their realisation that networked journalism presents a threat which goes against the grain of hierarchical forms of governance. If greater openness conflicts with traditional modes of their operation, governments will become increasingly uneasy as few political systems are predicated upon the need for an informed, much less, networked, public (Monck, 2007).

Networked journalism offers no guarantee of a new open or moral space for dialogue. The fractious debates on blogs such as "Comment are Free" at the British *Guardian* newspaper's website are indicative of the extent to which online debate does not guarantee greater understanding. Other studies of the blogosphere which benefit from systematic empirical research such as that by Kim (2007) in the case of South Korea suggest a similar development. Nevertheless, new discourses are emerging with new styles and languages, suggesting that networked journalism will also evolve as part of broader cultural changes (Ito, 2006).

Another issue that is crucial to the further evolution of networked journalism concerns the authoritative status of news. Organisations that produce the news for traditional news media such as AFP, AP, Reuters, CNN, BBC, and Al Jazeera continue to have the means of delivering authoritative information and analysis. However, even where the traditional journalism models continue to work, the liberal news media are severely limited insofar as they tend to be self-contained, often self-referential, and elitist; they rarely cross difficult boundaries. In addition, audiences are fragmenting and the younger generation often prefers informal social networking sites and wikis which are freely available. As a result there is need to find ways to make news reporting economically viable in the long term.

At the same time, web forums and blogs provide a way of creating active spaces for discussion, offering platforms for individuals to critique and to correct the traditional news media. "Little Green Footballs" – a blog - for example, revealed how a photographer working for Reuters faked some photographs of the Israel/Hezbollah conflict. In this case, Reuters offered transparency and accepted criticism (Beckett, 2007). In the case of networked journalism as indicated earlier, the journalist might become a facilitator. This facilitation role is illustrated by several examples of

journalism initiatives which are enabling new boundaries to be crossed. For example, the BBC World Service Trust is enabling Pashto and Dari-speaking audiences, inside and outside Afghanistan, to listen to their favourite radio programmes using the Internet (BBC World Service Trust, 2007a). In another case, "Zig Zag" is allowing young people in Iran who use a secret language to communicate, offering the first chance they have had to hear each other's voices and to engage with figures such as religious leaders (BBC World Service Trust, 2007b). And in yet another instance, "My Life" offers a programme of workshops for young women in Egypt, Syria, Yemen and Saudi Arabia to tell their stories for the first time online (BBC World Service Trust, 2007c).

From an economic point of view, if these and other new forms of networked journalism are to flourish, investment will have to shift from traditional journalism to promoting new business models and new media literacy capabilities. This shift will be necessary if the public, wherever they may be, are to become the producers of the news and of their own stories.

Journalists as facilitators

Networked journalism calls for journalists to be the facilitators of information. In most cases, though, reporters and editors cannot monitor what does and does not reach the public sphere. The boundaries of what is or is not noticeable or newsworthy are no longer set by journalists. Having in mind the traditional and unequivocal principles of truth and accuracy, networked journalism aims to provide the audience with the tools to actively participate in the public conversation, which usually means creating content in whatever medium: e-mail, mobile phones, digital cameras, online editing suites, webcams or texting and on whatever scale necessary.

Networked journalism, therefore, has to be regarded not as a final product, but as a continuous process shared in by the professionals and society that takes place in a space carved out by new media technology. This shared sphere is labelled by Prof. Roger Silverstone as mediapolis in his work *Media and Morality: On the Rise of the Mediapolis* (2006). Utilising this concept, Silverstone makes a successful attempt to conceive this cutting-edge journalism. Networked journalism is by nature democratic and delivers an unquestionable public service, which I firmly believe should remain journalism's main principle. But in order for networked journalism to take place, the responsibility of the professionals but also of the public is crucial. To exercise meaningful access to the information, the audience requires what Charlie Beckett describes as media literacy, which means the ability of the public to make use of a wide range of media in order to access and understand the information contained in them. Should the audience want to take this ability to a higher level, it would have to comprehend the information provided by the media to the point of being able to analyse, question and even construct a critical opinion. Once the public has obtained these participatory tools it will be 'networked to journalism'.

JOURNALISM ETHICS

The concept of networked journalism is the result of the bulging fluid information flows that are taking place today. It is described as 'journalism's existential crisis'. Networked journalism essentially means opening up the production process of journalism. Networked journalism brings decentralised decision-making, non-hierarchical structures and diversity face-to-face with the traditional practices of journalism. The impact of that confrontation is profound for the media, and it is even more profound for us as human beings. Border crossing is uncomfortable because it brings us into confrontation with others in ways that can be resolved and understood *only* through persistent dialogue. The responsibility of the media then is to support and encourage that dialogue in all ethical ways. By 'ethics' I mean the analysis of correct conduct, responsible practice, and fair human interactions in the light of the best available principles. Ethics is also

about practical judgment – the application of principles to issues and decisions. Ethics encompasses theoretical and practical reasoning. Theoretically, ethics is the analysis (or 'meta-ethics') of the language of ethics, of forms of ethical reasoning, and of the objectivity of moral principles. Practically, ethics is "applied ethics", the study of principles for such domains as corporate governance, scientific research, and professional practice (Dimock & Tucker, 2004).

Where is journalism ethics on this 'map' of ethics? It is a type of applied ethics. It is the analysis of the practice of journalism, and the application of its principles to situations and issues. Journalism ethics investigates the 'micro' problems of what individual journalists should do in particular situations, and the 'macro' problems of what news media should do, given their role in society. The issues of journalism ethics include the limits of free speech, accuracy and bias, fairness and privacy, the use of graphic images, conflicts of interest, the representation of minorities, and the role of journalism. A question about journalism is an ethical question, as opposed to a question of prudence or custom, if it evaluates conduct in the light of the fundamental public purposes and social responsibilities of journalism. What are those purposes?

In an era of a mix of traditional news media and emerging networked journalism, to what extent is it feasible to encourage new modes of caring for distant others? The expansion of networked journalism may encourage or discourage public action that grants equal value to human life, regardless of whether such life belongs to 'my' community or 'another' community. Similarly, the traditional media may encourage us to experience a feeling of global intimacy through their representation of distant others, but they may not encourage reflection on why suffering is occurring or what can be done about it. If networked journalism is to succeed in fostering the kind of dialogue envisaged here, it must create spaces for news production and consumption which are consistent with such reflection.

The emerging forms of networked journalism are strongly collaborative insofar as professional journalists and amateurs often work together. Frequently boundaries are crossed within the production process as a means of sharing facts, raising questions, producing answers and ideas, and challenging differing perspectives (Jarvis, 2007). This new form of journalism raises many ethical issues and it presents us with a paradox. It embraces the potential for both greater understanding and greater misunderstanding to occur. This is because each boundary that is crossed in the production and consumption of networked journalism enables an increasingly wide range of different viewpoints, languages, cultures, values and goals to be encountered. As they are encountered, they are likely to affect people's everyday lives and their perceptions of distant others in ways that are increasingly unpredictable. If networked journalism begins to bring about the possibility of understanding local histories or a remapping stories of colonial difference and exclusion, the potential may exist to begin to build a more worldly and ethical culture (Escobar, 2004: 219). As a result there may be potential to move beyond dichotomies between 'north'/'south', 'information rich'/'information poor', and 'hegemonic'/'indigenous' knowledge, and towards a new, not yet completely understood, alternative. These would be foundations for a new global dialogue which respects the humanity of all.

FOSTERING NEW LITERACIES

We have entered the 'prosumer' society," made up of producers who are also consumers of media content. The prosumer society has multiple forms of self-expression, and it is still too early to tell which of these will survive the founding of the new era. Networked journalism stand out based on ordinary citizens creating online information. Literacy is the constantly evolving cognitive processes and social practices that members of a particular social or cultural group value, foster and engage in as they construct and communicate meaning (Langer, 1987). Media literacy can be regarded as a subset of critical thinking, which, according to the Foundation for

Critical Thinking on its website, is defined as the art of analysing and evaluating thinking with a view to improving it. To the extent that it involves questioning, reasoning, discerning the strength of claims, evaluating evidence, and taking multiple perspectives, media literacy necessarily is thinking critically, a process we presume leads to better informed citizens, who can evaluate the strength of political arguments and detect faulty logic as they make decisions. We want people to be able to stand back from news media objects, aesthetically, politically, and intellectually.

At the heart of this investigation is the confluence of journalism education, technology, and the perceptions future journalists have of the linkages between citizenship and media. Indeed, tomorrow's communicators are on the forefront of tremendous technological advances. Increasing Internet penetration worldwide and the growing influence of transnational, converged, and globally interconnected media industries have fundamentally altered how information is processed, distributed, and received. Journalism is in a paradigm shift. More than any generation to come before them, today's young people are participating in the creation and sharing of culture with the immediacy and connectedness that a digitally networked world provides. In many cases, these young adults are actively involved in what we are calling participatory cultures; a participatory culture shifts the focus of literacy from one of individual expression to one of community involvement. What are the prerequisites for networked journalism to foster this alternative? One prerequisite would be for the new journalism to support new forms of 'translation', a possibility that De Sousa Santos (2003) argues might underpin greater mutual understanding and intelligibility among those who have worldviews that are different and at odds with each other (Escobar, 2004).

A continuous expansion on network journalism would gradually out-bid the mainstream printed newspaper industry as online attainment of information has become increasingly predominant. If networked journalism creates possibilities for new border crossings and translations, then it could underpin new understandings, reflections and, potentially, ethical action. However, for such translations to occur, there must be substantial investment in new media literacies that extend beyond basic reading and writing. Literacy in the context of the media is often seen as a capability that is necessary to provide people with a means to protect themselves from harmful aspects of the media. But as our engagements with close and distant others are mediated increasingly by new media, new literacies become essential for participation, active citizenship, learning, and even cultural expression (Livingstone, 2004). Although considerable effort is being devoted to gaining access to networks and to acquiring literacy for basic understanding, much less attention is being given to enabling people to acquire a more sophisticated understanding of the media, including news media.

This means enhancing capabilities for critical evaluation and for creating communications of various kinds for exchange in new media environments. Although, media literacy principles are being developed under charters and conventions, they are not being widely translated into teaching resources. Increasing resources and equalising capabilities so that many more benefit is the challenge for the future if the implications of boundary crossing and networked journalism are to foster an ethical media.

As in the case of the predominant understanding of press freedom as a negative freedom, the emphasis in the case of literacies is mostly on those aimed at enabling people to avoid harm. If the goal of enhancing public dialogue and understanding is to be advanced, more attention will be essential to the positive aspects of literacies, that is, those which foster democratic participation and active citizenship through dialogue. But as Livingstone *et al* (2005) have pointed out, attention to literacy may begin to substitute for regulation and those who do not have the literacy skills required for participating in new forums will be excluded. Skills associated with critical evaluation and capabilities for determining reliable and trustworthy information are

essential if there is to be an opportunity to foster a form of networked journalism that is consistent with border crossing and translation that can support reflection and action that is respectful of all and just.

CONCLUSION

In a global world of networked journalism, not only do we need to move beyond the familiar and damaging dualisms of the past, it will be essential to acknowledge exclusions when they occur and to investigate why they are occurring and how they are being perpetuated. An ethically grounded research strategy for understanding the changes associated with networked journalism would begin the task of assessing both the potential and the risks of the way the news media are evolving. As in other areas of media and communication studies, we need to follow Alhassan (2007) who asks "What is the relationship between the margin and the centre in the epistemic economy of communication studies? How is it established and maintained?" As indicated above, both Escobar (2004) and De Sousa Santos (2003) argue in favour of new border crossings and translations which could encourage better understanding of the dynamics of power relations which give rise to inequality and, ultimately, to actions aimed at reducing it. We have suggested that networked journalism could create opportunities for journalists to facilitate public debate. However, we have also warned that if this is to happen, financial resources will have to shift from supporting traditional journalism to promoting the new forms of news media and to fostering new media literacies that do not exclude and which support new forms of border crossings and translation.

All these arguments make necessary a rethinking of what journalism at the start of the new millennium is – and what it is definitely not. Besides a new definition in terms of 'network journalism', we also have to reflect on the social and cultural relevance and societal position and responsibilities of media professionals. The importance of a free and fair press is generally recognised as cornerstones of contemporary democracies, and as a necessary element for political democracy and social cohesion. In this respect characteristics such as an increased audience-orientation, customisation of content and interactivity can revitalise old democratic ideals of participatory communication, public and civic journalism, a voice for the voiceless and so on (see Bardoel & Frissen, 1999). By the same token these characteristics can also be used in a process of continuing commercialisation that puts negative pressures on the profession (Van Dusseldorp, Scullion & Bierhoff, 1999). In our view it is not fruitful though to construct an absolute opposition between the 'old' newspaper journalism, as the exclusive platform for political debate within the framework of the nation-state, versus the 'new' Internet journalism, as the main vehicle of (post-) modern service-driven journalism in the context of a globalising market economy. Both old and new media provide platforms for political, cultural as well as commercial communication. Therefore the new technologies offer new challenges for democratic communication as well as new threats, but who emphasises the latter exclusively might well end up defending the privileges of an established profession instead of the importance of a democratic communication system.

Many exciting networked journalism experiments are underway. But too many conversations about journalism are really about defending existing newsroom practices and arguments for 'core values' of objectivity and professionalism. These concepts have new meanings and new applications in a networked environment. We need new vocabulary born of new mindsets to better describe what we do. The stakes are enormous. Some of our long term journalistic practices and routines are making things worse, contributing to political gridlock, economic meltdown and potential environmental catastrophe. We should not pretend we are just neutral referees in a global game of strategy. We are active players who need to take responsibility for the effects of our work. Networking is the only way of becoming an active member of the

changing society. It is also the way commitment to problems emerges, and that is exactly where the greatness of our profession lies. Consequently, another golden age of journalism is about to arrive.

Just as advertising has become personalised and viral, so journalism will have to get closer to the communities that it is talking to, be they geographical or subject-specific. Think about how this opens up the space for a more participatory politics at all levels. Imagine how it can inform a more deliberative democracy. Instead of claiming a special dispensation, the journalist will now become part of a network of responsibilities and relevance. This is where I have always thought good journalism belonged.

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WOMEN AND WASTE RECYCLING IN SEDIBENG DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY IN SOUTH AFRICA

M.T. Lukamba[1]

ABSTRACT

There are many roleplayers working on the issue of solid waste management in this country. Every household in our society contributes to an amount of waste every single day. In many developing countries, women are involved in the collection of waste materials. For some of them, this has become a source of income to support their families. The waste recycling industry around the globe is increasing every year. Local governments should try to accommodate these women by facilitating their participation and integration into the waste recovery sector.

The findings of the study in the Sedibeng District Municipality (SDM) show that women are able to make a positive impact on their communities by undertaking this type of work. Most of the women interviewed are the breadwinners in their households. It has been shown that working in the recycling sector is by no means gender specific; recycling waste can be just as effectively done by women as by men and can certainly have a positive impact in our society as whole.

It is important for local governments in the SDM and elsewhere in the country to evaluate the positive role the waste pickers play. These women are independent entrepreneurs in that they generate a weekly income by recycling materials collected on the landfill sites. There is a need for local governments countrywide to improve the recognition of waste pickers and assist them where possible.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship; women; waste; policy; Sedibeng District Municipality.

INTRODUCTION

Every household in our society contributes to an amount of waste every day. Before it reaches the dumping site, waste is collected by people who are interested in using the refuse to generate an income. There are many players participating in such waste collection across the country. The collection of waste in the urban areas is increasingly drawing attention. Many men and women search through refuse, hoping to find discarded items and materials that can be re-used or re-cycled. The objective is to collect enough refuse material so that they can sell it.

For a study focused on 'women and waste', it is imperative first to define the word 'waste'. The European Union (1992) defined waste as "substances or objects which are disposed of or are intended to be disposed of by the provision of national law". However, the definition of waste differs from one country to another. The EU definition is not the same, for example, as the Singaporean definition of waste. The government of Singapore Act 14 of 1987 defines waste as "any substance which constitutes a scrap material or an effluent or other unwanted surplus substance arising from the application of any process, and any material or article which requires to be disposed of as being broken, worn out, contaminated or otherwise spoiled, and anything which is discarded or otherwise dealt with as if it were waste, shall be presumed to be waste unless the contrary is proved".

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In addition, in terms of the South African National Water Act of 1998, waste is defined as "any solid material that is suspended, dissolved or transported in water (including sediment) and which is spilled or deposited on land or into a water resource in such volume, composition or manner as to cause, or to be reasonably likely to cause, the water resources to be polluted".

The term 'waste' may thus comprise any materials, including those that are solid, liquid, or gaseous. These and other definitions will be used in this study. However, this project will not focus on definitions of waste as such, but will focus instead on the role played by women in the recycling of waste in South Africa. More specifically, the researcher investigates their role in the district of Sedibeng, in southern Gauteng Province.

There are many roleplayers working on the issue of solid waste management in this country. The most active are community-based organisations (CBOs); non-government organisations (NGOs); the formal private sector; the informal private sector, including individuals, small entrepreneurs, and micro-enterprises; the local municipalities; mining companies and other industries (Klundert & Lardnois, 1995). There are also some women who are organised into informal groups for the collection of refuse. These groups assist women in selling their recyclable products to the buyers. They also assist in the promotion of environmental conservation, skills development and the building of social capital (Schulschunk, 2008: 8).

There are other groups in the community, such as schools, CBOs, and other NGOs, that assist in waste management by categorising waste into different types of material. Once this is done, unwanted waste is put aside and dumped on the landfill.

Some local authorities across South Africa currently face an enormous challenge in terms of collecting refuse, particularly when residents in poorer communities are unable to pay their municipal levy for waste removal. According to Neswire (2010), households with a low income are unable to pay for the service provided by the relevant municipality yet the market for refuse removal continues to grow because there are companies that charge lower rates to render this service. Charging lower tariffs encourages low income households to make use of such waste management services, thereby helping these companies earn an income.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the involvement of women in waste recycling as a means of generating an income in the Sedibeng District Municipality. There are many poorly skilled women in informal settlements that are making a living in the waste recycling sector. Most of these women are uneducated and it becomes very difficult, if not impossible, for them to find better employment in the formal sector. Through their involvement in waste recycling, these women are organised into community-based groups. This study has become a means for them to have their voices heard on their means of subsistence.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main aim of this study is to show the impact of disadvantaged women working in the waste recycling sector in the Sedibeng District Municipality (SDM). The study has four main components.

- To provide an analysis of what is meant by 'women and waste';
- To identify ways and means of empowering women involved in waste recycling;
- To learn more about the impact on the health of women involved in waste recycling; and
- To provide policies and measures that will improve the lives of women involved in waste recycling in the SDM.

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

There is a continuing and evolving debate pertaining to the application of various methods in social science research. This largely revolves around the application of quantitative and qualitative research methods. The words 'quantitative' and 'qualitative' are frequently used to identify different approaches to answering research questions (Paul, 2002: 104). The reality is that different questions are relevant for different types of information.

Depending on the questions, an appropriate research design and method is devised. The method selected for this study was a quantitative method: the focus of the research is the women who are involved in the waste recycling industry in the Sedibeng District Municipality in Gauteng.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES OF WASTE INTERNATIONALLY

As long as three or four centuries ago the business of waste recycling started. It soon began to flourish as part of the informal economy in many developed countries, including the United States of America and Europe. In 1869 *The New York Times* described the so-called "rag pickers" in the USA as "…industrious businessmen and women who are in the noble profession of saving what others waste". The newspaper report goes on to say that these "waste pickers" were people who were "the least respected and least regarded denizens of the town [but] in their homes they are respectable, independent, generally neat, and always intelligent" and importantly, they were making an impact in their respective communities. In addition, the waste pickers in France, more specifically those in Paris in 1879, were considered "fortunate in this miserable population", (because they were living in a very poor area) but at least had a means of existence:

> They work for themselves and sort their own stuff. When they find some important value in the bag, they sell it to make a large profit. They need not sell to get a breakfast, they can wait. Some days they make as much as four Francs [former French currency] for the family.

Moreover, in 1884 *The New York Times* confirmed: "…waste pickers of Paris are in despair due to the Prefect [who] has forbidden them from collecting waste and they are likely to protest". By analysing the historical impact of waste pickers in developed countries there are lessons to be learnt in our country today. The following three main points are worth considering in these historical perspectives:

1. Waste pickers have always been self-employed and the nature of their work has been entrepreneurial.
2. The collection and sale of recyclables is a good business with reasonable earnings for a category of people who are scavenging.
3. There has been recognition of the contribution of waste pickers, scrap traders and recycling to the economy from the 1800s and this recognition still survives today.

The three elements raised in the historical excerpts above show that waste pickers were found in many developing and middle-income countries. There is certainly a link between the historical perspectives of waste in advanced countries and the relevance of this research in the Sedibeng District Municipality. The role of women involved in waste recycling began a long time ago and this activity continues to progress until today. It is to the benefit of the district to understand the role these women play in the informal economy.

INTERNATIONAL OVERVIEW OF WOMEN'S INVOLVEMENT IN COLLECTING WASTE RECYCLABLE MATERIALS

In many developing countries, women are involved in the collection of waste materials. For some of them this has become a source of income to support their families. The waste recycling industry around the globe is increasing every year. All local governments should try to accommodate these women by facilitating their participation and integration into the waste recovery sector.

In Nigeria in the federal state of Abia, women are the largest group involved in the waste recycling business; young women as well as older women are involved. These women are in daily contact with hazardous waste which might have a negative impact on their health (Ifenkwe, 2007). In Zimbabwe, the current situation is somewhat different because the country is beset with political and economic difficulties. Groups of women have banded together to clean their respective townships and they then sell recyclable material. This helps them to earn an income in very trying economic times (Peace Direct, 2008). Furthermore, in Dar-es-Salaam women are also earning an income by recycling and disposing of solid waste. Indeed, some of the contractors in solid waste management only employ female workers. It has become evident that women are as capable as men in carrying out solid waste management activities, including recycling (International Labour Office, 2007).

The number of women working as waste recyclers in sub-Saharan Africa is growing year by year: for example, in the Benin Republic women began collecting waste 75 years ago, while the country was still under colonial rule. According to Forrest and Tuwizana (2012), in Benin there are women who collect household waste to make a living. In the capital, Porto-Novo, a city of over one million people, there is no waste collection service and there are no dumping sites. Waste in Porto-Novo is therefore a major issue. Groups of women who were involved in waste recycling decided to form an organisation called Yesuwame (In the arms of Jesus). Soon afterwards the name of this organisation was changed to the Women's Association of Waste Pickers.

The Benin example is not the only one in Africa; there are many similar groups of women in other countries, such as Cameroon, Mozambique, South Africa, Zambia, and Kenya. However, the income from selling recyclable materials varies from one country to another.

The experience of women and waste in other continents is different compared to the African reality. In the case of Brazil, the recycling business is organised and recognised by the local authorities in several municipalities. It is argued by Dias (2011) that Brazil is one of the world's most progressive countries as far as integrating waste pickers into the solid waste management system.

The Belo Horizonte Municipality was the pioneer in recognising waste pickers. Belo Horizonte is the capital city of Minas Gerais, one of the 26 federal states in Brazil, and is situated to the south-east of the country. It has a long tradition of strong municipal planning that dates back to its development in the 19th century as Brazil's first planned city. Waste management has been a municipal priority in the city since 1900.

In Brazil, there are three categories of waste pickers. First, there are what they could call unorganised or autonomous waste pickers who make a living by picking up or buying recyclable materials on the street or on dumping sites and selling these to junk shops. In this category there are women and men who are not part of any organisation or cooperative for waste pickers in Brazil. A similar scenario is the case in most countries in sub-Saharan Africa. The majority of

waste pickers in the Sedibeng District Municipality, for example, are unorganised and autonomous.

The second category is called the organised waste pickers who belong to cooperatives and associations. Here the percentage of women involved is 56 per cent while men make up the other 44 per cent. Most of these waste pickers have worked in the sector for more than 10 years. Their situation differs from that of the individual waste pickers who first started working in this industry during the economic downturn in Brazil.

The third category comprises waste pickers with a contract. They work principally in junk yards or in metal industries, but are also active in the local municipal areas or in associations and cooperatives. These categories of waste pickers are often unrecognised as being formal sector workers (WIEGO, 2012). Of the waste pickers with a contract the large majority (80%) are men and only 20 per cent are women. Most of these contract workers have a higher level of education (high school level). They are employed by companies and other organisations across the various branches of economic activity in Brazil. The Brazilian bureau of statistics shows that four million people throughout the country are involved in the waste recycling business. This is irrefutable evidence that South Africa should give serious consideration to the contribution that waste pickers can make to the economy.

STUDY APPROACH

The purpose of the study is to investigate the involvement of women in the recycling business in the SDM. The objective of the study is to learn more about the issues facing women who are scavenging on the dumping sites and in refuse bins in the suburbs. The researchers decided to visit different waste sites in the three local municipalities of Emfuleni, MidVaal and Lesedi.

The reality on the sites in the various local municipalities differs from one local municipality to another. The first dumping sites visited by the researchers in the Emfuleni Local Municipality are called Boitshepiville and Palm Springs. There are more than 250 women involved in waste recycling at these two dumping sites. The researchers conducted interviews with 152 women working here.

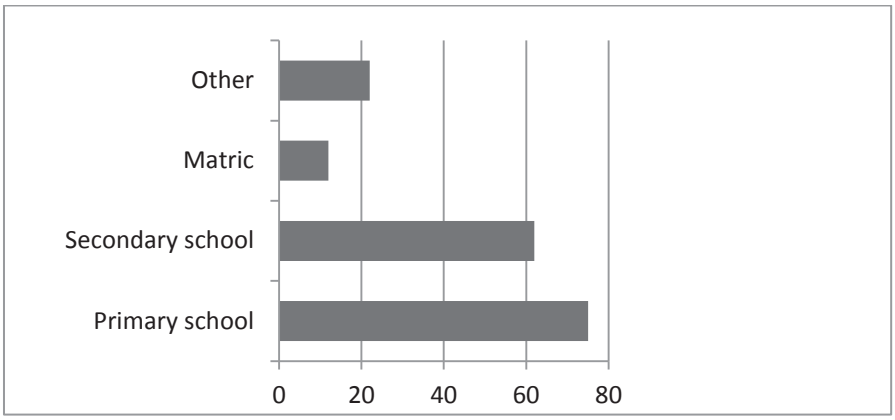
In the Midvaal Local Municipality there are far fewer women involved in waste recycling – only 12 women. Most of them are based at Marina Dagama dumping site. The researcher interviewed seven women who are currently scavenging at this dumping site. Lastly, the Lesedi Local Municipality has a number of women involved in the recycling business. Most of them are based at the Rantanda refuse dumping site. There are 18 women recognised by the local authorities to recycle material. Of the 18 women, 12 were interviewed by the researchers at this site. This study showed that most women who are involved in the recycling business are based at Emfuleni Local Municipality. In total 171 women were interviewed in this study.

The data presented below reflects the opinions of women involved in the waste business in the Sedibeng District Municipality in order to generate an income. The interpretation of the data will provide pointers to the role government could possibly play in the future for women who are involved in such activities.

DATA ANALYSIS

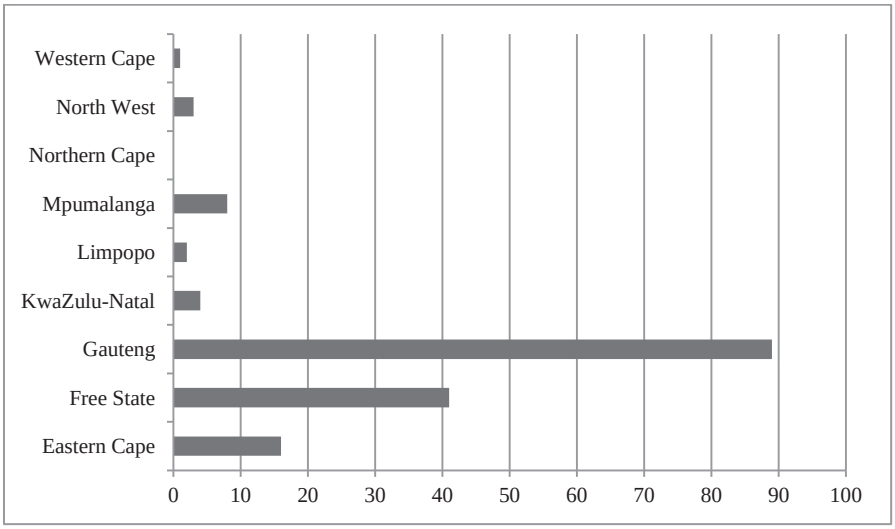
The interpretation of this study is based on the reality of waste pickers in the three local municipalities in the SDM. The understanding of this research project will assist municipal officials in the approach they adopt in future concerning the involvement of women who work in the waste recycling sector.

Figure 1: Education level



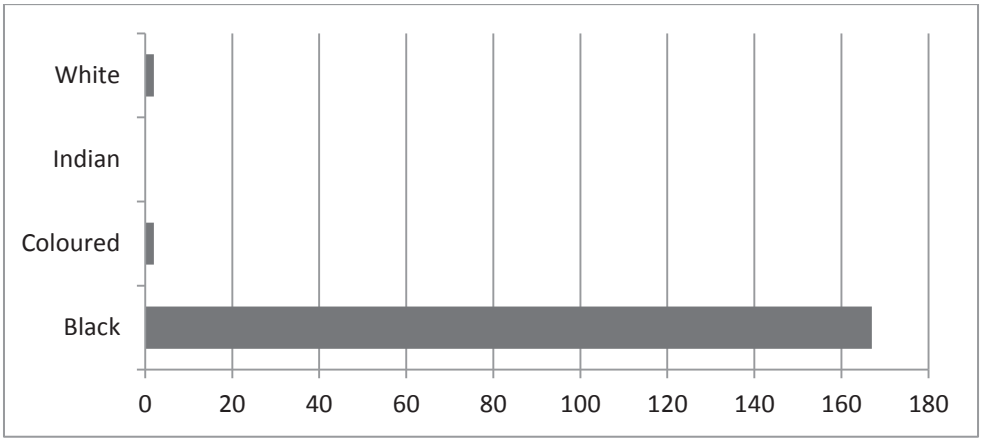
In Figure 1 a total of 171 women were interviewed; all are involved in waste scavenging across the SDM. Of these, 75 women (or 44%) indicated that they had completed their primary school education. Only 62 women (or 36%) of those interviewed had attended secondary school. The number of women waste pickers with a matric level education is minimal; the study shows that only 12 women (or 7%) have a matric qualification. The researchers also found that of the 171 women, only 22 (or 13%) had not attended school at all. The study shows that as far as the level of education is concerned, different categories of women are involved in collecting recyclable materials.

Figure 2: Born in Gauteng Province



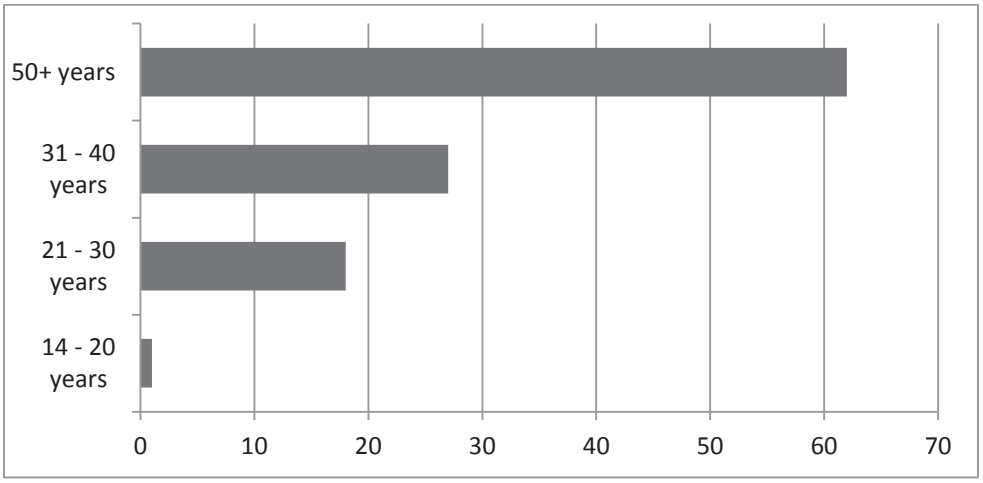
According to the study, as shown in Figure 2 above, 89 women of the 171 interviewed were born in Gauteng Province, while 41 women were born in the Free State Province. There were 16 women who were born in the Eastern Cape Province, while eight of the interviewees were born in Mpumalanga, and three in North West Province. Two of the women waste pickers were born in Limpopo and one in the Western Cape Province. Nobody in the group that was interviewed was born in the Northern Cape Province.

Figure 3: Race group



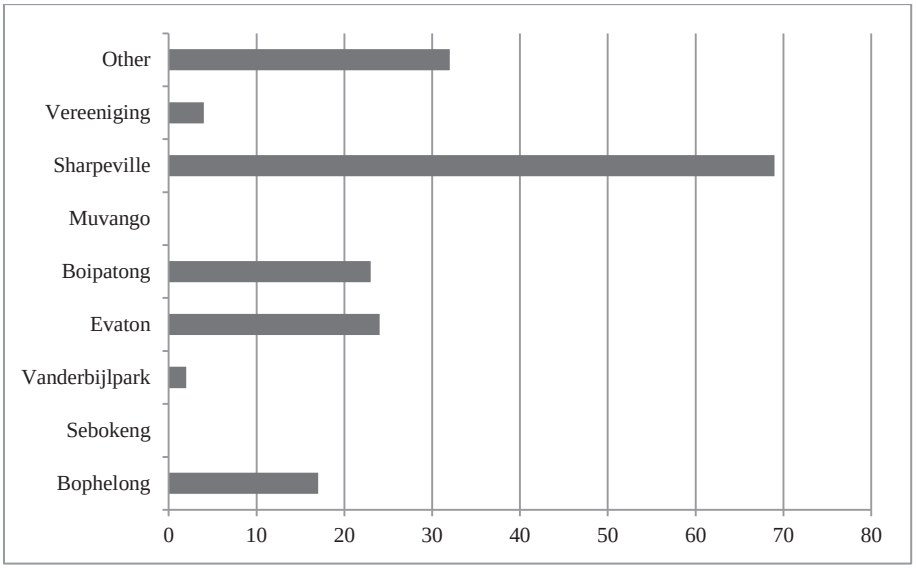
As shown in Figure 3 above, 98 per cent of the women who were interviewed in the three different local municipalities were black women. None of the waste pickers interviewed in the SDM were white, coloured, or Indian women. There is, however, the possibility that members of these minority race groups may be involved in the waste recycling business in other provinces of South Africa.

Figure 4: Age group



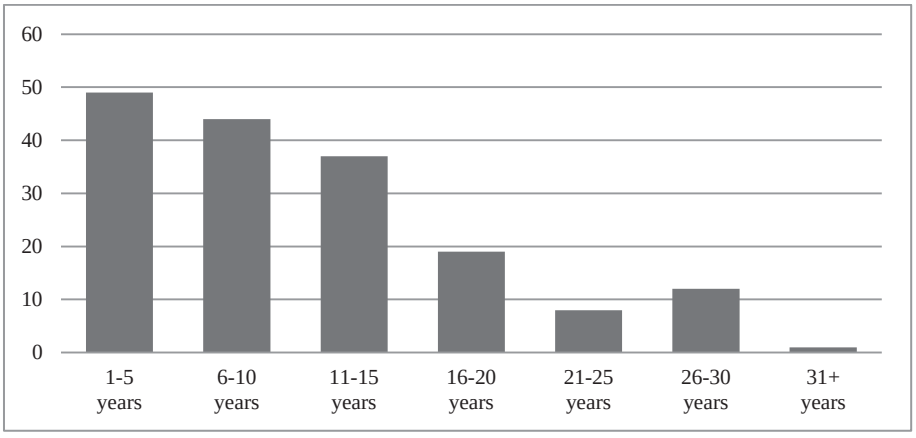
According to Figure 4 in the study, 57 per cent of the women interviewed fall into the category of 50 years old and above. The second highest age category of women involved in waste recycling are between the ages of 31 to 40 years, which represents 25 per cent of the sample group. Only 17 per cent of those interviewed fall into the 21 to 30-year-old age group. There was only one young woman (or 1%) under the age of 20 years.

Figure 5: Where do you stay?



In Figure 5 the research undertaken shows that the majority of women interviewed (69 women) live in Sharpeville, while 24 of the women who are recycling in Palm Springs and Boitshepiville stay in Evaton and 23 live in Boipatong. Of the others who were interviewed, 32 stay in the townships of Ratanda and Marina da Gama in MidVaal. Although 17 of the women stay in Bophelong, they are recycling in Boitshepiville and Palm Springs landfill sites. Very few of the women (2) involved in recycling activities live in Vanderbijlpark and in Vereeniging (3). The research team did not interview any women who claimed to live in Muvango or Sebokeng.

Figure 6: How long have you been in the recycling business?



According to Figure 6, of the field research undertaken in the Sedibeng District Municipality, 49 women have been involved in recycling for between one to five years. It was found that 44 women have been active as waste pickers for six to ten years and 37 women for eleven to fifteen years. As a general rule the longer the period of involvement, the fewer people in the group – there were nineteen women in the sixteen to twenty-year group and only eight women who had

worked for between 21 to 25 years. There were, however, twelve women who had worked for between 26 and 30 years in waste recycling. Only one woman had worked for more than 31 years in this sector.

Figure 7: Do you own or rent a home?

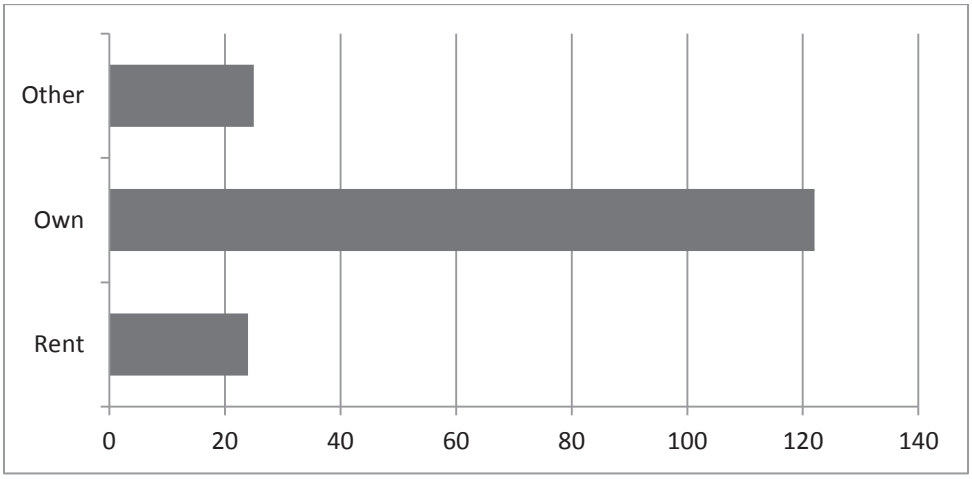


Figure 7 shows that the majority of women (71%) interviewed in the three local municipalities in the SDM owned a house. Some of them claimed they had built their own homes with the money earned from the waste business. Others (14%) are apparently renting a house and 15 per cent of the women are staying in the backyard of a house in one of the townships. A few of the women live in shacks in informal settlements.

Figure 8: Where do you collect your recyclable material?

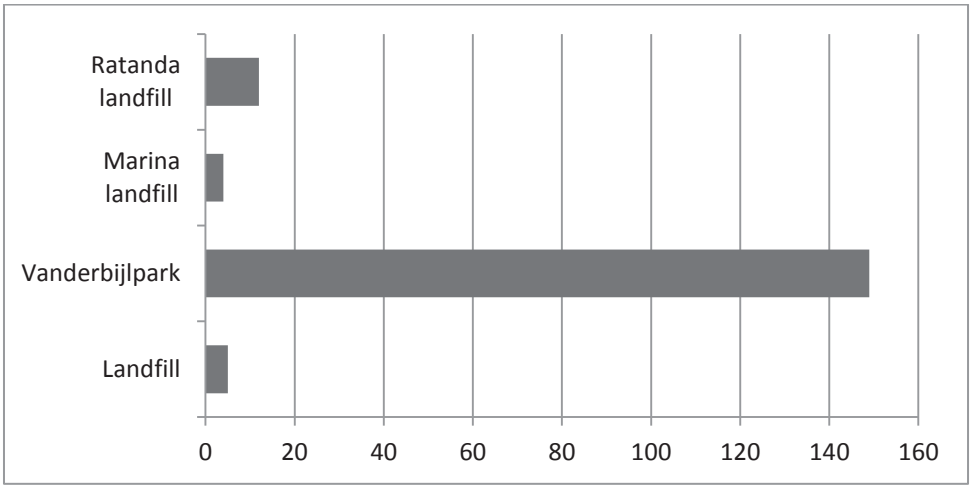
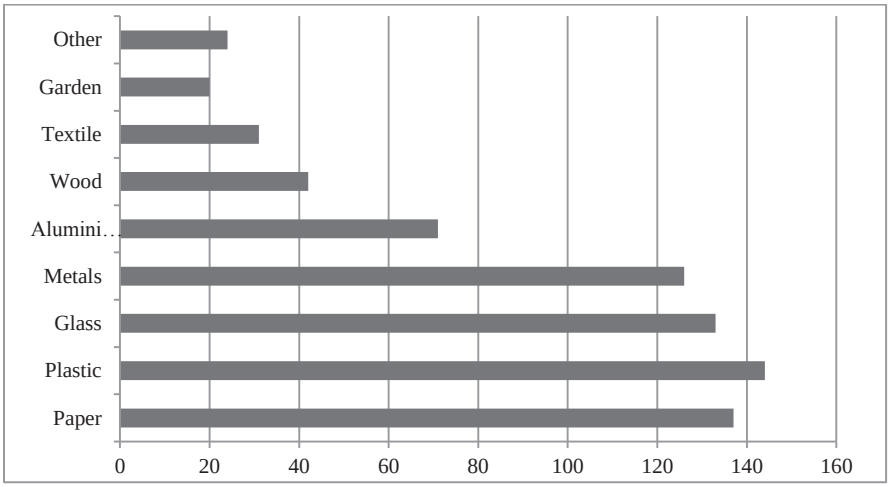


Figure 8 shows that 88 per cent of the women interviewed collect their recyclable material at the landfill site located in Vanderbijlpark.

Those who work at the Ratanda landfill in Lesedi Local Municipality represented 7 per cent of the total sample. About 2 per cent of the women work at the Marina da Gama landfill in the MidVaal Local Municipality. The rest of the women confirmed their involvement in collecting recyclable material but did not specify an exact landfill site. As the figure shows, a large number of women collect waste at Palm Springs and Boitshepiville dumping sites in the Emfuleni Local Municipality.

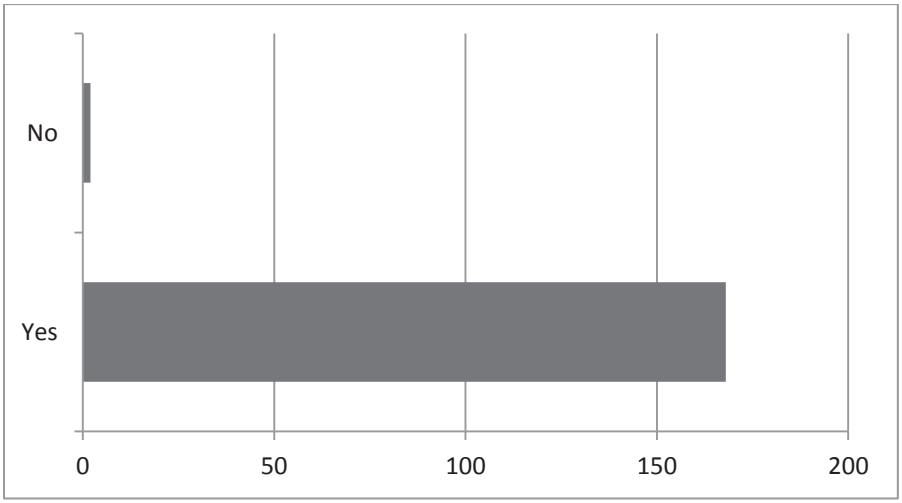
Figure 9: Which type of waste do you collect on a daily basis?



According to Figure 9, the information gleaned from the fieldwork, the majority (144) of the women interviewed stated that more plastic material is collected than any other type of waste. According to 137 women, paper comes a close second to plastic. Glass waste (133 women) is in third position and metal waste (126 women) in the fourth position. A small amount of aluminium (71 women) is also collected. Wood waste (42 women), textiles (31 women), and garden material (20 women) are collected by comparatively few of the waste pickers.

The majority of women collect waste materials based on the demand for that material i.e. if there is a willing individual buyer or a company which recycles waste materials.

Figure 10: Do you do the classification of recyclable material yourself?



In Figure 10 most of the women (99% of them) who work as waste pickers on landfills in the SDM and were interviewed by researchers acknowledged that they themselves classify the waste materials they salvage. There was only a very limited number (1%) of women who said they do not do their own classification of these materials.

Figure 11: How much money do you make from selling recyclable material?

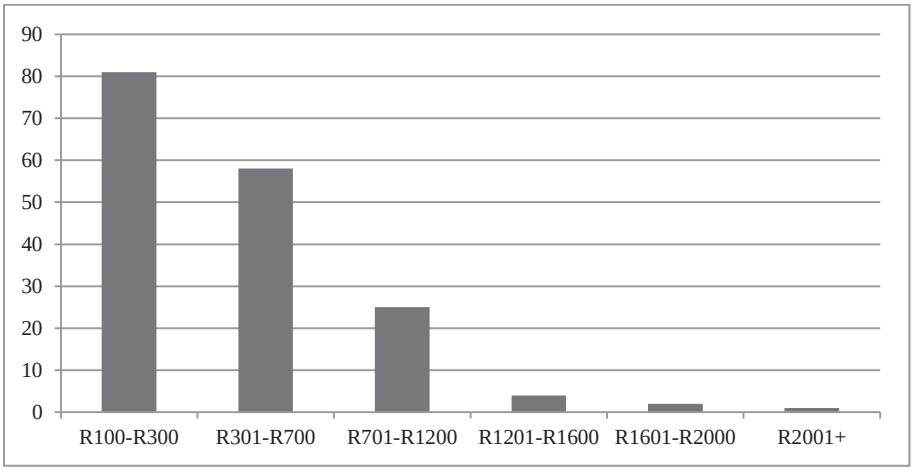


Figure 11 illustrates that a large number of the women interviewed (80 of them) intimated that they make between R100 and R300 per week by selling waste material, while 58 women earn between R301 to R700 per week. There were 25 women who claimed to be earning between R701 and R1 200 per week from the sale of waste material, while only four women indicated that they make between R1 201 and R1 600 per week. There were two women who told researchers that they make between R1 601 and R2 000 per week, while only one woman claimed to earn more than R2 000 per week. It should be noted that there are no other apparent prospects of employment for these women other than collecting waste materials on the dumping site.

Figure 12: Does your household have any income other than yours?

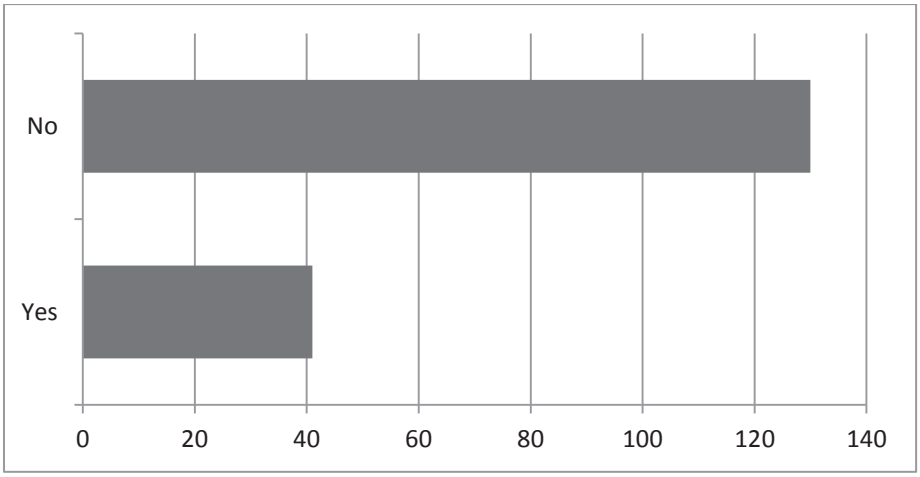
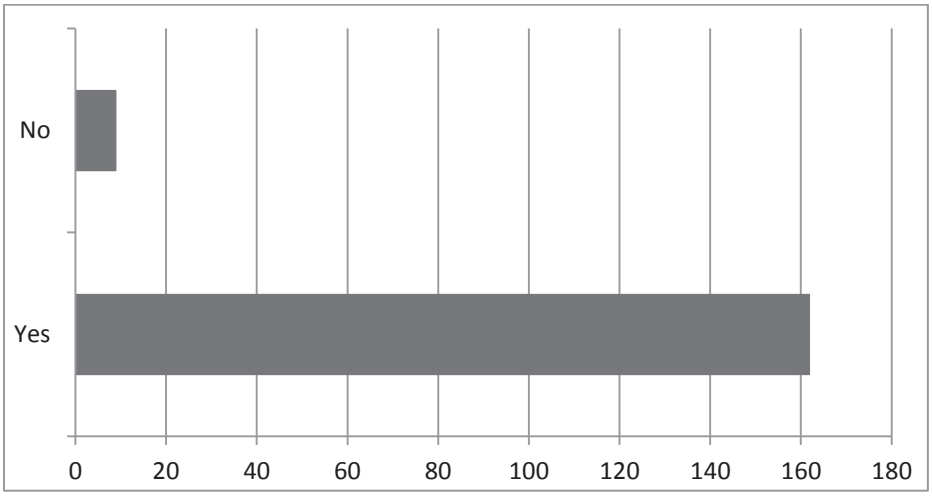


Figure 12 shows that most of the women (76% of those interviewed) have no another source of income beside their waste recycling activities. A small group of women (24% of those interviewed) acknowledge that their household does indeed have another source of income in addition to the money they earn by selling recyclable waste.

Figure 13: Do you have a family?



According to Figure 13, the findings of the study the majority of women interviewed (95%) have a family to support. A small number of women (5%) responded by saying they were single and had no dependants.

Figure 14: How many dependent children do you have?

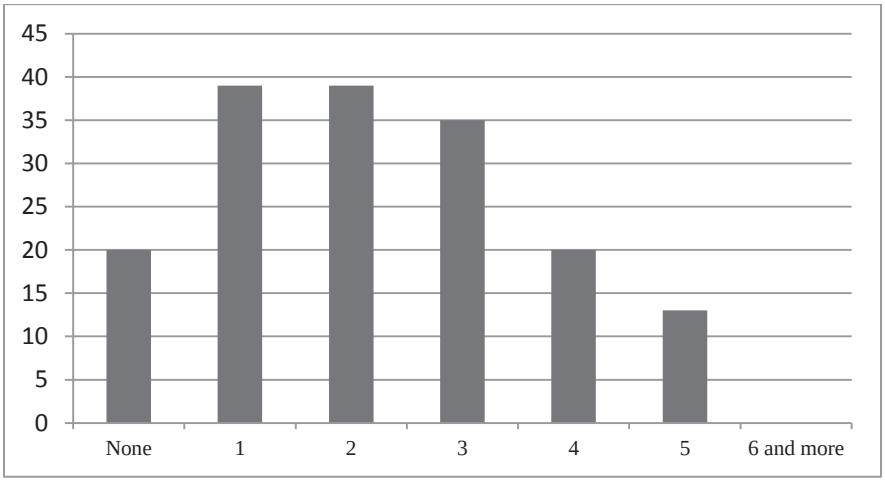
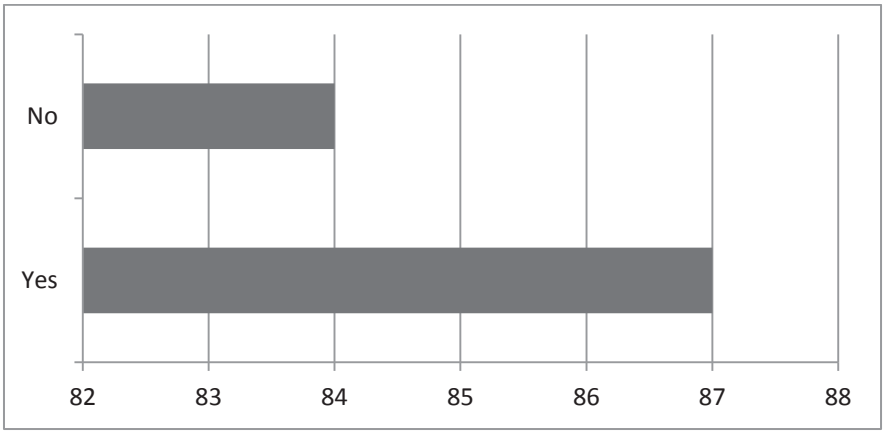


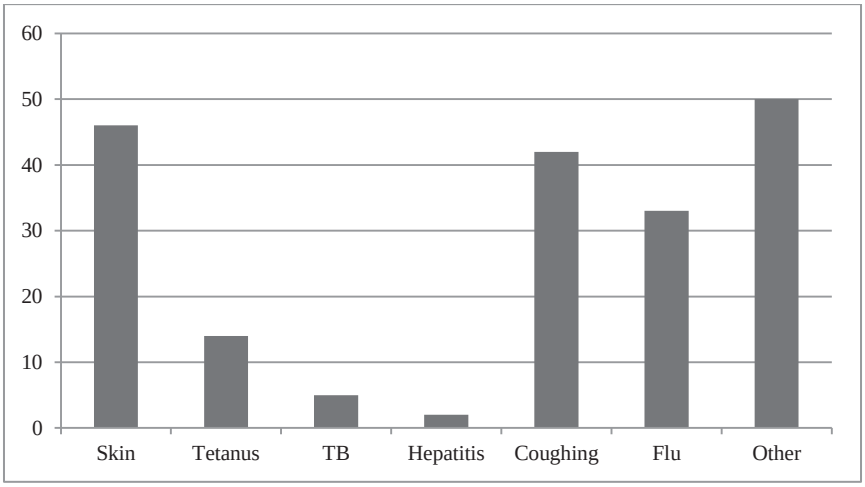
Figure 14 shows that most of those interviewed have dependent children. There were 39 of the women who acknowledged having one child. Another 39 indicated that they have two children; 35 women have three children; and 20 of the women interviewed have four children. There were only 13 women of those interviewed who have five children, while 20 of them have no children at all. None of those interviewed have more than five dependent children in the family

Figure 15: Do you receive any social grants?



The figure 15 above shows that 51 per cent of the women interviewed acknowledged that they receive government assistance in terms of a social grant. The remaining 49 per cent of women do not receive any grants. They offered no explanation on why these women (although they have children) do not benefit from government social grants.

Figure 16: Have you been ill during the past month?



The Figure 16 above shows that the majority of women waste pickers interviewed in this project admitted that they had spells of feeling sick in recent months. As many as 50 women of the 171 interviewed said that they had been ill without providing any detail of the nature of the sickness, while 46 women admitted that had suffered skin ailments in the past months. This may well have been linked with their activities on the dumping sites. Another group of 42 women confirmed that they had chest ailments and had been coughing, while 33 of the women said that they had suffered bouts of flu. There were also 14 women who claimed to have had tetanus, although it is unclear whether the diagnosis had been made by a doctor. There were five women who said that they were tuberculosis (TB) sufferers. Only two women indicated that they suffered from hepatitis. Most of them admitted that they were currently receiving some kind of hospital outpatient treatment.

Figure 17: Is there any organisation that protects you when you are on the landfill site?

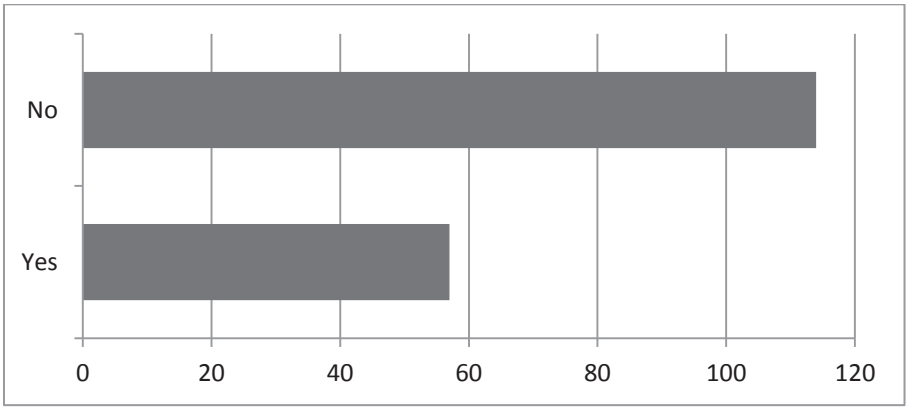
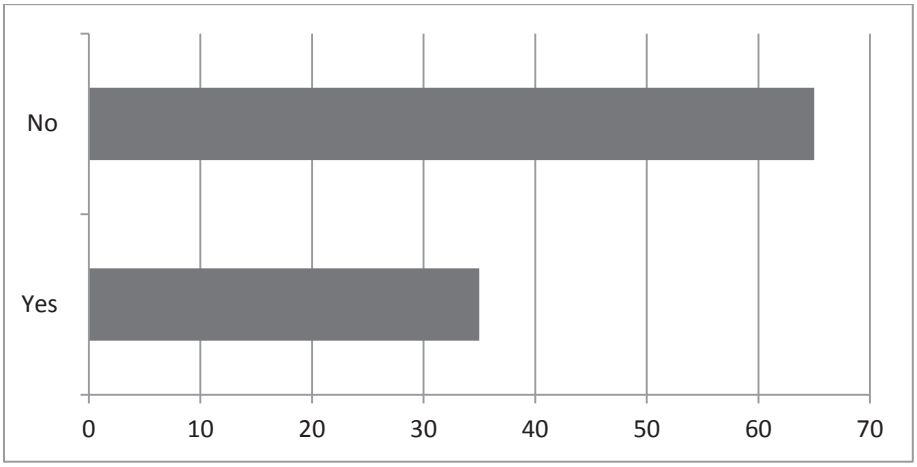


Figure 17 illustrates the fact that 67 per cent of the women interviewed indicated that there is no organisation which protects them. However, there was a group of women (33% of the women interviewed) that confirmed that there is indeed an organisation which protects the people who are recycling on the municipal dumping site. The researcher could not, however, confirm the

identity or role of this organisation. It is possible that the women did not understand the implications of the question or that they felt that nebulous 'social workers' or non-governmental organisations would protect them in dire circumstances.

Figure 18: Is it safe to work on this landfill site?



In Figure 18 it is shown that the majority of women (65%) felt that it was unsafe to work on the landfill site. The municipality does not guarantee the safety of the people who collect waste materials on the dumping site. However, some women (35%) stated that there was a reasonable degree of safety on the landfill sites in the SDM.

WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN WASTE COLLECTION IN SEDIBENG DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY

The recycling of waste in the SDM has become a means of uplifting impoverished women to the extent that they can indeed be accorded entrepreneur status. This is no idle claim because the majority of them generate an income on a weekly basis. Instead of staying at home in the townships, they have decided to work independently by collecting recyclable waste material. It is true to say that waste recycling has opened up many opportunities for a large number of women waste pickers. They sell the recyclable material to junk buyers.

These women are among those who were unable to find any employment in the formal sector. Most of them have a low level of education and lack training and qualifications but they have made a success of the work they are doing on the dumping sites. In conversation with them it becomes clear they are not ashamed about what they do. It has become a daily job that brings in a small but valuable income which ensures their survival and the wellbeing of their families.

In addition, as one of the women pointed out, the waste pickers are rendering a service to the municipalities by reducing the volume of refuse on the landfill sites.

The photograph below (Figure 19) was taken on the Boitshepiville landfill in the Emfuleni Local Municipality in October 2012 while the researcher's team was busy with its fieldwork, and shows the stark reality of the waste pickers' work.

An estimate of the waste collected by these women may well run into tons.

Figure 19: Boitshepiville Dumping Site (Emfuleni Local Municipality)

Source: Own, generated during fieldwork

The volumes of packaged waste shown above have not been collected exclusively by women waste pickers; there are also men who collect recyclable material although they generally put all the material together to sell to junk buyers. There may also be middlemen who buy the recyclable materials on a daily basis. However, the researcher can state categorically that the majority of the waste pickers active in the Boitshepiville landfill site are women. Indeed this statement holds true for all the landfill sites the research team visited in the entire SDM.

Many of the women interviewed in this study complained about the unscrupulous middlemen who buy up the waste material on the landfill site. It was found that some of these middlemen pay a very low price to the women who do most of the sorting and collecting of recyclable material. The women claim that the middlemen then sell the material to dealers in Ekurhuleni at much higher prices – and are making good profits.

The relevant municipalities can make a meaningful contribution to the women waste pickers by providing trucks to transport the recyclable material directly to the buyer. This would in effect enable the women to sell the material at a higher price and bypass the middlemen. The Emfuleni Local Municipality has already acted on this suggestion and has provided two trucks for the purpose. This type of assistance could be offered by other local authorities and the service could be improved. Currently, the transportation of recyclable waste from the landfill sites is done according to a roster.

The local authorities in this region do not have any obligation to make this kind of commitment. They are merely acting on what has become a clear realisation rather than a point of debate – that waste pickers across the country are making a positive impact on the environment.

All municipalities should be aware that the more they can do to improve the lot of the waste pickers, the greater the role that these women can play in terms of a positive environmental impact. As was shown in the literature review and overview of the waste recycling sector in Brazil, there is a category of waste pickers in that country whose monthly earnings exceed the minimum wage laid down by the Brazilian government.

This study also proposes that the women who currently sort through the refuse on the refuse dumps should be organised and empowered. Some of them, for example, could progress within the ranks of women waste pickers to fulfill the role of intermediaries and liaise with buyers while

ensuring that the rank and file waste pickers are not exploited. There are studies that have been undertaken in Asia which show that "outsider" waste intermediaries have ruthlessly exploited waste pickers. According to Mitchell (2008: 113), one of the "…generalisations we can make about waste pickers is that they can [be] grossly exploited by middlemen". This type of situation must be avoided by appointing municipal officials to organise and empower the women who work at the dumping sites.

It is also true that women waste pickers sell their products to the waste buyer at very low prices simply because they have no other alternative than to sell at the price the waste buyer demands. There should be a way in which the local authority can assist the women by liaising directly with the end buyers and setting a reasonable price so that the women can make a marginal profit and it will still be worth the waste buyer's while to have the women collect and sort the recyclable material at the dumping grounds. After making some enquiries in other metropolitan areas, it appears that prices paid to waste pickers in the SDM are low.

EMPOWERING WOMEN WASTE PICKERS IN THE SDM

Empowering women who work in the SDM as waste pickers implies making particular changes to the conditions under which they work. There are many definitions of empowerment; this research report agrees with the definition provided by Tandon (2012: 27) who writes:

> "Empowerment is the process of enabling people to be actors in their issues. Women's empowerment is about increasing their ability to take control over the decisions that affect their lives. This includes access to and control over information, resources, decision making and the distribution of benefit".

This finding also takes the view that the empowerment of women waste pickers must focus on making a positive impact on their lives. It must give them the opportunity and the ability to change their working conditions on the dump sites. Currently, there is no assistance provided for them; there are no workshops or similar training programmes to give them the opportunity to uplift their working conditions.

Any form of empowerment provided by the local authority will have positive value, for example, making more trucks available to transport the recycled material will create a quicker turnover for the women. As shown in the photograph taken at the Boitshepiville dumping site (Figure 19), the recyclable material tends to accumulate, slowing down the return on the waste pickers' labour. This kind of commitment from local authorities will boost the self-esteem of the waste pickers in the Sedibeng District Municipality and set an example for the entire country to follow.

The photograph also shows the huge volume of recyclable material collected by the waste pickers in the Boitshepiville dump close to Tshepiso Township.

Furthermore, the price of recyclable waste materials needs to be re-evaluated, because the majority of women working in this informal sector feel that the current price, especially with the constant rise in the cost of living, is too low. In this regard, the local authorities could perhaps assist these women by liaising with recycling companies to broker the best possible price, particularly if the SDM undertakes to deliver the recyclable material to the buyer on behalf of the waste workers.

Another effective means of empowerment would be for the local authorities to take the necessary steps to regulate and organise the informal recycling work these women are doing. The reasoning behind this argument is that waste management is one of the services provided by the local authority.

The women working on the landfill site need a basic form of training on how to work effectively. Such knowledge could be provided in a workshop or given informally on a weekly basis by a municipal waste management official. Instruction could also be provided on the classification of recyclable material and how to recognise and report the illegal dumping of hazardous waste.

These women also need to be trained on how to make compost from decayed organic waste material. This would be profitable if sold to farmers, fertilizer companies, or to the communities in the townships who are involved in growing vegetables or running other small gardening projects. This kind of training will improve the quality of life of many women and men who are active in the waste recycling business. During our fieldwork some of the waste pickers were questioned about making compost but none of the women indicated that they are aware of the economic possibilities this might bring. It is imperative to initiate this kind of empowerment for this category of women.

The ways of empowering women waste pickers are diverse. One cannot merely rely on one or two areas. Any type of training or assistance will uplift the lives of these underprivileged women in the region.

Another important point to be made is that the researchers found that most of the women waste pickers in the SDM are unfamiliar with the value of electronic waste.

Only very few of them collect such items on the landfill sites. Because they have not be informed about the high prices paid for electronic waste material they often ignore these items which fetch far more than discarded cans and plastic bottles.

The collection of e-waste, as it has been called, is rapidly developing in other countries worldwide. It has been found that e-waste is toxic and can be dangerous, not only to human beings, but also for soil and water, and as such it is detrimental to the environment. Technical assistance will be needed to teach the waste pickers how to dismantle electronic equipment, such as computers, televisions, and other appliances they might find on the dumping side. This kind of assistance should ideally be provided in workshops organised by local authorities. An awareness of how to work with e-waste is essential for the waste pickers.

THE HEALTH IMPACT

This research project shows that most of the women waste pickers involved in recycling activity on the landfills across the district are vulnerable to health risks on a daily basis. Some of the women offload waste in the composting room when the truck reaches the dumping site. There is also the risk of a truck knocking down a worker when driving on the landfill site. Measures should be in place to avoid this kind risk on the dumping sites.

The majority of women acknowledge the fact that they are vulnerable to health risks because of exposure to waste of all kinds. Many of them do not use gloves when collecting recycled material. In this study, it was established that the women who work on the landfill sites periodically suffer from a number of sicknesses including skin ailments, chest complaints, flu, tetanus, tuberculosis and hepatitis. Most of the women, being poorly educated, could not tell the names of the illnesses they may well have contracted while working with waste products. There is certainly a need for vaccination to protect these women from the various kind of sicknesses to which they are exposed. Knowing the sensitive nature of HIV/AIDS, the interviewers did not ask whether any of the women are HIV positive.

The researcher noticed that many waste pickers do not wear protective clothing and very few of them wear gloves while handling the waste. These groups of women are at high risk of parasitic,

enteric and perhaps viral infections. Another issue is that when it rains, there is the possibility of contamination of the water on the landfill sites.

Many of the health risks and other injuries the women waste pickers encounter on a daily basis could be kept to the minimum if the municipality provides assistance to them.

This could be in the form of protective clothing and gloves. Information on the health risks of working on the dumps would also be helpful. Medical care is of course available at public hospitals in the event of accidents.

At two of the dumping sites (Boitshepiville and Ratanda) there are toilets and water taps for the workers to use. The researcher was unable to confirm whether the toilets and water taps are there for the waste pickers or for the municipal workers. Presumably all those who work on the dumps can make use of these facilities.

The district municipality should provide clear guidelines on the protection of waste pickers when they are working on the dumping site. In addition, some of the services which each local municipality could provide in future include the following:

- Provide clean water and sanitation facilities, not only for municipal workers but for all those who working on the landfill sites;
- Prohibit the entrance of children; it is unsafe for them to work or play on the landfill sites;
- Provide awareness on personal hygiene and on the safe feeding of domestic animals; and
- Move to interdict selling food and beverages on the dumping sites.

POLICIES AND MEASURES ON WOMEN AND WASTE

The questions remain: What measures should be introduced and what policies should be formulated in the SDM to improve the working conditions of these women waste pickers who play a significant role in the informal employment sector? How can they be assisted?

The formulation and implementation of such measures are the sole mandate of the Sedibeng District Municipality. The SDM should consider these policy recommendations because they are based on scientific findings. These recommendations are the following:

1. The local municipality should encourage the waste pickers involved in the landfill sites to form a co-operative, which move would hopefully be supported on a national level by the Ministry of Trade and Industry. This co-operative could, in the longer term, be given the mandate to manage the landfill sites on behalf of the relevant municipality.
2. The SDM, through the local municipalities, should approach the Department of Health to visit the landfill sites on an annual basis. In consultation with the waste pickers' co-operative these workers should be provided with the necessary vaccinations and other basic health care/preventative measures as deemed necessary by the Department of Health.
3. The local municipalities, under the guidance of the SDM, should assist the waste pickers who are scavenging in the municipality dumping sites to wear protective clothing and the necessary equipment. The women waste pickers are at risk because they work without protective clothing or proper tools.
4. The Department of Home Affairs should visit landfill sites throughout the SDM every year to assist waste pickers who do not have identification documents.

5. Waste pickers must be encouraged to be vaccinated and/or immunised against possible health hazards to which they are exposed through contact with waste materials on the dumping site.
6. Local municipalities should develop training materials for waste pickers on occupational and environmental health problems associated with solid waste handling. This kind of training can be undertaken in conjunction with other stakeholders involved in the waste recycling business.
7. There is an urgent need for adult education for this impoverished category of people who are recycling waste on the landfill sites. Such an initiative would assist them to improve their chances of finding other employment opportunities.

CONCLUSION

The study proves that waste recycling has become an important sector for a category of women who cannot find employment in the formal sector. The scavenging activities they perform on the landfill sites in the SDM have become a means of livelihood for these women and their families.

It is important for local governments in the SDM and elsewhere in the country to evaluate the positive role the waste pickers play. These women are independent entrepreneurs in that they generate a weekly income by recycling materials collected on the landfill sites. There is a need for local governments countrywide to improve the recognition of waste pickers and assist them where possible. SDM has pioneered this initiative.

Currently, there is some limited recognition from national government and local authorities on the importance of waste recycling, both as an environmentally friendly activity and as a means of alleviating unemployment. By improving the circumstances under which these women work their exploitation by middlemen can hopefully be restricted. The women involved in waste recycling in the SDM district are also dissatisfied about the low prices they receive for the recyclable material from the junk buyers. As has been shown, there is a need for official support in this regard.

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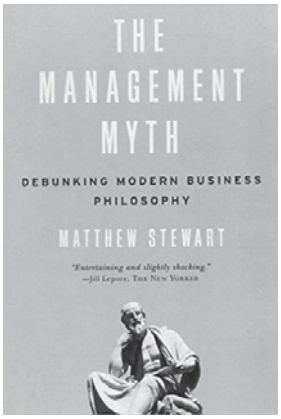

BOOK REVIEW

By H.F. Wissink

Stewart, Matthew. 2009. *The Management Myth: Debunking Modern Business Philosophy*. W.W. Norton & Company, Inc. Pages 343. ISBN 978-0-393-06553-4

The Management Myth: Debunking Modern Business Philosophy by Matthew Stewart

A thorough review of the history of management consulting that attempts to debunk the so-called science involved. Some great insights that many a CEO should take note of, but maybe a bit too weighty for the general reader.

Stewart's book questions the relevance of the management consultancy business from its origin to the close of the first decade of the 21st century.

The book asserts that business management should be viewed *as* a philosophy and that all research during the preceding century has been contaminated by the so-called absurd belief that the philosophy of management should be seen as a science.

In addition to a section on the author's personal history in the management consultancy business, a history of consultancy is provided, up to the works of Drucker, Peters, Collins and Covey.

The historical overview considers experiments and reports on management successes and contemplates the data used. Stewart suggests that results were, at best, over-emphasised. In a number of cases they were falsified, and in most cases no control group was present during analyses. The closest to reality that management research could get was the instances of correlation that could be found, but without initiatory causation.

Because of constantly changing external and internal environments, the experiments could not be replicated, since the conditions in which the experiments were performed cannot themselves be duplicated. This non-predictability of life is conducive to the longevity of the consultancy business.

The book often embarks on a philosophical trail that tends to overshadow the main discourse of what management should be all about.

Key issues raised in the book include questions about why advice is accepted on how to manage an organisation from people who are inexperienced. The author emphasises that the main function of well-paid consultants is to assist managers to consider existing and relevant data.

The point is made that often management takes place from theoretically qualified individuals with no experience of the real world.

The author suggests that managers should trust their own judgement and abilities before calling for consultants to unravel their problems. The recommendation is to employ logic from one's own experience and apply that knowledge and understanding to address problems in the workplace. In most cases, the manager's solutions will be no worse than those often provided by expensive consultants.

The book concludes with the author comparing the management experts with the self-helping problem-solvers and by advocating self-help, although possible insights from outsiders should never be disregarded.

Reviewer: Professor H.F. Wissink is Dean, School of Management, Information Technology & Governance, College of Law and Management Studies, University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN)

JDL JOURNAL POLICIES

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The Journal for Development and Leadership (JDL) is a double peer-reviewed journal of the Faculty of Business and Economic Sciences at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in Port Elizabeth, South Africa. This journal is aimed at providing practical guidance and empirical evidence to researchers and practitioners specialising in Business and Economics and related fields.

The journal provides a communication forum to advance entrepreneurship, innovation, small business management and various disciplines in Business and Economics, as well as the application of the disciplines in practice. Its aim is the improvement and further development of these fields and it is designed to appeal to academics, researchers and practitioners.

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It is envisaged that the JDL will serve as a platform for presenting information central to the concerns of academics, researchers and practitioners. In this manner, research will grow and simultaneously shape theories for future application in the relevant societal contexts.

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INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS OF ARTICLES

Editorial policy

The editorial policy includes taking cognisance of the journal's objective to advance all disciplines, fields and sub-fields within the Faculty of Business and Economic Sciences, such as those mentioned above and, in addition, the advancement of entrepreneurship, innovation, small business development, among others, as well as the application of the various, relevant disciplines in practice.

The primary purpose of the journal is to publish research articles in the various fields, to disseminate information and to serve as a publication vehicle for academics, researchers and practitioners. For example, practical papers, empirical papers, new approaches and techniques, case studies, and conceptual papers will be considered for publication, as well as book reviews and, when appropriate, conference papers.

Review process and proofing

The decision of the Editorial Committee to publish a given article is based on the judgement of the reviewers, who are all knowledgeable in their respective fields.

Authors will be informed of the committee's decision, including any relevant comments, after the article had been reviewed. Neither authors nor reviewers are identified in the review process.

Submission requirements

When submitting articles, authors have to agree that:

- They have not submitted and will not submit their article to another entity while the article is under review at JDL.
- They will only submit articles and empirical reports that have not been published previously.
- Their articles are prepared according to the prescribed style of JDL.
- Articles that have not been appropriately prepared according to the set guidelines will be returned to the authors prior to peer-reviewing.

Format

Font and font size should be Arial or Times New Roman in 12 pt font size. The margins should be 3cm left, 2cm right and 2.54 top and bottom of each page.

Abstract

The abstract should consist of approximately 200 words, should be in single spacing and should be in italics.

Keywords

Authors should identify up to five keywords, separated by a semi-colon on the title page that characterise the principal themes covered by the paper.

Language

Papers should be written in English (preferably South African English). (In MS Word go to Tools, Language, Set Language and then select "English, South Africa".)

Title page

This page should contain the title of the article and the name, affiliation, full address and contact information of every author. If the article is co-authored, then the name of the author to whom correspondence should be sent has to be marked with an asterisk (*).

Body

The article has to be typed on one side of the page only in 1.5 line spacing. Appropriate headings and sub-headings should be used to segment the article to enhance readability. The length of the article should not exceed 10 000 words of typed text (approximately 30 type-written A4 pages).

Headings

Headings and sub-headings should not be numbered. All headings have to be formatted in bold upper case, and sub-headings in bold lower case (for example, using initial capitals and the rest lower case). Sub-sub headings should be in regular lower case.

Manuscript contents

Articles should include: abstract, introduction, identification of a problem, aims of the study, method and sample, measuring instruments, procedure, followed by interpretation and articulation of the results.

A conclusion has to be provided at the end of the article followed by a bibliography and possibly annexures (appendices).

Tables and figures

Tables and figures should be applied in the text, as close as possible and relevant to the appropriate explanation. They should be numbered consecutively in Arabic numerals.

Captions above tables and figures should be flush with margin and in bold and lower case.

Sources below tables and figures should be flush with margin (not bold) and in lower case.

Ethics and plagiarism

Turnitin software can be used for the prevention of plagiarism. The software checks submissions against millions of published research papers, documents on the web, and other relevant sources.

The chief goal of the JDL ethics policy is to provide advice for authors and to maintain the scholarly integrity of the JDL journal.

Authors should be familiar with the JDL ethics policy before submitting articles for possible publication. This is to guide authors to submit only original work to the JDL.

It is accepted that most incidents of plagiarism, redundant publication and copyright infringement occur because of a lack of understanding and not through fraudulent intent.

Copyright

Copy-editing

Manuscripts accepted for publication after peer review will be copy-edited for clarity, conciseness, and conformity with journal style.

Errata
Errata relate to the amendment of mistakes contained in the journal in editing or production, including errors of oversight and other omissions.

If there is an error in a figure or table, the usual procedure is to publish a sentence of rectification. A significant error in the figure or table is corrected by publication of a new corrected figure or table as an erratum in a follow-up edition.

Referencing
The Harvard Style of reference is used (see below). All publications cited in the text should be listed alphabetically by the surname of the first author in the bibliography at the end of the paper.

A bibliography (alphabetical, by author's last name, including initials) should be placed at the end of the article. Authors should ensure that there is a complete reference for every citation in the text and that the cited dates and the spelling of authors' names in the text and the references are consistent. A bibliography also includes other consulted sources not necessarily cited in the text.

Citations
The most recent publications on the topic should be cited, particularly those of the last 5 years, although the inclusion of older publications is acceptable, if appropriately applicable within the relevant context.

Full stops and no spaces between initials in prelims list, article opener - for example: Professor H.R. Lloyd;

After abbreviations - no full stops after abbreviation that ends in the final letter of the word - for example: 'Dr'

References in text
Up to 6 authors: use all names at first mention, thereafter use '*et al'*.

Use ampersand (&) between authors' names when between brackets.

In the text, comma after author's name, space after colon – for example: (Lloyd, 2008: 123).

Providing of page numbers is mandatory.

In the bibliography, no parentheses around the year except in the case of 'nd' for 'no date supplied'.

Full stops between initials - see below.

Book and article titles: use upper case only for the first letter of the titles, and not for the first letter of the subtitle after the colon.

Style for dates - all dates in UK/SA style, e.g. 24 June 2008. Use this in every instance, in the text and in the references.

Examples of references in text
One author:
Brown (2010)
(Brown, 2010: 54)

Two authors:
Brown and Black (2011)
(Brown & Black. 2011: 89)

Three or more authors:
Black, Brown and White (2013: 45)
Black *eta/* (2013: 65)

Same author, different dates:
Black and White (2011, 2012)

Same author, same date:
Brown (2012a: 15, 2012b: 33)

Different authors:
(Black, 2013; Brown & White, 2012)

Examples of references in the Bibliography
Book:
White, A.B. & Snow, R.J. 2012. *Organisational psychology (3rd Ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.*

Edited book, chapter:
Brown, J.J. 2010. Personnel assessment. In A.K. Black & J.B. White (Eds), *Handbook of industrial psychology* (pp. 35-388). New York: Wiley.

No author:
A manual of style. 2013. Palo Alto, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Journal article:
Black, P.P. 2009. Employment testing: old theories and new research findings. *Journal of Human Performance,* 9(1): 130-145.

Internet:
Brown, T.P. 2012. *City project.* Available online at: http://www.larcities.com [Accessed 6 January 2013].

*(Urbanisation.*2011. Available online at: http://wwwurbancit.com [Accessed 15 August 2012].

Black, C.J. & Brown, A.M. 2012. Coordinating family and school. *Adolescence,* 3(1). Available online at: http:www.school.com [Accessed 10 May 2013].

Quotations & Quotation Marks
Use double quotation marks.

Single quotation marks are used within double quotation marks.

Numbers
For numbers 1-10 within the text, words must be used.
For numbers 11 onwards, use numerals.

Use spaces instead of commas between hundreds, thousands and millions.

Use the decimal point rather than the comma.

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Where and how to submit
Articles should be submitted in MS Word format via e-mail to:

naas.ferreira@nmmu.ac.za / Telephone: +27 (0) 41-504 4607 or
rosalind.petrakis@nmmu.ac.za / Telephone: +27 (0) 41-504 2906

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