AFRICAN PERSPECTIVES ON ADULT LEARNING

Management of Adult Education Organisations in Africa

Fredrick Muyia Nafukho • Nelson HW Wawire • Penina Mungania Lam

African Perspectives on Adult Learning

Management of Adult Education Organisations in Africa

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African Perspectives on Adult Learning

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University of Botswana

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ADINKRA SYMBOLS

For the icons in this Series, we have chosen Adinkra symbols that are associated with learning and community in some way. These striking and expressive symbols are used by the people of Ghana and the Ivory Coast in textile and jewellery design, architecture, wood carvings, etc., and represent only one of a number of writing systems found in Africa.

Symbol		Meaning	Interpretation
	bese saka	sack of cola nuts	abundance, plenty, affluence, power, unity, togetherness
	dame-dame	name of a board game	intelligence, ingenuity, strategy, craftiness
	dwennimmen	ram's horns	humility, strength, wisdom, learning
	mate masie	what I hear I keep	wisdom, knowledge, learning, prudence, understanding
	nkonsonkonson	chain link	unity, human relations, brotherhood, cooperation
	nsaa	hand-woven fabric	excellence, authenticity, genuineness
	sesa woruban	morning star inside a wheel	life transformation

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Foreword

The remedial strategy of borrowing textbooks in contexts of and for students from developed countries with well-established traditions of adult education is no longer viable. The present textbook series, *African Perspectives on Adult Learning*, represents the outcome of a venture initiated three decades ago by the Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association (known then by its German acronym IIZ-DVV, now simply *dvv international*). Bringing together non-governmental and civil society organisations, *dvv international* turned this venture into a creative partnership with academia, aimed at building the training and research capacity of African universities that serve the adult education community. It has become a means of fruitful cooperation with several leading African universities, all partners being concerned with providing textbooks for university departments and institutes of adult education relevant for the African context.

The abiding interest, as well as growing financial support and substantive input of *dvv international*, has provided a key ingredient for the success of this project, along with establishing its potential for expansion. The University of Botswana has been another major contributor right from the beginning. Its Department of Adult Education has given the academic and institutional support needed for such an ambitious undertaking, graciously shouldering the editorial secretariat of the series. The third pillar of this endeavour – and a decisive one – has been furnished by the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning (UIL – formerly the UNESCO Institute for Education, UIE), an international centre of excellence in adult learning enjoying the full backing of UNESCO and boasting extensive research, capacity-development and publishing experience in the field. UIL brought in vital international and interregional expertise. It also brought in sound and innovative country cases. From the two world conferences on adult education which it organised in 1997 and 2009 (CONFINTEA V and CONFINTEA VI) UIL has asserted the significance of adult learning and adult education for a viable future. The Institute has also mobilised sizeable financial resources of its own, led the Editorial Board and assumed responsibility

for managing often difficult matters entailed by such a complex venture.

The series addresses the critical lack of textbooks for adult education and the alienating nature of those currently in use in Africa. We have sought to develop a new set of foundational works conceived and developed from an African perspective and written mainly by African scholars. An African perspective, however, is not mere Afrocentrism, although some degree of the latter is required to move beyond the reigning Eurocentrism and general western dominance of all scientific domains and adult education in particular. Injecting a dose of Afrocentrism without prejudice to universal values, elementary scientific knowledge and other cultures and without complacency in the face of retrograde and discriminatory values and traditions, has proven to be a significant challenge. In essence, the African perspective has revealed itself to be both a renaissance of the continent and its manifold traditions, as well as the birth of its own new vision and prospects in the context of a fast-growing, ever-changing and increasingly globalised world.

For the initial volumes, the following titles were selected: *The Psychology of Adult Learning in Africa*; *Foundations of Adult Education in Africa*; *Research Methods for Adult Educators in Africa*¸ *Developing Programmes for Adult Learners in Africa*; and *The Social Context of Adult Learning in Africa*. This book, *Management of Adult Education Organisations in* Africa, along with *History of Adult Education in Africa*, will form the latest additions, together with a prospective volume on *Methods and Approaches to Adult Learning in Africa*. Furthermore, we are extending the Series, to incorporate the distinctly different experiences of adult education in francophone Africa, through two more books which are in development: *Socio-Psychologie de l'éducation des adultes en Afrique* and *Fondements de l'éducation des adultes en Afrique*. A lusophone variant is also being considered.

African Perspectives in Adult Learning commends itself through many distinctive features that reflect the unique manner in which it has come about. One of these has to do with the professional guidance and technical advice provided by the competent, sensitive and broadly representative

Editorial Board, whose members have displayed the capability and wisdom to steer a project of this kind. Their intellectual resources, experience and know-how made it possible for the series to take on its actual form. We wish to express our gratitude for their profound involvement, the optimism they have brought and their dedication to the successful fruition of these publications.

The co-publisher with UIL is Pearson Education South Africa, which has proven to be a partner highly-committed to the goals of the project, one prepared to engage in a collaboration of a different order and take risks in exploring new paths in publishing. As a full member of the Editorial Board, the co-publisher has offered invaluable assistance, especially in the writers' workshops and in coaching the authors throughout the composition of the chapters. The creative way in which Pearson Education South Africa has integrated the project into its work and its firm dedication to fostering editorial and authorial capacities in Africa deserve special mention. Without this sense of mission, the books would not have seen the light of day.

The authors of the works in this series have themselves been selected on the basis of proposals they submitted. We took pleasure in working with all of these devoted partners, and the project greatly benefited from their combination of individual conviction together with teamwork, collective analysis and decision-making. We wish to thank the authors for their hard work as well as their adherence to a demanding schedule. Their professionalism and competence lie at the heart of *African Perspectives in Adult Learning* and have been instrumental in its realisation.

Finally, special recognition is due to Professor Frank Youngman. As the series managing editor, he and his assistants, Dr Gabo Ntseane and Dr Oitshepile MmaB Modise of the University of Botswana, helped to launch the series and supported it with academic and secretarial back-up until the transfer of these responsibilities to *dvv international*.

In opening up new approaches to adult education and learning in Africa, the series hopes to meet the needs of governments, non-governmental and civil society organisations, and academia in an area of great importance to UNESCO and the community of nations.

Adama Ouane
Director, UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning

Preface

The Fifth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA V) that was organised by UNESCO (1997) affirmed adult learning as an integral component of sustainable development. Consequently, the late nineties witnessed much stronger calls for the support of adult learning activities. Today, people throughout the world have a better appreciation of the meaning, the scope and the role of adult education in the development of people, communities and organisations. Also, there is greater consensus today about what adult education entails than there was ten years ago. The concept has been expanded to include virtually all learning activities undertaken by adults throughout life irrespective of the particular setting of the learning activity.

The widespread appreciation of adult learning as a lifelong integral component of sustainable development has removed the invidious hierarchy that has existed for so long between the formal and non-formal education sectors. This development has attained three things. Firstly, it has legitimated the many educational activities that occur outside formal education as integral components of the education system without which the sector is incomplete. Secondly, it has strengthened the view that adult learning, through both non-formal and informal modes, is equally instrumental in the formulation of the national development strategy and, as such, deserves equal attention. Thirdly, it has put adult education into a proper perspective as a broad field of activity that includes, among others, literacy, continuing education, life skills and vocational training. In this regard, adult education encompasses a wide range of learning activities through which adults acquire attitudes, values, skills and knowledge, and day-to-day experiences, through non formally organised education, and through interaction with family, neighbours, colleagues at work, or through the mass media.

The global appreciation of the lifelong dimension of adult learning has affirmed adult education provision as multi-sectoral. Accordingly, the provision of adult learning opportunities subsumes learning activities in governmental, semi-governmental, non-governmental, commercial, industrial, mining, and private institutions. These institutions are engaged in the provision

of adult learning in three ways. Firstly, they offer learning opportunities to their staff members. In this regard, institutions occasionally run workshops to upgrade and update their employees. Alternatively, they regularly send their employees to training programmes that they consider relevant to the work of the organisation. To this end, institutions either maintain their own human resources development divisions or regularly engage outside experts to run human resources development programmes for them. They also send their staff members for professional training elsewhere, notably through part-time, evening and distance learning programmes availed by both public and private universities. Secondly, institutions offer learning opportunities to specific clientele such as their customers. For example, in certain parts of Africa, banks run specific programmes for certain levels of their customers. Thirdly and finally, institutions offer adult learning opportunities to general members of the public. Health education, community development, wildlife education, and agricultural extension are notable examples of such programmes.

The involvement of these institutions in each type of adult learning varies from sector to sector and sometimes from institution to institution. For example, commercial and industrial organisations are more likely to focus on the training of their staff members than on the training of the general public. On the other hand, the health education division of the Ministry of Health and the agriculture extension unit of the Ministry of Agriculture are more likely to spend more on the training of the general public than on the training of their staff members. Be that as it may, it is evident that the education and training of adults in Africa takes place in many settings, covers many subject areas and is provided by a wide variety of organisations. Accordingly, educators of adults in Africa work in a wide variety of organisational and complex social contexts, ranging from bureaucratic formal structures to informal community-based settings. In this regard, they assume multiple roles as programme developers, planners, organisers, tutors, researchers and disseminators, and counsellors. Therefore, the successful implementation of adult education programmes depends on the availability of knowledgeable, competent and versatile educators of adults who are able to assume a variety of roles according to the dictates of the situation they find themselves in. This undoubtedly presents fundamental conceptual and practical challenges in the training of adult educators. Compounding these challenges is the fact that most people who work with adults in learning activities hardly see themselves as adult educators. Similarly, they are hardly seen as such by the communities within which they work. Instead, they see themselves (and are seen by others) as training managers, health educators and family planners, community workers, agricultural extension officers, home economists, and course tutors, among many others that define them as experts in their field of practice. Nevertheless, whatever the label given to persons who are engaged in adult education as a field of practice, they must be proficient in the process of adult learning. The development of proficiency in the process of adult learning is rooted in adult education as a field of study.

Normally, training in adult education as a field of study is preceded by training in adult education as a field of practice. Certification in the field of practice makes most educators of adults specialists in their own right. For example, agricultural extension workers are knowledgeable in agricultural and related issues, and family planners possess the art and science of family planning. Consequently, many do not go beyond

their fields of practice in training. Instead, they regularly seek to upgrade themselves in their fields of practice so that they can meet the learning needs of their clientele who are also seeking to upgrade themselves in their respective fields of practice. The professional training of educators of adults in the field of practice takes place primarily at diploma and degree levels in tertiary education institutions across the continent of Africa. In virtually every African country there are agricultural colleges that train agricultural extension workers, health institutes that prepare health workers; and polytechnics and technical colleges that train vocational instructors. While it is not uncommon for educators of adults to confine further training to their fields of practice it has become increasingly clear to many that to be effective educators of adults they need to acquaint themselves with the process of adult learning by engaging in adult education as a field of study.

In Africa, the professional training of adult educators falls into two categories. Firstly, there are short-term non-credit professional development programmes, for example, purposefully designed workshops and seminars for literacy operatives at universities and independent private voluntary institutes. Secondly, there are long-term credit professional academic programmes that lead to formal qualifications in adult education, for example, diplomas and degrees.

Short-term non-credit professional development programmes take two forms, namely the purposefully designed programmes for specified adult education operatives such as literacy workers, and those that seek to promote the process of adult learning. Examples of the former include crash courses for literacy workers manning national literacy campaigns and programmes across Africa. Provided by relevant government departments (such as divisions of adult basic education) in collaboration with academic departments at universities and literacy private voluntary agencies; these programmes range from about two weeks to about eight weeks in duration. Such programmes focus on both the subject matter content (for example, literacy), and the principles and practices of adult learning. Refresher courses on literacy and adult basic education featuring more or less the same agencies have become regular events on the literacy calendars of most African societies. The latter (those that seek to promote the process of adult learning) are aimed at sharpening the programme development, planning, delivery, management, and monitoring and evaluation techniques of educators of adults. Through short courses (one to two weeks), university centres of continuing education (and/or their equivalents) and training-oriented private voluntary agencies help people who work with adults to become more proficient in their work of helping adults learn. Unlike the former (where the focus is both the subject matter content and the principles and practices of adult learning) these programmes are solely concerned with the principles and practices of adult learning.

The long-term credit professional academic programmes can be divided into three types, viz., the traditional semi-distance education model, the distance education model, and the full-time model. These programmes are normally university-based and are often housed in departments or institutes of adult education. The traditional semi-distance education model is designed for the practising educator of adults who lacks time for full-time university study. Through a series of block-release or short residential face-to-face class sessions (2-4 weeks per semester), learners undergo a series of crash programmes of teaching and learning. The objective is to accommodate all the teaching that would

otherwise be done in one term/semester into one/two prescribed block/residential face-to-face class sessions. Biased towards community based education programmes (for example, literacy and adult basic education, community development, and health education), these programmes lead to diplomas and degrees in adult education.

The distance education model seeks to sharpen the adult education skills of practitioners and thus legitimate their roles as adult educators. This model thrives on the timely availability of suitable distance education materials. The development of suitable distance education materials takes at least eighteen months. For this reason, many such programmes take off before the materials are in place and thus of necessity silently become traditional semi-distance education models that rely on block release teaching sessions and ordinary textbooks.

The full-time model comes in two forms. Firstly, there is the full-time programme for the practitioner. Ranging from one year to four years in duration, this form is suitable for the practitioner who is able to get leave for the duration of the programme. Secondly, there is the pre-employment full-time model for the school leaver. The pre-employment model goes against the grain in that it creates unemployment in the field of adult education.

Although there are variations in duration, focus and the degree of emphasis, there is a common pool of content areas for the professional training of adult educators. All adult educators require a common body of knowledge. They must be aware of the historical and philosophical foundations of the practice of adult education. They must also be aware of programme development, design, management, delivery and evaluation as well as the psychology of adult learning. In addition, they must be proficient in a number of generic skills that are instrumental to the teaching and practice of adult education, such as communication skills, methods of investigation, reporting, and the dissemination of research. Further, they may need a working knowledge of specialised areas of adult education such as literacy education, community development, and workers' education. A key resource for teaching and learning in the professional training of adult educators is the prescribed course textbook. However, the teachers of these programmes often have difficulty in finding textbooks that are grounded in the work situations and social contexts of their students.

A review of English language curriculum materials used in the professional training of adult educators in Africa shows that most of the textbooks for the various subjects are published in the United States of America and the United Kingdom. The content of these books hardly reflects issues of African development or the realities of adult education policy, principles and practice in Africa. The socio-economic and organisational contexts, and the theoretical frameworks and practical examples are largely derived from the adult education experiences of the advanced industrialised societies of western Europe and North America. Accordingly, the professional training of adult educators in Africa is largely dependent on western literature that has very little relevance to the challenges facing adult people in Africa and thus promotes models of adult education that are inappropriate for African settings. Furthermore, these textbooks are generally unaffordable and thus beyond the reach of many students.

Post-colonial Africa has witnessed the production of very few indigenous textbooks in adult education as a field of study. Although these publications, which include the *Adult Education Handbook* (edited by the Institute of Adult Education, Dar-es-Salaam, 1973) and *A Handbook of Adult Education for West Africa* (edited by Lalage Bown and

Sunday Hezekiah Olu Tomori, London, 1979), have been very useful with regard to placing some aspects of African adult education into context, they have been one-off publications that have not been followed up and were not widely available. Compounding this problem is the fact that when some institutions have consistently produced relevant materials (as the Department of Adult Education at the University of Ibadan in Nigeria has, for example), they have been difficult to obtain in other countries. Accordingly, the professional training of adult educators in Africa continues to rely on western literature that has very little relevance to the challenges facing adults in Africa.

The challenge facing adult educationists in Africa is how to develop a textbook series that will embody African perspectives on adult learning and be widely available to students of adult education across the continent. The *African Perspectives on Adult Learning* series project is one of very few attempts that are aimed at meeting this challenge. To this end, the project is designed to develop and produce textbooks that reflect African social realities, theoretical and cultural perspectives, policies and modes of practice. The books in the series seek to promote models of adult education that are appropriate for African societies. They take into account the impact of colonialism, liberation struggles, neo-colonialism and globalisation on the development of African countries. They show the significance of African philosophies, indigenous knowledge systems, traditions and cultures to adult learning. They illustrate how the realities of class, gender, race and ethnicity in African societies shape the nature of adult learning activities. They contain examples of the policies and practices that characterise adult education across the continent. Although the books put the African context at the centre of their discussions of issues in adult education, they commendably link developments in Africa to international discourses on adult learning. In this regard, the series is instrumental to the endogenisation of education within the perspective of the African Renaissance.

The books in the *African Perspectives on Adult Learning* series cover key subjects for the professional training of adult educators in Africa. They are intended to encourage interactive learning in face-to-face teaching environments. Each book is designed to provide an overview of the subject, introduce relevant theory, and discuss concepts with the aid of examples that are rooted in practices, policies and research from African contexts. Each chapter contains learning objectives, practical examples and activities to be done by the reader individually or in a group, a summary and key points, further questions to reflect on and a list of suggested readings. It is hoped that the books will promote the development of relevant curricula and interactive teaching methods in adult education training programmes across the African continent.

Each book in the Series provides an African perspective on an important area of knowledge and practice for the adult educator. In the *Management of Adult Education Organisations in Africa,* Fredrick Nafukho, Nelson Wawire and Penina Mungania-Lam discuss key concepts, principles and considerations that should form the basis for the management of adult education organisations in African contexts. The book shows the importance of sound management and leadership to the dynamic organisational changes facing the field of adult education in Africa today. To this end, the book promotes management approaches that put African value systems at the centre of the management process. Accordingly, the contents of the book reflect a holistic approach to management featuring not only a broad range of principles and realities that should

guide the practice of managing adult education organisations, but also the specific abilities and aptitudes that are essential for the management of such organisations in Africa. The book relates management to diverse African social, political, economic and educational settings by providing illustrations and examples based on empirical research findings, theory, and field practices across the African continent. The effective management of adult education organisations requires managerial leaders who not only value and respect diversity but who also are able to transform themselves in accordance with the dictates of the diverse settings they operate in.

The aims of the book are:

- to provide a critical analysis of the concepts, principles, theories and approaches of management in the African context; and
- to show how management techniques and practices can be applied to different adult education organisational settings across Africa.

Chapter 1 provides the foundational framework for the discussion of the management of adult education organisations in Africa. To this end, the chapter explains the key concepts of management and leadership and explains how the two terms relate to each other. The chapter shows the diversified nature of adult education organisations in Africa and the implications thereof for managing and leading those organisations. Chapter 2 examines the concept of leadership in more detail and shows its importance to the management of adult education provision. It discusses leadership styles and approaches, and uses practical African examples to illustrate how they can be applied to different African contexts. Key leadership approaches, such as the trait approach, the skills approach, the relational approach and the contingent approach, are discussed in the context of their suitability to the management of different African contexts. The chapter also discusses the four major leadership styles, namely directing, coaching, supporting, and delegating. In addition, basic ingredients of leadership such as vision, commitment, innovation and integrity are presented and discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 3 examines the application of management approaches to the management of an adult education organisation in an African context. Accordingly, major management approaches such as scientific management, modern operational-management, contingency, authoritarian, and the humanistic approach are presented and discussed. Also discussed in this chapter are African values and other values that can be integrated into the management of African adult education organisations. Chapter 4 focuses on the management and the development of human resources in adult education organisations. The chapter examines successful management practices that could form the basis for the optimum utilisation of human resources in an adult education institution. Above all, the chapter examines the most appropriate human resources development interventions such as training and education, organisation development, and career development. A distinction is made between training and education. The types of training and training techniques that are applicable to the workplace are also presented in this chapter.

Chapter 5 examines the important issue of organisational development and change. The chapter discusses how adult education organisations can manage the process of change through a combination of organisational development interventions such as human process interventions, human resource management interventions, strategic change interventions, and

techno-structural interventions. Chapter 6 presents the African *ubuntu* paradigm of leadership and the need for leaders to use learning to manage change at the workplace. The chapter outlines the key tenets of *ubuntu* and shows their significance to the relationships between people in African adult learning organisations. The chapter also outlines what organisational learning and learning organisation entail. And the importance for a learning organisation paradigm in the management of adult education organisations in Africa is extensively discussed in the chapter.

Chapter 7 is essentially a manual for planning, implementation and evaluation. To this end, the chapter provides tools for planning, implementing plans, and evaluating adult education organisations. It also provides a critical analysis of models of programme planning and evaluation from an adult organisational perspective. In addition, the chapter explores the role of technology in the planning, implementation and evaluation of adult education in Africa. Chapter 8 examines the important topic of time management in an organisation. The chapter explains the concept of time in the African context and shows the importance of managing time in an organisation. The chapter also outlines the challenges faced by African managers in managing time at the workplace. Guidelines for effective time management are presented, and a critical analysis of how time management can benefit from the use of information and communication technology is provided.

Chapter 9 deals with financial management in adult education organisations. The chapter highlights the reasons for the financial marginalisation of adult education organisations. It also underscores the financial management requirements for the successful management of adult education organisations. The chapter offers a brief explanation of the budgeting process, and considers the common mistakes that are made in financial management. In addition, the chapter explores possible ways of raising funds and the strengths and weaknesses thereof.

Finally, Chapter 10 addresses the challenges and opportunities that managers of adult education programmes face. The chapter implores managers of adult education organisations to view challenges as learning opportunities for the improvement of adult learning provision in Africa.

Sound management and leadership principles and practices are instrumental in the effective provision of adult learning opportunities in the dynamic field of adult education in Africa. The *Management of Adult Education Organisations in Africa* provides an excellent resource for developing and enhancing relevant managerial and leadership skills needed to address the dynamic changes confronting providers of adult education in Africa today.

Stanley Mpofu
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Chapter 1

Management and diversity

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Justify why managers of adult education organisations in Africa should value and respect the role of diversity in the management of adult education organisations.
2. Explain the internal and external factors that influence the management of adult education organisations.
3. Evaluate the benefits and challenges of diversity to the adult learning processes.
4. Justify the role of adult education managers in addressing the diversity of adult learning.
5. Appreciate the diverse and complex nature of managing adult learning processes and programmes.
6. Discuss the role of leaders of adult education organisations in implementing African Renaissance ideals.

KEY TERMS

African Renaissance A term used by some African leaders and thinkers to describe the renewal or rebirth of specifically African traditions and practices upon which to base the continent's cultural, economic, social and spiritual development.

diversity Any dimension that can be used to differentiate groups and people from one another.

inclusion A state of being valued, respected and supported regardless of your uniqueness and differences.

leadership The process which involves the setting of an organisation's vision, values, and a conducive work climate within which goals and objectives can be accomplished.

management The achievement of organisational goals in an efficient and effective manner through planning, organising, staffing, directing and controlling organisational resources.

BEFORE YOU START

Based on your experience with adult learning processes, describe four challenges managers of adult learning organisations face. If you were the manager, how would you handle the four challenges and why would you handle them this way?

What in your experience distinguishes a good manager from a bad one? Support your answer with examples.

We are all involved in some form of management in our everyday lives. If you were an adult learner attending a programme in your community, you would need to learn to operate in a diversified learning and work environment. For example, you would have to balance work and schooling commitments, manage attending the programme as well as attending to the needs of your family, and relate to and interact with people from different cultures, communities and academic backgrounds. Reflect on everyday diversity challenges that you have been confronted with and provide a brief explanation of what you think it means to manage in a diversified work and learning environment.

OVERVIEW

The focus of this chapter is on the management of adult education organisations that are faced with a range of diversity challenges and the role of management in handling these challenges. The lack of diversity management skills, one of the key skills a good manager ought to have in African adult education organisations, often results in conflict and mistrust, which can in turn lead to the failure of implementing adult education programmes in communities. The meaning of diversity and its relevance to the field of adult education and the workplace is examined, with several African examples provided. The concept of the African Renaissance and its relevance to leadership and management of adult education organisations is emphasized. The terms leadership, management, and managerial leadership are also explained and the similarities and differences between them discussed. The diversified nature of adult education organisations in Africa is addressed. In addition, several examples of adult education programmes are used in order to illustrate the diversified nature of adult learning. The

Swahili proverb '*Vidole vitano – kipi ni bora*' ('Of five fingers, which is the best?') correctly encapsulates the need for managers of adult organisations to value, respect and include all the diverse groups of people with whom they work in decision-making processes. Every individual in an organisation has a contribution to make to the adult learning process. In nearly all African countries, including Nigeria, Ghana, South Africa, Botswana, Namibia, Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania, there are numerous adult learning programmes that have been designed to reach the diversified learning needs of millions of adults.

Africa itself, of course, is diverse in the extreme; its heterogeneity clearly apparent in its widely differing countries, its disparate ethnic groups, its multitude of languages, its immigrants from other regions of the world, and its rich variety of landscapes, natural resources, wildlife and climate. Consequently, the provision of adult education in Africa is carried out in diverse settings, has a diversity of goals, involves a diversified set of learners, works with a diversity of partners, utilises diverse learning resources, and relies on diversified methods of instruction and management. In Africa, adult education organisations are often faced with funding challenges and limited training capacity, which means, therefore, that managing these organisations with a minimum drain on funding and other critical resources (such as human resources), is key. It is demonstrated in the chapter that management of adult education organisations requires managers and leaders who value and respect diversity. Finally, it is important to note that valuing theory does not automatically circumvent the problems associated with putting this theory into practice. Workplace attitudes and approaches towards the concept of diversity are unlikely to be universally positive, which may constrain an organisation's ability to take action in terms of implementing diversity-friendly initiatives. In this chapter, therefore, both the benefits and constraints of diversity are examined.

THE MEANING OF DIVERSITY

In order to properly accommodate diversity, it is imperative that the management of adult learning organisations understands the meaning of diversity and how it affects people and the organisations in which they learn and work. Diversity refers to 'any dimension that can be used to differentiate groups and people from one another' (Giovannini, 2004: 22). Johnson, cited in Bruno (2004), identifies three broad dimensions of diversity in organisations: internal, external, and organisational. Bruno (2004: 47) notes:

> *The internal dimension includes characteristics such as age, gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, race, and physical ability. The external dimension characteristics influence our lives and value systems such as religion, geographic location, income, personal and recreational habits, education, appearance, and marital status. The organisational dimension affects our work experiences and includes work location, management status, union affiliation, functional classification, seniority, and work content.*

Diversity dimensions in management can be visible or invisible and will include significant differences among people, including differences in creative ability, rationality and comprehension, problem-solving skills, emotional intelligence, gender, ethnicity, language of instruction, sexual orientation, age, educational background, social economic background, physical and mental health, and

learning styles. Such diversity is not confined to the student body of a particular organisation; it also encompasses the differences that exist between and among educators, administrators, and all other people working and interacting with adult learners.

Besides the three dimensions of diversity (internal, external, and organisational), the other important dimension of diversity is the political dimension, which may positively or negatively impact adult learning organisations. For example, in South Africa the apartheid system had a devastating impact on the confidence of black people. Adult learners from disadvantaged schooling backgrounds are often afraid to ask questions, particularly when working in groups with adult learners from more privileged schooling backgrounds (Banks and Nafukho, 2008). From the authors' personal experiences, it is important to point out that Bruno's (2004) definition of diversity provided above, while useful, is not sufficiently comprehensive enough for our purposes here. The definition provides a useful starting point for a discussion of diversity, but managing diversity in a learning organisation is much more complex than dealing with mere differences between and among people. The different elements of diversity do not have the same weight in the context of managing an adult learning organisation. This is not straightforward; for example, if learners speak more than one language does one translate learning materials to demonstrate the valuing and respecting of all learners in the institution? There are (inevitably) always trade-offs, since the cost of working with too many dimensions of diversity may be too high, as well as unmanageable.

As will be shown in Chapter 3, for adult learners to be motivated to learn they need to be recognised and respected for who and what they are. This brings us to an important term known as inclusion. Inclusion has been defined as 'a state of being valued, respected, and supported. It is based on an organisational culture, management practices, interpersonal relationships that support the full utilisation of a diverse work force at all levels and in all functions of an organisation' (Giovannini, 2004: 22). The promotion of a positive, inclusive work climate requires us to accommodate and support people who are different from ourselves, whether this is in terms of their culture, socio-economic background, preferred learning style, racial origins, and so on.

DIVERSITY AND THE AFRICAN RENAISSANCE

According to the *Oxford English Mini Dictionary*, the word renaissance was first used in Europe in the fourteenth to sixteenth centuries to describe the revival of art and letters under the influence of classical models (Simpson, 2008). *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language* (2000), defines renaissance as 'a rebirth; revival'. In Europe, the Renaissance heralded an era of philosophical and scientific thinking. Renaissance, in a more fundamental sense, is the birth of the modern era or modernity (Magubane, 1999). Chilisa and Preece (2005: 41) define African Renaissance as 'Africans' redefinition of themselves in their own terms'. African Renaissance therefore signifies Africa's rebirth. As noted by Magubane (1999: 12), it is 'the ideal which promises to craft new realities for Africa and its citizens'.

Any talk of a rebirth, in this case a rebirth of the African continent, presupposes an original birth. This being so, we then need to examine, briefly, Africa's history. For us to understand and address Africa's development issues, we must examine the past and use it to solve current and future challenges. Tobias (1998), cited in Diop (1999), observes

that Africa has served as an astonishing crucible of the earth's history for the last two billion years, and emphasises that almost everything of note or consequence started in Africa. For example, Tobias points out that Africa is the home of, among other phenomena, the first eukaryotes (multi-cellular oxygen-using organisms), the first mammals, the first hominids, the first marked enlargement of the brain, the first signs of spoken language, the oldest evidence of stone tools, and the oldest testimony of the mastery and control of fire. Diop notes further that Africa is also the cradle of the first major civilisation of antiquity: Pharonic Egypt and Nubia. Regarding the critical role that Professor Tobias played in explaining Africa's preeminence, it is noted,

> *By establishing the first typically African nature of the ancient Egyptian culture on scientific grounds, he achieved a paradigm shift, returning to Africa the first writing, (hieroglyphics), the first obelisks and pyramids, the first domestication of animals and plants, the first scientists in mathematics, astronomy, medicine, architecture, … the first deep sea navigators, the first philosophers, the first monotheistic religion with the god Ra, and last but not least, the first territorial nation state with the unification of Upper and Lower Egypt under the rule of Amenophis IV – Akhenaton (1354–1327 BC) (Diop, 1999: 4).*

Given the richness, variety and scope of Africa's past, one wonders what went wrong. Why is the Africa of today in a state of continual development crisis? What forces led to Africa's decline and her present state of weakness and vulnerability? How can it be that as Africa continues to suffer the rest of the world's continents – Asia, Europe, North America and Australia – prosper, not least economically? Diop (1999) further observes that colonisation, which led to the loss of autonomy and freedom of the African people, could partly account for Africa's regression; a situation compounded by the signing of unequal treaties and unfair agreements drawn up by self-serving non-African nations. Furthermore, Diop also notes that the vast natural resources of the African continent – oil, diamonds, gold, aluminium, copper, coltan, plus an abundance of agricultural products – are mined and used to enrich other world continents, while the host continent grows poorer and poorer. For example, coltan, a metallic ore mined in the Democratic Republic of the Congo and used to create capacitors, has hugely benefited overseas manufacturers of cell phones, laptops, pagers and other electronic devices.

Africa's present situation, as briefly described above, justifies the need for an African rebirth or renaissance. Such a renaissance can only come about if it is championed by the African people and spearheaded by their leaders. And change can only come about if the movement is an inclusive one; it must be a movement that includes all the people – young, old, women, men, black, brown, yellow and white – who live in the continent of Africa.

Thabo Mbeki, the former President of South Africa, in his address to the African Renaissance Conference held in South Africa in March 1999, noted,

"… the conference had led to … the realisation of our common goal of the renewal of the continent … participation at this conference constitutes an undertaking by each one of us that we can commit ourselves to stay the course as genuine activists for the rebirth of our continent' (Mbeki, 1999: viii-xiv).

An African Renaissance, Mbeki stated, calls for a new way of thinking regarding Africa's destiny; one which refuses to accept the notion that corruption will remain a prevalent feature of the public and private sectors. In his address, Mbeki commented

that endemic corruption, the cancer of self-enrichment by corrupt means, political conflicts, and the context of the world economy had contributed to Africa's underdevelopment. As a solution to the present development crisis, he contended that Africa's future depended on her renaissance:

> *Our vision for Africa renaissance must have as one of its central aims the provision of a better life for these masses of the people whom we say must enjoy and exercise the right to determine their future. That renaissance must therefore address the critical question of sustainable development which impacts positively on the standard of living and the quality of life of the masses of people (Mbeki, 1999: xvi).*

The discussion on an African Renaissance clearly shows that development has to begin with individual liberty operating in a highly diversified world of thinking; in other words it depends on a person's ability to make choices that will determine his or her own destiny. But to have freedom to make choices requires an informed mind, hence the need for learning. Managers of adult education organisations in Africa have a crucial role to play in challenging adult learners and educators to revisit the notion of an African Renaissance. In doing so, these managers should recognise and build on the tremendous opportunities the African Renaissance offers to the continent's variegated population, since it is this same element of diversity that lies at the heart of the concept itself. As a continent, Africa can only prosper by using its diverse array of cultures, races and economies as a source of strength in the drive towards the development of its people, organisations and communities. Thus, the new African world which the African Renaissance seeks to build is a diversified world, 'one of democracy, peace and stability, sustainable development and a better life for all the people, non-racism and non-sexism, equality among the nations, and a just and democratic system of international governance' (Mbeki, 1999: xviii).

CASE STUDY: THE AFRICAN RENAISSANCE

As a leader of a large adult learning organisation in Africa with more than 10,000 students, you are introduced to the notion of African Renaissance during a leadership conference. During the conference you reflect on the fact that your organisation, with students from 40 African countries, is an extremely diversified entity. However, you are also aware that the organisation has a silo culture that does not promote the sharing of ideas; an environment in which educators and learners look after their own interests and pay little or no attention to the needs or concerns of those around them. The educators are more concerned with teaching the adult learners lower-level skills rather than developing the critical-thinking, analytical and problem-solving abilities upon which personal development and social integration depend. Support staff regard themselves as mere implementers and information-providers and do not engage with the students in any meaningful way. Furthermore, you have also discovered that the organisation does not have an up-to-date vision statement and that the previous one was drawn up by your predecessor without the input of other stakeholders.

You leave the conference resolved to change the current state of affairs at your organisation. You are determined to introduce a more dynamic curriculum; one that promotes the self-development of the adult learners and equips them with the skills needed to lead productive, purposeful lives in their communities. You also plan to

reinvigorate the teaching and support staff by improving their opportunities for self-development and personal growth. Lastly, you intend drafting a new vision statement for the organisation based on the input of each group of stakeholders.

Describe how you would go about implementing your aims and promoting the ideals of the African Renaissance in your institution. What interventions and approaches would you recommend, and why?

THE MEANING OF LEADERSHIP

Chapter 2 of this book discusses in detail the issue of leadership. However, in this introductory chapter the meaning of leadership and the important role leaders can play in promoting a diversified work and learning environment is briefly discussed.

Leadership has been identified as the most important variable in the operation of any organisation. Whether it is a business entity, a non-profit organisation, an educational institution, or a family, leadership determines the achievement of the vision, mission and goals of an organisation. Richards and Engle (1986: 206) define leadership as '… the process about articulating visions, embodying values, and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished'. Leaders seek to develop and share their vision(s) with others in the organisation. For the shared vision to be pursued with focus, an organisational value system based on a participatory leadership approach is necessary. Similarly, an enabling work climate that encourages staff members to contribute fully to the achievement of organisational goals is also necessary.

Northouse's (2004: 3) more practical definition of leadership describes it as 'a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal'. For example, a leader of an adult education organisation can influence students positively to become literate or techno-literate, even if they (the students) do not come from the typical college-going age group. Northouse also comments that leadership is a process since it is not a characteristic that resides in the leader, but a transformational process that occurs between the leader and the individuals in the organisation. Thus, the person in the leadership process affects and is affected by the others since leadership is a two-way process (Hollander, 1995). Yukl (2002) suggests that leadership should be viewed as both a specialised role and a social-influence process that involves sharing and distributing the leadership roles within the organisation. When discussing leadership, therefore, the focus should be on the process and not the individual.

Regarding the work that leaders in organisations do, Kotter (1996) proposes that leadership focuses on three important things: establishing direction, aligning people, and motivating and inspiring them.

THE MEANING OF MANAGEMENT

Chapter 3 of this book considers this subject in some depth. Here, it is sufficient to make a few introductory comments on how management practices and attitudes impinge upon the successful integration of a broad range of diversified adult learners in an adult education environment. Hess and Siciliano (1996: 7) define management as 'the coordination of human, material, technological, and financial resources needed for an organisation to reach its goals'. For this coordination to take place there has to be managers and their subordinates. Daft (2005: 16) defined management as '…the attainment of organisational goals in an

effective and efficient manner through planning, organising, staffing, directing, and controlling organisational resources'. From these two definitions we can see that management provides both a functional role (planning, organising, staffing, and so on) and a synthesising role (coordinating the various organisational resources). In adult learning settings, managers of adult education organisations are mainly concerned with the offering of quality educational services that meet the needs of their (adult) students. Adult learners represent a special group of learners; they usually have clear goals, rich work and life experiences, and a self-directed, self-motivated attitude towards learning. The way adult education managers treat their main 'customers' – the learners – will determine their success in the provision and promotion of adult education.

Leaders provide the vision and inspire those they work with to achieve the vision; managers, on the other hand, are the implementers of organisational goals and strategies. Kotter (1991) noted that for managers to be successful in their work they must pay attention to the following: planning and budgeting, organising and staffing, and controlling and problem-solving.

ACTIVITY

Have you ever participated in an adult learning programme where your expectations of the programme were not met? If so, comment on the failings in the management of the programme that you believe contributed to this situation. If you have not personally experienced this, think about what elements of an adult education management system might, if not properly planned or implemented, lead to a failure to meet students' expectations.

COMPARING LEADERS AND MANAGERS

In many organisations a person may be both leader and manager (Daft, 2005). The similarities between the two roles are easy to see: both work with and influence others, and both regard the achievement of organisational goals as being particularly important. Daft (2005: 31) noted that to achieve set goals, the 'soft' skills of leadership need be complemented by, and combined with, the 'hard' skills of management. (Although it is precisely this essential difference ('hard' versus 'soft') between the two roles that distinguishes the leader from the manager – a theme we will return to in a moment.) In fact, the term managerial leadership is often used to describe the person (or people) in an organisation who has both the visionary, dynamic, inspirational qualities of the leader and the pragmatic, organisational, order-driven qualities of the manager. We can therefore say that a leader is also a manager at the same time since he or she sets the vision and assigns tasks to people in the organisation through management processes in order to achieve the set goals (Blunt and Jones, 1992; Waiguchu, Tiagha and Mwaura, 1999).

Despite these above-named similarities, however, it is important to remind ourselves of the crucial differences there are between leaders and managers. Put slightly differently, '[w]hile leadership and management share some characteristics, […]each is also separate and distinct' (Shriberg and Kumari, 2005: 138). As Dubrin (2007: 4) points out, 'Broadly speaking, leadership deals with the interpersonal aspects of a manager's job, whereas planning, organising, and controlling deal with the administrative [management] aspects. Leadership deals with change, inspiration, motivation and influence.'

In the same vein, Burke (2002) and Daft (2005) note that while managers strive to maintain efficiency and stability (pragmatic aims), leaders strive to create a vision, inspire, motivate, and create change (dynamic aims). Liefde's book, *Lekgotla*: *The Art of Leadership through Dialogue* (2003), discusses the notion of leadership within an African context; noting the existence of several 'pillars' of leadership, namely: humanity, dignity, trust, caring, respect, and entrepreneurship.

Returning to the 'soft' versus 'hard' analogy raised above, we can see how the typical leadership qualities/pillars Liefde identifies are 'soft' in the sense that they touch on the more subjective, emotional and moral aspects of human relationships. It is not that managers do not possess these qualities – that would be very far from the truth – but that if they are to fulfil their primary role of implementing organisational goals, they must necessarily pay less attention to the 'higher-level' (that is, subjective, emotional and moral) elements of organisational relationships and behaviour. In other words: 'Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing' (Bennis and Nanus, 1985: 21).

To bring the two functions together once more, and while acknowledging the differences just described, it is evident that both leaders and managers are interested in maximising the potential of the people they guide and/or direct. Neither the leader nor the manager can achieve his or her aims if he or she fails to address the needs, aspirations and concerns of the diverse range of people in their organisation. It is only through building an inclusive working (or in our case, learning) environment that organisational and individual goals can be achieved.

ACTIVITY

In small groups, discuss the various strategies that leaders and managers of adult education organisations can implement to promote consensus building and allow for diversity benefits to be realised.

THE DIVERSE NATURE OF ADULT EDUCATION

The diversified nature of the adult education curriculum

As pointed out by Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga (2005) in their book *Foundations of Adult Education in Africa*, adult education courses are highly diversified and are offered in formal, informal and non-formal settings (for a detailed discussion of these terms, see Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga, 2005). The diversified nature of adult education can be explained in terms of the curricula offered, the settings, the courses, and the learners involved.

For the purpose of this book, some examples of the courses offered to adults in institutions such as farmers training institutes, technical training institutes, vocational training colleges and universities, are provided. At university level, examples of adult education courses offered include:

- Foundations of adult education
- The psychology of adult learning
- Principles of adult learning
- Adult basic education
- Adult literacy
- History of adult education
- Research methods
- Adult and extension education
- Training and development
- Adult learning
- Transfer of learning at the workplace
- Programme planning

- Programme evaluation
- Career development for adults
- Characteristics of adult education
- Change process in adult education
- Teaching disadvantaged adults
- Adult basic education
- Computer technology for adult learners
- Community development
- Financing adult education
- Management of adult education
- Disaster management
- Educational statistics
- Environmental conservation
- Introduction to distance education.

As well as university-level learning, adult education courses are also to be found in a number of non-formal settings. The areas of study typically found in these non-formal settings include courses and programmes in:

- Small business management
- Leadership of non-governmental organisations
- Zero tolerance of corruption
- HIV/AIDS management
- Family planning
- Birth attendance
- Soil erosion
- Environmental control
- Malaria eradication
- Dairy farming
- Voter education
- Management of women organisations
- Extension courses.

From the two bulleted lists shown above, it is clear that the range of adult education courses available to adult learners is extensive. Indeed, the content taught in programmes and courses of this nature is continually changing, with new and/or adapted study courses constantly being introduced. For the manager of an adult education organisation to be successful in their work, the need to be fully aware of the diversified curricula offered by adult education organisations, as well as the changes or additions to such curricula, is paramount.

Forms of adult education

The diversified nature of adult education programmes, when considered from the perspective of an African adult education environment, becomes more complex. This is because even the term adult education is open to a diversification of interpretations. Youngman (1988) provides a summary of the various terms used to describe or refer to adult education that includes the following: *agricultural extension*, *in-service training*, *literacy*, *out-of-school education*, *audiovisual education for adults*, *mass media education*, *vocational education*, *in-service personnel training*, *community development*, and *co-operative education*.

The phrase continuing education is often used in place of adult education; in fact, the two descriptors are considered by many to be interchangeable. Tahir (2000: 147) defines continuing education as 'that subset of adult education that seeks to positively link the needs and aspirations of individuals with educational activities for the full development of their potentialities and for the socioeconomic and political development of a nation-state'. Thus continuing education recognises that all employees at the workplace need to continuously learn in order to update their skills and remain competitive in their careers and professions.

The concept of continual learning is especially relevant in today's world of shared ideas and knowledge-based work opportunities and careers. The 'knowledge revolution era' (another term used to describe contemporary global society) encompasses all regions of the world, including Africa, which therefore calls for an appropriate response from adult education organisations, leaders, managers, and

learners. If the stakeholders in the adult education environment are to grasp the opportunities the knowledge revolution era provides, they need to participate and invest in the construction and development of adult education courses and programmes that meet not only their own requirements but also the requirements of a rapidly evolving outside world.

Examples of organisations providing adult learning

One way of determining whether Africa's educational system is capable of giving an appropriate response to the demands of the knowledge revolution era is to look at the range and character of the different providers of adult education. And, as Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga (2005: 13) note, 'providers of adult education in African societies range from family, community, regional organisations, the government, trade unions, non-governmental organisations, civic organisations and international organisations'.

For example, there are many non-governmental organisations (NGOs), cooperatives and extension organisations, corporate organisations, private educational institutes and academies, public/civic organisations, community-based organisations (CBOs), and government ministries and departments in many countries in Africa, of varying size and structure, devoted to the provision of adult teaching and learning.

The various types of educational organisation just identified provide a differentiated range of courses and programmes. The curricula of a particular educational organisation usually links to a specific area (or areas) of employment in which the organisation's adult learners already work or hope to work. For us to understand fully how these organisations are classified, we need to familiarise ourselves with the African social context in which adult education organisations operate (Indabawa and Mpofu, 2006). Thus, the adult education organisations in Africa offering adult education may include the following:

Government adult learning organisations

These are mainly funded by the government of the relevant African country. An example of this type of organisation is Kenya Utali Training College, which trains adult learners who work in the hotel and tourism industries.

Non-governmental and community-based adult education organisations

These types of organisation receive or seek funding from private individuals and corporations, and can in some situations also apply to government for financial assistance. Each non-governmental organisation (NGO) or community-based organisation (CBO) generally works on behalf of a specific group or sector of society. Thus, there are NGOs and CBOs dedicated to the cause of, for example, women and children, HIV/AIDS sufferers, small-scale farmers, small to medium enterprises (SMEs), and so on. International NGOs with an interest in adult education include UNESCO, which heads the Education for All movement, and DVV International, based in Germany, which oversees education projects in various countries across the globe.

Cooperative and extension adult learning organisations

These organisations are funded by cooperative members, the government, and other donors, and include Teachers Cooperative

Societies, Nursing Cooperative Societies, and Farmers Cooperative Societies.

Non-governmental organisations offering training workshops for adults

A notable example in this category of adult education providers is the MS-TCDC, which is a Training Centre for Development Cooperation in Eastern and Southern Africa, based in northern Tanzania. The Centre offers various development training courses targeting adults.

Parastatal adult learning organisations

These are mainly established by government-funded corporations to meet particular adult learning needs, an example being the Railways Training Schools established to provide training courses for adult employees working in the railways industry.

Business and industry learning organisations

These are set up by private-sector businesses and industries to satisfy the training and learning needs of employees working in, for example, the postal service, where employees undergo training at a postal workers' training college. Workplace training is also offered.

Private colleges

Private colleges represent a growth industry within the field of adult education; as one observer notes, 'Sub-Saharan countries have more than 100 private universities and more than half of them were established in the 1990s …' (Varghese, 2004: 13).

Centres for adult and continuing education within traditional institutions

These institutions focus on adult education community outreach and include, for example, the Centre for Adult Education at the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal, and the University of Botswana's Centre for Continuing Education (CCE).

Distance learning education programmes

Distance learning is becoming increasingly popular among adult learners, principally because it allows learners to work at their own pace, offers valuable information technology (IT) and computer skills as part of the learning experience, and is not tied to a particular place or facility (the distance learner can study anywhere he or she chooses). And, with computer technology becoming cheaper and more accessible, distance learning is becoming a realistic proposition for increasing numbers of adult learners.

Private educational institutes and academies

These are established and funded by private individuals with the aim of meeting the training and learning needs of adult learners.

Universities

Several universities conduct research on adult learning processes and also offer degrees and certificate training programmes to adult learners.

The wide range of organisations involved in the provision of adult learning programmes in Africa demonstrates the importance of these programmes to the

communities in which adult learners live and work.

MANAGING DIVERSITY IN ADULT EDUCATION ORGANISATIONS

While it may appear obvious that recognising, appreciating, valuing, and utilising the unique talents and contributions of adult learners, educators and employees will bring benefits to an organisation, a major challenge facing managers of adult education organisations, training and development experts, human resource managers, community leaders, company executives, and political decision makers is how to prove that by investing in diversity an organisation will realise some benefits. This idea is well argued by Hansen (2003) in *Workforce Management*, in an article entitled, 'Diversity's Business Case Doesn't Add Up'. In the article Hansen suggests that while many companies in the US have invested in a number of diversity training programmes, several of them cannot directly link this investment to company profits. Thus, while it may be generally accepted that the implementation of diversity plans in the management of adult education is indeed a worthwhile objective, the ability to show the return on such an investment remains problematic. Sonnenschein (1999) identifies three main challenges that managers in general face when implementing diversity plans in their organisations: i) the complex nature of diversity management, ii) the strategies needed to deal with diverse people and work environments, and iii) the need to build employee identity and loyalty to the organisation.

Within the context of the education of adult learners in Africa, we can add a further concern to the three just mentioned: the need to address the issue of the language of instruction used. In many cases, the accepted language of instruction is English (though other European languages are also used), which can present problems for the vast majority of African educators and learners for whom English is a second, third or even fourth language. Brock-Utne (1993, 1997, 1999), for example, questions the rationale of using western-type modes of instruction and learning in non-western educational environments, as well as the predominance of European languages in non-European educational facilities. Reagan (2005), in his book *Non-Western Educational Traditions: Indigenous Approaches to Educational Thought and Practice,* argues that there is a need to examine and study how non-western societies have managed to conduct their education processes for thousands of years.

To promote functional and numerical literacy among adult learners in Africa, the question of the language of instruction requires attention. Managers of adult learning organisations need to engage with this issue as a matter of urgency. In doing so, they will necessarily have to reconsider how the organisation's financial resources are distributed or seek new sources of capital to fund the transition to an African language of instruction and learning. Some African countries have already taken action. Tanzania, for example, has been very successful in using Swahili as an African language of instruction from kindergarten to university level. In South Africa, several indigenous languages (for example, isiXhosa, isiZulu and Sesotho) function as the main language of teaching and learning in schools, or are used in conjunction with English.

The deployment of African languages in educational establishments, while clearly advantageous in many respects, does also present problems. Most obviously, the costs involved in writing or translating text-

books and other literature is enormous. Additionally, sourcing suitably skilled authors, publishers, editors and other publishing-industry personnel to work on these (African) educational materials is not a straightforward task. And perhaps even more crucially, the desire to educate African learners in their indigenous languages could place them at a disadvantage when they have to enter the global economic environment where, rightly or wrongly, English is the accepted 'standard' language. To this we might also add that if African learners are ultimately to survive and/or prosper in the global economy, learning two further 'business' languages, Chinese and Hindi, might also prove advantageous.

Management complexity

Managing educational institutions in Africa is a complex issue (Mbiti, 1976; Musaasi, 1982; Okumbe, 1999). Adult education managers are faced with several challenges. For instance, they are required to coordinate activities with donor agencies, and with government departments at the central planning (ministry), provincial, district, divisional, and community level. In addition, they are in charge of the daily operation of their educational institutions, which involves leading and managing learners, staff, teachers, and other stakeholders. In the case of adult education, the work of managing formal and informal adult education organisations is even more complex and demanding due to limited financial resources and increased demand for adult learning resources (Amutabi, 1997). Also, when we consider the diverse nature of the adult education environment in terms of its complex mix of learners, educators, agencies and institutions, the job of an educational manager looks increasingly onerous. Managing a group of likeminded individuals is much more straightforward than having to direct a more diverse group and constituency.

The issue of complexity extends across the African continent, which is something we noted earlier in the chapter. Not only are there country-to-country differences but there are also marked differentiations of culture, ethnicity, race, socioeconomic status, and so on, within individual states. A country like Nigeria in West Africa, for example, has a population of over 130 million people and 250 ethnic groups. By comparison, Tanzania, in East Africa, has a population of 'only' 36 million people, yet the Tanzanian mainland holds 130 different ethnic groups.

In a continent of such striking diversity, it is only to be expected that within Africa's institutional and organisational settings this diversity will also be apparent. Adult education organisations are no exception. A major challenge facing adult education managers today, therefore, is how to satisfy the different – and often competing or conflicting – needs of a complex agglomeration of learners, teaching and support staff, communities, and other stakeholders.

The challenge of ethnicity

Any discussion on diversity within an African context raises the issue of ethnicity. The desire to identify with and remain loyal to a particular ethnic group is a defining characteristic of the vast array of ethnic groups that inhabit the African continent. And, while the concept of tribalism may superficially appear to apply most closely to the black population(s) of Africa, the reality is that tribalism is an inherent trait of all societal groups, including Caucasian and other non-black races. It is fairly safe to say that most of us feel more comfortable living and working among people of our own type, that is, people who speak the same language as us, have the same or

similar physical appearance, believe in the same things, and, broadly speaking, act and interrelate with others as we do. As Sonnenschein (1999: 5) comments, 'When we are similar … we know who we are … we do not need to wonder if we can trust new people with new values, if they will back us, or if they will be loyal to our organisation as we have known it.'

This primal urge to associate with and stay among members of our own tribe explains why individual tribes or groups tend to look after the interests of their own tribe/group, in order to preserve or increase the well-being of their own people. However, this inclination, although entirely natural and, at least in some sense, laudable, can create problems. The main concern is that in promoting the interests of our own tribe's members, we may intentionally or unintentionally dismiss or ignore the valid claims for attention of other tribes. For example, an employer seeking a new member of staff may be tempted to award the job to a candidate who shares certain ethnic, cultural or physical characteristics to himself or herself, even if this candidate is not the most meritorious in terms of experience, qualifications, attitude, and so on.

The manager of an adult education organisation needs to be aware of the dangers posed by these tribalist tendencies, especially when it comes to assessing the claims of applicants for learning or teaching positions. The allocation of jobs or educational opportunities based on an individual's ethnicity is an unacceptable practice. Such a practice (which could lead to a charge of favouritism or discrimination being levelled against the organisation) not only sets back the development of worthy-but-unchosen candidates (educators and/or learners) but also undermines the principles of inclusiveness and diversity that an adult education organisation, and its manager, are tasked to uphold.

Measuring identity: language and other factors

As we noted a little earlier, African adult learners are sometimes compromised by having to absorb educational material using an 'unnatural' language, usually English or French. This problem is exacerbated by the fact that, even when these learners can communicate in the required European language, they are not guaranteed a trouble-free passage through college, university, or whatever learning institution they attend. This is because the (African) regional differences that distinguish one learner or group of learners from other individuals or groups do not disappear simply because they now speak an ostensibly common language. For instance, the Kikuyu, Luyia, Kisii, Luo and Meru tribes of Kenya display different accents when they communicate in English. Distinct variations in tone, pronunciation, word choice, etc., are also noticeable when listening to a conversation in English between, for example, a Nigerian and a Zambian, or a Ghanain and a Malawian.

These intra-country and inter-country variations in spoken English or French can lead to problems of miscommunication, misunderstanding and confusion. Another unwelcome aspect of this clash of tongues is that certain groups or individuals may believe that their use of English (or French) is correct, and that they are therefore somehow superior to the other (inferior) speakers of a particular European language.

Besides using language as a measure of identity, people's personal appearances, work experiences, and social and regional background can be used to identify and categorise them. Again, the temptation to pre-judge individuals on the basis of one or more of these factors must be resisted. It is simply not acceptable to maintain, for example, that all people in country (or region) 'X' are lazy, dishonest, or whatever

other negative quality is wrongly ascribed to them, simply because they happen to come from that place. Such stereotyping can create mistrust and hostility wherever it arises, including within an adult educational organisation. The manager of this type of facility cannot ignore the reality of racial, ethnic and regional stereotyping but has the responsibility of ensuring that it is excluded from the teaching and learning environment in which he or she operates.

Diversity benefits

Up to this point, we have focused on the challenges that confront adult education leaders who wish to embrace diversity in their teaching and learning organisations. But diversity brings with it several benefits. These benefits, in our opinion, are sufficient enough to outweigh the difficulties presented. As Sonnenschein (1999: 3) notes, 'diversity means differences, and differences create challenges, but differences also open avenues of opportunities'.

Sonnenschein (1999) identifies a number of benefits (or opportunities to use his term) that diversity offers. When applied to the management of adult education in Africa, these benefits include the following:

Diversity encourages understanding of and empathy with others

Living, working and learning with people who are different to us can be extremely beneficial to the development of our understanding of and empathy with other cultures. The more we learn about the lives, beliefs, customs and needs of other people, the more likely we are to respect them and to acknowledge and support their actions and choices.

Diversity encourages innovation

Employers, as well as managers and educators of adults, should respect and support their employees/learners' curiosity and creative instincts. By doing so, the managers/educators will empower individuals to explore, source and/or develop new ideas or methods, which will in turn benefit the organisation in which they work or study. Innovations may take the form of products (for example, the recently successful introduction of the M-PESA mobile money transfer system in Kenya), methods of working (an improved production process in an industrial facility, for instance) or ideas (a specifically designed learning programme for children with speech and language difficulties).

Diversity enhances good leadership

The acknowledgment, acceptance and support of diversity by an organisation's leader are crucial to the well-being and development of that organisation's members. A leader who accepts this principle is far better placed to achieve his or her personal goals, as well as the goals of adult learners, and those of the organisation itself.

Diversity encourages respect for the environment

Accepting and supporting diversity creates a better understanding of the different needs of the external environment; that is, it encourages an engagement with both environmental and community issues.

Diversity stimulates learner growth

An understanding of diversity in the management of African adult education organisations can help stimulate social, economic, psychological, intellectual, individual, and emotional growth in learners.

CASE STUDY: HANDLING DIVERSITY AT SENIOR MANAGEMENT LEVEL

The scenario presented below describes a management situation that a leader of an adult education organisation may be confronted with.

July 1: You arrive at work on the day your adult education organisation celebrates its fortieth anniversary. However, when you start up your computer you discover that you have received an anonymous and unpleasant email. The sender of the email accuses you of favouritism, stating that 80 per cent of the employees in the organisation are from your own ethnic group. The sender also claims that your deputy, secretary, driver and messenger come from your home village.

July 5: You initiate investigations regarding the complaints made and the identity of the sender of the email. You call your Information and Communications Technology (ICT) expert and ask her to see if she can trace the computer used to send the email.

July 10: You receive a further anonymous email. This email accuses you of favouring young employees and women employees, and of discriminating against male employees and employees over 50. This second email has been sent to all employees in the organisation and has been signed by 10 employees, 5 men and 5 women. Among the signatories are the two employees whom you most trust and rely on.

July 15: Your ICT colleague calls to tell you that she has traced the computer used to send the email of 1 July. You decide to suspend this individual from work, pending further action, and write him or her a letter to this effect.

July 16: Several employees find out that one of their colleagues has been suspended and decide to go on strike. The strike continues for two weeks and the learners' education is severely disrupted as a result. A number of learners who are unhappy about the management of the issue decide to leave the institution.

ACTIVITY

In small groups, discuss the above scenario before answering the following questions:

- **Was the manager justified in taking the actions he or she did? Explain your answer.**
- **How would you have dealt with this situation if you had been the manager?**
- **What guidelines could you introduce that would prevent this sort of situation happening again?**
- **Do you think that the manager's decision to suspend the employee whose computer was used to send the first email was the correct decision? Explain your answer.**
- **Imagine you were the employee who got suspended. What steps could you take to defend yourself?**

THE APPLICATION OF DIVERSITY TO THE MANAGEMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION

The diversified nature of African adult education organisations can be explained in terms of the following:

- Typology of the organisations offering adult learning
- Number of organisations offering and supporting adult education
- The age ranges of the students enrolled in the programmes
- The ownership of the institutions and

organisations offering the programmes.
- The programmes offered and the content covered in the programmes
- The forms of adult education
- The teaching and support staff of the educational organisations
- The learning activities included in the programmes
- The main sources of funding.

Given the diversified nature of adult education organisations in Africa, the leaders and managers of these facilities ought to be sensitive and pay attention to the physical, intellectual, emotional and cultural differences of other people. By treating people with respect, the managers will foster an amenable teaching and learning experience that will benefit learners, educators and support staff. Besides respect, tolerance of different ideas and opinions, language usage and ability, learning styles, behaviour patterns and performance standards is also critical. Tolerance for others requires us to continuously examine our own attitudes, limitations, strengths and biases.

Managers of adult learning organisations in Africa are challenged to rely on a participatory leadership style that seeks input from all stakeholders. They need to be people-oriented, process-oriented and organisation-oriented in their operations. Successful management of diversity requires empathy. This can be cultivated through managers trying to imagine themselves in other people's situations. By doing this, they will gain a fresh understanding of and respect for the needs, challenges and aspirations of others.

In conclusion we can say that all managers of adult education organisations, when seeking to resolve problems of whatever nature and scale, must realise the importance of togetherness in addressing these problems (Waiguchu, Tiagha and Mwaura, 1999).

ACTIVITY

- **Discuss some of the diversity issues that need addressing in the management of an adult education organisation.**
- **What do you think are the most important benefits that can be gained from incorporating a broad mix of educators and learners in an adult education facility?**

SUMMARY

In this chapter we examined several concepts relating to the education of adult learners in Africa, including diversity, African Renaissance, leadership, management, and managerial leadership. We also considered the challenges involved in the management of diversity in the context of adult education. We discussed how the provision of adult education in Africa is carried out in diverse settings, has a diversity of goals, involves a diversified set of learners, works with a diversity of partners, utilises diverse learning resources, and relies on diversified learning and instruction approaches. We argued that the success of adult learning organisations in Africa calls for leaders and managers who value and respect diversity both at the workplace and in learning institutions. Participatory leadership and management styles are also essential. The overall aim of the manager or leader of an adult education facility is to develop a vision that encompasses the different needs, aspirations, views and beliefs of the facility's diverse range of learners, teachers and employees.

KEY POINTS

- Diversity refers to any dimension that can be used to differentiate groups and people from one another.

- African Renaissance is concerned with Africans' redefinition of themselves on their own terms.
- For managers of adult education organisations in Africa to be successful in their work, they must be willing to value and respect the contributions of others.
- Managers and leaders of adult education organisations are challenged to demonstrate how an investment in diversity can benefit their organisations.
- Leadership involves visioning, aligning people towards the shared vision and motivating and inspiring others.
- Management refers to the coordination and control of the human, material, technological and financial resources needed for an organisation to attain its goals.
- Management also involves planning and budgeting, organising and staffing, and controlling and problem solving.

ACTIVITY

Examine the mission statement of the adult education institution that you attend or plan to attend. What are its main strengths and weaknesses? How could you improve the mission statement?

FURTHER QUESTIONS

1. What, in your opinion, are the most important functions that a leader has to perform?
2. Imagine that you have been appointed manager of an adult education facility. You are asked to develop a new vision for the organisation since none currently exists. Explain the steps you would take to achieve this.
3. You are the manager of a large educational organisation situated in the capital of your home country. Your facility has employees and learners from more than 30 different African countries, as well a significant number of European learners. There are many different ethnic groups at the facility and a wide range of African and European languages is spoken. The organisation offers more than 100 adult learning programmes. Explain, using relevant examples, what processes you would initiate in order for your organisation to benefit from this rich diversity.

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Chapter 2

Leadership in adult education organisations

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Define leadership by distinguishing different types of leaders.
2. Describe why good leadership skills are essential in managing adult education organisations.
3. Identify leadership opportunities and challenges within adult education organisations.
4. Differentiate between traditional African leadership and non-African leadership paradigms.
5. Compare and contrast various leadership approaches, styles and types.
6. Discuss the importance of leadership within an organisation.

KEY TERMS

altruism A selfless concern for the welfare of other people.

competencies A set of skills, attitudes, and knowledge that enables one to perform a task within a specific role.

cross-cultural theory The idea that leadership is both a universal and a culture-specific phenomenon.

Great Man theory The idea that leaders are born, and not made; individuals possess the innate natural abilities, traits and talents that a leader needs.

leadership A process whereby an individual (leader) influences and motivates others to achieve a common outcome or goal.

paradigm A shared mindset that represents a way of thinking and/or of understanding the world.

power The capacity to influence other people.

process approach The view that leadership is learned and that a person can develop leadership skills over time.

servant leadership A leadership approach that places the leader in a subordinate

position, his or her role being to meet the priority needs of others first.

trait approach The view that the quality (trait) of leadership is innate; leadership is a natural and not an acquired personal attribute.

transformational leader A leader who changes (transforms) followers' values, needs, aspirations, and priorities and who motivates them to superior performance.

BEFORE YOU START

Think of the leaders whom you have met and/or interacted with, including spiritual leaders, business leaders, educational leaders, civic leaders, and so on. Write down the name of each individual and say why you consider him or her to be a leader.

Name of leader (Who)	Rationale for my choice (Why)

Based on your choices, are there any conclusions that you can draw about the nature of leaders? For example, do the individuals you identified share the same personal qualities, educational background, or life goals? Write down your thoughts.

OVERVIEW

Leadership affects overall organisational performance (Burke, 2002) because it influences a person's commitment to an organisation, as well as his or her job satisfaction, attitudes, effort level, and performance level. It has therefore been noted that'[l]eadership is recognised as one of the most critical inputs leading to the success of an undertaking' (UNESCO, 2005: 1). In this chapter, we focus on the issue of leadership in adult education organisations. Effective leadership is critical to the success of all teaching and learning institutions, especially so in the context of a rapidly shifting external environment that demands changes in the mission, strategy, initiatives and cultures of organisations that provide adult education. Only an accomplished leader

will be capable of coping with changes of this nature and of turning challenges into opportunities. However, while good leadership is extremely important, it is not the only factor that affects the functioning of an adult education organisation. In Figure 2.1 you can see how the various components of an adult education organisation fit together like the pieces of a jigsaw. Leadership is one important component/jigsaw piece, but there are others that are also important, such as finance, management, planning, and so on. However, the leader of an adult education facility is invariably the central figure and the person who embodies the ethos (spirit) of the organisation, which is why the leadership component is placed in the centre of our adult education puzzle.

The concept of leadership has a long and distinguished history in Africa. From the village, to the clan, and across tribes, a broad range of African communities recognise and value the role of the leader. Among the Ameru and Kikuyu tribes of Kenya, for example, the name *Munene*, meaning 'leader', is very popular; for the Luyias a leader is called *Omwami*, while the Luos use the term *Chatelo.* The importance of the leader to the well-being and development of the community can be found in many African proverbs. For instance, the Ga tribe in Ghana use the expression '*Silafo etsoo filafo gbe*', which in English means, approximately, 'A blind person does not guide other people'. Here, the word 'blind' is used metaphorically to refer to someone who refuses to acknowledge – is blind to – new ideas or new ways of doing things, not to physical blindness.

Figure 2.1 The adult education puzzle

The Ga proverb expresses the need for visionary leaders, that is, for farsighted, bold individuals who can provide dynamic, imaginative responses to the challenges of the external environment and the needs of their communities. Social ills such as poverty, illiteracy, hunger, public- and private-sector corruption, human rights violations, rising crime levels, substance abuse, and so on, cannot be tackled without leaders of the calibre just mentioned. Similarly, leaders in the field of adult education must be prepared to address the challenges of technological change, globalisation, and increasingly competitive job and career markets, if they are to provide meaningful help to their students. We will discuss why effective leadership is important for African adult education organisations. We will also consider the qualities of effective leaders, how to develop leadership skills, and what the different leadership approaches, styles and types are.

This chapter will provide you with an opportunity to reexamine and reassess your thoughts and beliefs regarding leadership. You may discover that you end up redefining your understanding of what leadership means and/or the true nature of an effective leader. As you read, remember that the leader of an adult education organisation does not operate in a vacuum; he or she is subject to the pressures and demands of

the external environment. Global and local forces shape an organisation's direction and the choices and decisions a leader takes; as Apps (1994: 14) observes, '[l]eaders of adult education organisations operate in chaotic, uncertain, ambiguous, frustrating, and ever-changing environment[s]'.

However, without wishing to begin our exploration of leadership and leaders on too sombre a note, it is important to note that this chapter celebrates the core values underlying African leadership. We also highlight the opportunities for the development of effective and positive leadership that a challenging external environment provides.

DEFINING LEADERSHIP

Leadership can be defined in a number of ways. Before we look at some of these definitions, it is important to remind ourselves of an important, but invariably overlooked, point: leadership in itself is a neutral term. By this we mean that, generally speaking, a leader can be good or bad; effective or ineffective; self-centred or selfless; extroverted or introverted, and so on. This point is worth remembering since many people wrongly assume that a leader is always a great person; that he or she is presumed to be good, effective, selfless, etc., simply because he or she has been identified and accepted as a leader. Equating leadership with greatness and public visibility is equally misleading. Many effective leaders go unnoticed simply because they work behind the scenes (Daft, 2005: 6). Although we will discuss the Great Man theory later, we can at this point safely say that the stereotypical view of a leader as 'the chosen one', that is, someone who is marked out as being 'different' and 'superior' in some way, is clearly false. While certain individuals may appear to have an inborn appetite or aptitude for leadership, other people may prove to be effective leaders as a result of being assigned or consciously choosing to learn how to lead.

Leaders, then, are not the mythological Great Men of politics, industry, history, religion and learning, and one of the aims of this chapter is to demystify this long-held notion. We prefer to work with the following more realistic and well-balanced assessment, namely: 'Leadership is an everyday way of acting and thinking that has little to do with a title or formal position in an organisation' (Daft, 2005: 7).

The 'everyday' quality of leadership is a theme that recurs throughout the chapter. One of the central arguments of this chapter is that leadership, and leaders, can be discovered at all levels of an organisation, and not just at the topmost or senior-management level. As Hartman (1993: 3) comments:

> *The term 'leader' properly encompasses not only the occupants of formal positions in the upper rungs of major institutions but also those whose ability to influence and move people has been demonstrated through teaching, writing, or being effective actors on a whole variety of less prominent stages – regional sites, neighborhood communities, even family households.*

The interest in the subject of leadership has brought with it numerous definitions. Daft's definition given above is our preferred choice but we would also add that of Northouse (2004: 3), who suggests that leadership is, 'a process through which an individual influences other individuals to achieve a common goal'. The 'leadership-as-process' rationale is one that we accept and recommend. Leadership, we maintain, can be learned; we can all develop leadership skills over time. In any society or situation, there are leaders, there are people or organisations being led, and there is a shared purpose or

desired future that motivates both the leader and the individuals within the organisation (Daft, 2005; Northouse, 2004).

The list on the following page itemises the key components of leadership. In the following sections of this chapter, we will look at what each of these components or characteristics means. We can therefore state that:

- Leadership is a choice
- Leadership is a process
- Leadership is inclusive
- Leadership involves influence
- Leadership involves relationships between leaders and followers
- Leadership is directed at achieving a goal or goals
- Leadership involves partnerships

Leadership is a choice

The fact that leadership is a choice means that each one of us can choose to lead; just as each one of us can choose to follow or not to lead. The point is that we are actively engaged in the decision-making process, and that it is via our own free will that we decide whether to act (that is, to lead) or to follow.

For example, a group of office workers may feel aggrieved (upset) at the way in which they are being treated by a senior manager in an organisation. During a group meeting to discuss these grievances, it is highly unlikely that each member of the group will choose to lead his or her colleagues, just as it is equally unlikely that every person will decide to remain inactive. Different individuals will arrive at different conclusions and, thus, different decisions. The person (or people) who choose to lead the group by representing their issues to their organisational superiors may, of course, be a 'natural-born' leader, but it is also true to say that he or she (or they) may have opted for a leadership role as a result of inward reflection, discussions with colleagues and/or others, peer pressure and a newly discovered sense of injustice. Having decided to take on the responsibility of furthering the group's cause, the leader-by-choice will then have to make a further series of decisions regarding, for example, how best to articulate the group's grievances, what further group discussions are needed, and what potential solutions there may be.

Leadership is a process

In this book, we propose the process approach to developing leadership. By process we mean that a person can develop leadership attitudes and skills over time. This view is especially important because every individual has an opportunity to learn how to become a leader; a trait that is vital in managing adult education organisations in Africa. As Munroe (2005: 15) observes, '… leadership is not an exclusive club for the elite few who were "born with it"'.

Leadership development is the approach used to develop in individuals the methods, skills and attributes of effective leadership. Later on in this chapter, the section entitled Leadership opportunities in adult education organisations examines various approaches for developing leadership competencies in more detail. Leadership is also the process of motivating others to achieve set goals.

Leadership is inclusive

Leadership is gender-, culture-, and age-neutral. Anyone can be a leader and inclusion is vital to a leader's success. This inclusive approach to leadership contrasts sharply with both the Great Man theory of leadership and the trait approach to leadership, which share several key characteristics. The Great Man theory assumes that leaders are born with specific talents, traits and natural abilities that other

people (the 'non-leaders') do not have. The legitimacy of the Great Man theory has been widely questioned and/or challenged, not least on the grounds that it ignores the possibility of Great Women leaders. This failing is partly due to the theory's age; the notion of male-only leaders may have appeared perfectly sensible to Great Men theorists of, say, the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, when paternalistic societies dominated the landscape and the concept of the male-headed family, community, industry, country, etc., was very often a reality. Today, however, the theory is less plausible and the idea that leaders are always male – and in particular, older males – appears outmoded and untrue.

Age and gender considerations have long dominated our definition and understanding of leadership, and so to some extent we are all 'guilty' of perpetuating the Great Man theory of leadership. However, in stressing (or even simply accepting) the importance of these two attributes (age; gender), we have failed to acknowledge the existence of the overwhelming majority of individuals – neither 'older' nor 'male' – who can be legitimately classified as leaders. Women are increasingly assuming leadership in Africa (*Talk of the Nation*, 2006), as well as elsewhere in the world; so too are young people, of both sexes, and even the less well-educated members of society.

It is also worth noting at this point that leadership is also often assumed to relate only to people who occupy formal or institutionalised positions of power or influence, for example, politicians, chief executive officers (CEOs) of large corporations, lawyers, financial analysts, and so on. In making this assumption we again run the risk of ignoring the effective leaders who hold 'informal' or 'non-positional' leadership positions in society, such as the heads of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and community-based organisations (CBOs), women's groups, religious assemblies, and village councils, among others.

Leadership involves influence

A leader must have some degree of influence over people. Thus, leadership has to do with power, which can be defined as the 'capacity to influence others' (Burke, 2002: 242). The word 'influence' is important here and deserves closer attention. Effective leaders exercise positive influence over other people; they do not use their power to command or control those around them or to influence people in a negative way. Positive leadership is all about getting individuals and groups to work towards achieving worthwhile objectives. Positive influence could include, for example, a woman who chooses to use her personal experience of domestic violence to teach other women how to cope with this trauma. A leader with positive influence could be a community health worker who educates the local community on the dangers of infectious diseases such as TB, but also spends time ensuring that TB patients know how to access medication. These are two examples of the type of leadership that Africa needs: empowering, inspiring, and moving people forward in the right direction.

We can compare and contrast the positive leader with his or her negative counterpart. The leader who negatively influences other people uses his or her power in a destructive manner. Adolf Hitler's leadership of the German Nazi Party during the 1930s and 1940s is perhaps the most striking example of negative leadership taken to the extreme. Hitler was a superb orator (public speaker), but he misused these qualities to stir up feelings of hatred of 'outsiders' (principally Jews) in the German population. The horrific end result of Hitler's negativity was the death of an estimated 17 million innocent civilians,

including some 6 million Jews who were killed during the Holocaust. Hitlerian-type leaders are not confined to the European continent, however; Africa, too, has witnessed dreadful atrocities brought about by a warped leader's abuse of power – Amin in Uganda, Moi in Kenya, and Mengistu in Ethiopia, for example, are three of the most notorious dictators, among many others.

Leadership involves relationships between leaders and followers

The relational aspect of leadership is closely linked to the theme of leadership-as-process, which we have already introduced. In both cases, a leader is seen as neither superior to nor isolated from his or her followers. Rather, it is the quality of the relationship between the leader and his/her followers that is important. The leader needs the support, trust and input of others in order to attain the organisation's goals, which therefore means that he or she must spend time nurturing and developing relationships with those around him/her. Managing this relationship is critical because the two roles are equally important and totally interdependent.

The role of a leader is not fixed but should be flexible and situational. As Daft (2005: 5, 256) observes, 'Leadership and followership are fundamental roles that individuals shift into and out of under various conditions … good leaders know how to follow, and they set an example for others.' Depending on the situation or task, one person may lead an initiative for a limited time and then someone else could take over.

A strong leader-follower relationship also increases the possibility of shared leadership becoming an organisational reality. The concept of shared leadership, as the name suggests, regards all stakeholders of an organisation as actual or potential leaders. This approach to leadership is an asset to an organisation since it reduces people's dependence on a single senior-level figure, or group, performing the role of leader. When the leader leaves, the people that remain – the followers – can feel abandoned and unable to cope. Shared leadership helps in this respect because it allows people to develop leadership competencies. This democratic attitude towards leadership sees all members of a team, group or organisation as equally competent in terms of their ability to lead, direct and manage others. By turning followers into leaders, the shared leadership method ensures that a steady stream of suitably skilled individuals can assume leadership roles should the need arise.

Leadership is directed at achieving a goal or goals

This element of leadership is directed at achieving shared goals or certain outcomes that motivate the follower-leader relationship (Daft, 2005). In a formal adult education organisation, these goals could include the following:

- To increase training attendance
- To increase student enrolment
- To improve the learners' performance
- To reduce adult illiteracy

The fact that the goals must be shared is, of course, crucial. Let's consider the second goal in the above list, the goal of increasing student enrolment. Why would various stakeholders in an adult education organisation have a shared goal? To understand shared outcomes/goals, let us look at the impact increased student enrolment may have on each stakeholder. For the lecturers, a high enrolment rate reflects positively on their teaching abilities, motivation, future enrolment and job security. For the senior management, high enrolment

reflects positively on their leadership and could attract more government funding, grants, improved institutional reputation or ranking; the students because a high enrolment rate may mean lower tuition and fees; prestige due to public perception, increased diversity, and so on.

The leader's role in this and similar shared-goal situations is to articulate and promote the 'sharedness' of an identified goal or goals. He or she must be able to see, and help the various stakeholders to see, 'the bigger picture'. This means that the leader needs to understand and appreciate how the groups' differing motivations are all linked to a common goal (in this case, the goal of increasing student enrolment).

ACTIVITY

Write down at least two goals of your adult education programme and say how these goals were developed.

Leadership involves partnerships

From what you have read so far, you should have begun to realise that leadership is all about solving puzzles (like the adult education puzzle at the beginning of the chapter). The effective leader has the vision to see how the different pieces of the puzzle join up to form a coherent whole – or the 'bigger picture' to borrow the phrase we used in the previous section – and the skills and personal qualities needed to fit the pieces together. But the leader cannot complete the puzzle alone; instead he or she needs to form collaborative partnerships with a number of different stakeholders. For the leader of an adult education organisation, this partnership-building exercise takes place at a local, district, provincial, and national level; and increasingly at an international level, too. We can illustrate this by using the following simple example:

The leader of an adult training institute situated in a small town wishes to expand the facility. This will involve the purchase of an additional plot of land and the construction of two more buildings. At a community (local) level, the leader would need to consult with the chief, the local residents' association, youth groups, and any other informal groups or interested parties. The chief, for example, might want the leader to use local labour for the building work and could inform the leader of the type and number of suitable people available. Also, the youth group(s) could offer valuable input on the learning needs and study preferences of the community's young people. District-level partnerships would involve setting up relationships with the district's planning department (to discuss building design and construction issues), finance department (to look at funding options), and rates office (to establish the new buildings' rates levy); and also with representatives of the various boards, who may have questions about the courses to be offered and the nature of the admissions procedure. Partnerships at the provincial and national levels, while still important, are unlikely to have the interdependent, collaborative nature of local- and district-level partnerships. This is because provincial and national role-players – members of parliament, trade union leaders, heads of industry, high-ranking public-sector officials, and so on – are mainly concerned with matters of public policy, that is, setting up the rules, procedures and best practices that determine how society operates. These policies are then administered at the district and local levels by a further set of role-players from the field of politics, local government, industry, and so on, with whom the leader of the adult education facility will work,

negotiate and collaborate to find the best way of implementing public policy and meeting the needs of the education facility's stakeholders.

A good leader will use the collective energy that these different partnerships provide to move the agenda forward, that is, to move closer towards the achievement of the shared goal(s). Of course it is not practicable for every single person to participate in this process, but the conscientious leader will always strive for inclusion rather than exclusion. He or she appreciates the importance of obtaining the cooperation of others in a goal-oriented exercise and will foster healthy, productive partnerships with as many individuals, groups and organisations as possible.

ACTIVITY

Think of an adult education initiative that your department/organisation is planning. What strategies could the leader of the department/organisation use to make sure that the proposed initiative is based on the opinions and points of view of as many stakeholders as possible?

COMMON VALUES OF AFRICAN LEADERSHIP

Leadership is not a new concept to Africans. For millennia, Africans have been governed by kings, queens, elders and chiefs. The colonisation of much of the continent in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries introduced western forms of government, which many post-colonial nations retained and/or adapted to suit their own requirements. The second half of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first century has seen an increasing number of African countries opting for a democratic system of government, again based on European and North American models, although more traditional forms of rule exist alongside. In essence, what we see today is a mosaic of our cultural heritage and integration of foreign leadership approaches.

Leadership is both a homogeneous and a culture-specific phenomenon, which means that 'there are some universal leadership phenomena but there are also differences in culturally approved implicit theories of leadership' (Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang and Lawler, 2005: 239). Given the broad range of cultures to be found in Africa (a theme introduced in Chapter 1), it is to be expected that leadership in an African context is defined by the culture and social circumstances within which it is exercised (Mbigi, 2004). However, while this may be largely true, it is also possible to detect certain leadership traits that are common to most African (and non-African) nations. For example, respect, teamwork and helping others are leadership values that are universally applicable. Over the next few pages, we are going to look at these common leadership values following the work of Beugre' and Offodile (2001), Mbigi (2004), and Walumbwa, et al. (2005). We begin with the concept of team-based leadership.

Team-based leadership

Teamwork, which we can also refer to as 'interdependence' or 'mutualism', is central to the beliefs and practices of all Africans. Its importance stems from the distinctly African philosophy of *ubuntu* – 'I am because we are' –, which forms a central tenet of many African nations' belief systems. (Although a Bantu term, *ubuntu* is not an exclusively Bantu philosophy, which is a topic that we will return to in Chapter 6.)

Interdependence/teamwork/mutualism implies that the leader of an organisation

depends upon other people to help him or her implement the shared vision and goals of that organisation. Among the Acholi of Uganda the word used is *awak* ('work together'); in Kenya, *Harambee* ('Let's pull together.') is the Swahili word used to invoke the same spirit of togetherness. Mbigi (2004: 20) describes this commonly held belief as the realisation and acceptance of the fact that 'none of us is greater than all of us'.

Collaborative leadership has long been a feature of African life. In many African communities a council of elders meets to deliberate on important decisions and make judgments – among the Ameru of Kenya, for example, this council is called the *Kiama*, at a local level, and the *Njuri Ncheke*, at the tribal level.

Nelson Mandela (cited in Beugre' and Offodile, 2001: 21) offers the following observation: 'The council of elders was so completely democratic that all members of the tribe could participate in its deliberations. Chief and subject, warrior and medicine man all took part and endeavoured to influence decisions.'

Altruism

Altruism refers to a concern for the welfare of others. While altruism as a concept or philosophy is not tied to any single individual culture, race, or region, it does occupy a particularly prominent position in many African societies. Linked closely to the idea (and ideal) of *ubuntu*, altruism in an African context relates to the need to work together for the common good of a family, group, organisation, community, and society. At a domestic level, most traditional African families share resources, skills and knowledge for the benefit of the family unit as a whole. This altruistic quality also exists at a tribal level (the Mau Mau Uprising of 1952, for example, led to the death of thousands of Kenyans who were prepared to sacrifice their own lives in a united effort to force the British to withdraw from the country). In South Africa, at a national level (the African National Congress' (ANC) decades-long campaign against apartheid rule was waged on behalf of the entire country).

While altruism remains a valued African tradition to this day, it would be naïve to ignore the challenge presented by alternative cultures and belief systems that place the individual at the centre of human affairs. In general terms these cultures and belief systems have been imported from the West, where individualism and 'the cult of the self' are accepted features, even ideals, of many industrialised nations. We cannot claim that western nations are completely responsible for the erosion of traditional, *ubuntu*-based values in African society, but it is true to say that many of the wealthier nations of Europe and North America, regard individual self-fulfilment (often measured in terms of material wealth) as being at least as important as the well-being of others.

Respect for elders

For countless generations, leadership within African cultures has been influenced by this value, which is most readily observed in the tradition of rule-by-elders. The view that the older generations that possess the wisdom and experience needed to guide their communities was common. These same qualities also qualified the elders to mentor the young, to dispense advice, and to arbitrate on contentious or important matters, as well as, crucially in the context of our discussion, to lead their communities.

The leaders of adult education organisations in Africa need to tap into the rich resources – that is, the life experiences of employees and members of the communities in which the organisations are based. With so many professionals reaching retire-

ment age, it would be a great shame (and a wonderful opportunity missed) if we chose not to use their wisdom, skills, and experiences to inform our learning and leadership practices. While the young of society should be encouraged to seek leadership roles, there needs to be a balance struck between the promotion of youth leadership and leadership by elders. Mentoring and coaching play a key role here.

ACTIVITY

As the leader of an adult education facility where employees can retire when they are 55, what techniques or strategies would you use to convince your students that they still need to value and respect their elders?

AFRICAN LEADERSHIP AND THE CHALLENGE FROM OUTSIDE

In this section we will look a little more closely at the changing face of leadership in African societies and organisations. We have already noted in the previous section how colonial rule in Africa introduced changes to the way in which African societies were governed, and the more recent transition to western-style democratic rule in many of the continent's countries. To these two phenomena, we must also include the enormous impact that globalisation, the human rights movement, and market-led capitalism have had on traditional forms of African society, organisation, and leadership.

Africa today is a complex mix of the traditional and the modern, not least in the way in which organisations are lead. Western democratic leadership practices exist alongside traditional, usually autocratic, African practices. But just how effectively do the two systems – traditional versus modern or African versus western – combine? A good example of the tensions affecting this two-system approach can be seen in the proceedings of almost any committee meeting in almost all organisations. The formation of committees is itself not a modern-day or a western-inspired concept. A committee brings with it the ideas of inclusiveness. Freedom of speech and broad demographic representation typify European and American ways of doing business, including social business. However, when a committee convenes in an African-based organisation some or all of these elements, for example, inclusion of youth or women may be questioned, challenged or even excluded. For example, if you have ever attended wedding- or funeral-planning committees, you will have noticed how the ideas of elders and men are noted in the minutes and quickly accepted; while those of youth and women are usually given only cursory (minimal) or no attention.

Beugre' and Offodile (2001) suggest a culture-fit model of leadership, which recommends that practices that do not fit with the culture of the people being served be eradicated. In other words, while we should look to integrate modern thoughts on leadership, we must establish the cultural fitness, relevance, and applicability of these leadership paradigms to an African situation. Retaining African leadership values while simultaneously adapting positive western leadership values (and leaving out or 'eradicating' the negative ones) is a pragmatic way of helping to making adult education organisations in Africa successful.

At this point in the chapter, you may have formed the impression that most of Africa's leadership problems (if not its economic, cultural, social and developmental ones, too!) are largely the fault of interfering colonial and post-colonial powers. This is simply not true. While we have taken time to examine the negative aspects of other

countries' direct or indirect influence over Africa's affairs, we must also pay attention to the more positive elements of this process. As we will discover in the following sections, the threats of globalisation, consumerism and 'anti-African' cultures can also offer, if we use an alternative analysis, welcome opportunities.

CHANGING LEADERSHIP PARADIGMS

In this section we will consider the issue of leadership from a slightly different perspective. We begin by introducing Daft's (2005) summary of the various ways in which leadership paradigms have changed, which you can see in Table 2.1. We will then examine in turn each of the paradigmatic shifts or changes that Daft identifies.

Table 2.1 The changing leadership paradigms

Old paradigm	New paradigm
Stability	Change and crisis management
Control	Empowerment
Competition	Collaboration
Uniformity	Diversity
Self-centred	Higher purpose
Hero	Humble

Source: Daft, R. L. (200:8). The leadership experience. Canada: South-Western Thomson.

From stability to change and crisis management

Perhaps the defining characteristic of the world today is change. Globalisation and rapid advancements in information and communications technology (ICT) have revolutionised the way in which societies operate. The old, familiar ways of doing things are disappearing as modern technology accelerates the rate at which people live, work, socialise, and communicate.

Managing change has therefore become an absolute priority for leaders of all types of organisation, including those of adult education institutions. In many cases this involves managing an ever-increasing demand for ICT courses at these facilities, as more and more African adult learners seek the technology-based skills they will need to survive and prosper in knowledge-driven economies. The same can be said regarding courses in environmental conservation; a demand prompted by the rise of the 'green movement' and our increased awareness of the dangers posed by carbon emissions, deforestation, intensive farming methods, and so on. Distance learning programmes are also being sought by increasing numbers of African students, since this is a study option that allows them to control the pace of their own learning, study wherever they wish, and avoid having to take time off work to go to college. Both of these demands (for ICT courses and distance learning programmes) will require changes to be made to the structure and content of courses provided by adult education organisations, which the leaders of these facilities must manage or, preferably, anticipate.

Organisations often struggle to keep up with the rate of change (particularly technological change) in the external environment. In this situation, the leader of an organisation ends up having to crisis manage. Crisis management is all about 'putting out fires', in other words, making sure that the most critical problems (fires) are extinguished (put out) before they spread to, and destroy, the rest of the organisation. Crisis management is not the ideal way in which to run or lead an organisation, but in the present climate it is an unavoidable reality, which means that the leader of an adult education facility must be prepared to, and be capable

of, acting quickly and decisively in the event of his or her organisation being confronted by a crisis.

From control to empowerment

While leaders in the past were seen as 'heroes' in control, the new paradigm advocates leaders who empower others. As Daft (2005: 5) observes, 'Leadership is a people activity … that occurs among people; it is not something done to people.' An effective leader empowers others by encouraging their active participation in the decision-making processes of an organisation. By seeking the involvement and contribution of others, a leader has a far better chance of securing his or her colleagues cooperation in, for example, introducing new initiatives. Initiatives that do not include the input of others are likely to be resented and/or resisted by them. And, as Burke (2002) has noted, resistance is a key reason why many initiatives do not succeed.

The concept of empowerment links in with the idea that each one of us either is, or has the potential to become, a leader. This view of leadership challenges more traditional thinking regarding leadership, which claims that an individual is born either with or without appropriate leadership qualities.

From competition to collaboration

There is a growing trend towards increasing collaboration, sometimes even with competitors. Collaboration (also called alliances or partnerships when formalised) is a key characteristic of today's adult education providers, with increasing collaborations among higher education institutions, CBOs, corporations, NGOs, and faith-based organisations (FBOs) (Mungania, 2006). Collaborations have been identified as being central to increasing adult literacy programmes as a means of achieving UNESCO's Education for All (EFA) goals (UNESCO, 2005).

The process of collaboration-with-competitors offers adult education organisations several benefits, including:

- Access to more resources
- Reaching a wider audience
- Cost savings
- Increased learning- and knowledge-sharing opportunities

For example, an NGO that is a provider of adult education could collaborate with organisations such as higher education institutions, consulting firms, and CBOs. The organisations may share curricula, learning resources, financial resources, infrastructure, and human resource expertise.

From uniformity to diversity

'… [T]he world is rapidly moving toward diversity at both national and international levels' (Daft, 2005: 12).

Africa's adult education institutions and organisations now tend to attract a more diverse population of educators and learners. This diversity is reflected in terms of culture, religion, age, life experience, educational/training background, ability/disability, nationality, and gender. This institutional-level diversity is also apparent at national levels: Africa's already heterogeneous character has become even more so as its people become more mobile, resulting in new demographic formations. The same phenomenon is to be seen at an international level: the continental populations of Asia, Australia, North America, South America and Europe, as well as Africa, have a freedom of movement that would have been unimaginable to previous generations.

Effective leaders are those who recognise the value that diversity brings in terms of, for example, greater innovation and

creativity. The leader of an adult education organisation should aim to incorporate such innovation and creativity in the development and provision of learning courses and programmes that meet the diverse needs of adult learners in Africa.

From self-centeredness to higher purpose

'The ethical turmoil of the early twenty-first century has prompted a determined and conscious shift in leader mind-set from a self-centered focus to [an] emphasis on a higher purpose … new leadership paradigm demands accountability, honesty, integrity, responsibility, and ethical leadership *(*Daft, 2005: 13).

Good leadership is about caring for those you serve (higher purpose) and placing their needs first; it demands genuine concern for the people you lead as well as the work that you do (Daft, 2005). Leaders need to invest time and energy in the promotion of ethical, effective, and enduring leadership practices. The leader of an adult education organisation has to be emotionally connected to the organisation and to the people whom he or she leads, while at the same time remaining firmly committed to the achievement of the organisation's goals.

From hero to humble

The days when a manager worked in isolation behind the closed door of his or her office are coming to an end. Today, a manager/leader is far more accessible – there are more open doors – and the previously accepted notion of the leader as a remote, superior, 'heroic' figure is losing credibility.

Contemporary thinking on the leadership issue advocates the adoption of a much more humble 'I'm-one-of-you' way of thinking and behaving. Conversely, autocratic and authoritarian leadership styles no longer seem to suit the fluid, fast-moving environment in which organisations exist. The general trend is towards a more open, democratic style of institutional management and operation.

For adult education organisations to succeed in achieving their goals, a leadership paradigm that is respectful, ethical, democratic, diverse, and inclusive is essential.

LEADERSHIP OPPORTUNITIES IN ADULT EDUCATION ORGANISATIONS

The approach to leadership development is changing. The adoption of modern democratic principles, the declining presence and power of kingdoms, and the desire for women and youth to lead, are some of the modern-day factors that are changing the faces of leadership and the paths used to prepare individuals for leadership roles, and the leadership process. Leadership development in itself has become both a field of study and a professional career for individuals who work as researchers, coaches, consultants, speakers, trainers, and mentors in the field. Now let's take a look at some of the contemporary strategies used to develop leaders within and outside formal organisations.

Formal and non-formal training

A variety of institutions now offer courses and programmes tailored to developing leadership skills. Formal leadership development programmes offered as short courses, as well as executive and MBA programes are very popular. Furthermore, many educational organisations offer leadership development in courses that may carry the title of, for example, Human Resource Development (HRD), Organisational

Development (OD), Human Resource Management (HRM), Management, Talent Management, Educational Leadership, Public Administration, and so on. Some corporations, government agencies, and NGOs offer in-house training to their employees on leadership topics. The push for leadership development is also from employees who are seeking to acquire new skills or upgrade existing ones. As part of employment negotiations, new employees nowadays want to know what opportunities exist to improve their skills. In a work environment, leadership training typically involves attendance by a junior member of staff at senior-level meetings, where he or she has the opportunity to absorb the thoughts, interactions and behaviour of his or her superiors. In other words, leadership is learned by studying the leadership ideas and observing the behaviour of other leaders (Giuliani and Kurson, 2004). Although the subject matter of the meeting may not be of direct interest to the attendee, this is relatively unimportant; it is the modes of thought, speech and action that he or she witnesses that is of real value. If asked to attend a meeting in this capacity, you should think of the assignment as an excellent opportunity to observe, listen and develop your leadership potential.

'Informal leadership training' refers to those occasions where an individual is exposed to leadership practices and procedures in a social and/or communal setting. Talking circles around camp fires were evident in many African households and villages. Such settings were used as venues and training grounds for developing leadership on an ongoing basis. Apprenticeships were also a common feature, where an apprentice 'learner' was taught by or lived with a 'master' to acquire certain competencies. Such apprenticeship approaches are the foundation of today's mentoring programs.

Adult education literacy classes represent a further excellent opportunity and setting for fostering leadership; especially to groups of adult learners who cannot access the kind of formal training programmes mentioned above. These forums have the potential to instil leadership attitudes alongside literacy skills. Women's groups, faith-based organisations, youth groups, and community-based organisations have long used informal training opportunities to develop leaders.

Mentoring

Mentoring is a learning process whereby a mentor (experienced person) guides a mentee (emerging leader or protégée) to accomplish a particular goal – in this case, to grow as a leader. Mentoring programmes vary in terms of their content, duration, and focus, and they can be formal or informal in nature.

Coaching

Coaching is a technique and process for developing leadership and improving performance at individual-, team-, and organisational levels (Talents Ascent, 2009). One-on-one coaching may not be within the reach of every organisation since it tends to be expensive, especially if the service is provided by an external coach who offers his or her service on a consultancy basis. The development of internal or 'in-house' coaches may be preferable, not only for financial reasons, but also because an internal coach is far more likely to understand and value, and therefore to pass on to others, the leadership practices and processes that best suit the organisation.

Job enrichment

The concept of job enrichment maintains that for people to be motivated in the workplace their jobs need to be meaningful and challenging. Leaders and managers should spend time listening to the needs of their

employees and finding ways of making their working lives as fulfilling as possible. This may involve reviewing an individual's job description to see if more challenging tasks can be included, encouraging team-based problem-solving where everyone is encouraged to offer ideas and suggestions, setting up informal inter-departmental meetings so that employees can find out more about what goes on elsewhere in the organisation, encouraging employees to attend in-house training programmes, looking for opportunities to improve employees' skills via day-release or distance-learning courses of study, and so on.

Job rotation

Job rotation is one of the best ways of enriching a person's work, especially if he or she performs relatively few, or mainly repetitive, tasks. By switching jobs, even if only temporarily, a person may discover new talents; at the very least he or she will gain a better understanding of how others work and the particular challenges they face. Job rotation benefits the organisation as well since employees who know more about, and therefore feel more connected to, the organisation they work for are likely to commit more fully to organisational objectives.

Multi-source feedback systems

Multi-source feedback, or '360° feedback' as it is sometimes called, is as a very effective (and increasingly popular) leadership development technique. As its name suggests, this technique seeks feedback from various relevant sources; the rationale being that the more information a leader or manager receives the more likely he or she is to make good decisions, offer effective solutions and help achieve organisational goals. A leader that can achieve all this is a great asset to any organisation. However, multi-source feedback is a time-consuming process and the analysis and interpretation of the source information received is not a straightforward procedure. But the basic validity of the technique is not in doubt: even if you as a leader lack the resources to implement a formal 360° system, an informal procedure that encourages ongoing feedback from various stakeholders is a credible alternative. You may want to explore the use of focus groups where appropriate; always keeping confidentiality issues in mind.

On-the-job experiences

Leaders need to recognise the value of their own work-related experiences, and those of their colleagues, to the organisation.

Long-serving members of staff have accumulated a wealth of knowledge that could be profitably used by any conscientious leader. We mentioned earlier that leadership is not a positional issue, that is, that individuals who occupy formal positions of authority – Head of Department, Chief Executive Officer, Human Resources Manager, etc. – are not the only leaders within an organisation. Leaders, in simple terms, come in all shapes and sizes, and can be located at all levels of an organisation.

Volunteering

Volunteering is a cost-effective strategy for anyone willing to grow as a leader. Volunteering is beneficial in several ways: it introduces the volunteer to new skills and work methods; it provides the volunteer with additional knowledge and insights; it opens up new ways of interacting with others; and it provides an opportunity for self-development and personal growth. Additionally, the socially responsible thing to do is to not only acquire new skills for yourself but also to share your skills with

others. For example, your local residents' association has decided to set up a committee for the purposes of raising money for a relief fund to benefit families of a recent flooding in your community, but needs someone to chair this committee. By volunteering to fulfil this role, you give yourself the perfect opportunity to test out and develop your leadership abilities.

Technology-based approaches

We have already spoken about the importance of ICT (information and communications technology) to the way in which we live, work, socialise and interact. Many organisations, including those in the field of adult education, are looking at ways in which this new technology can empower their employees and/or adult learners. An obvious example is the use of the Internet as a research and learning tool, which is something that is available to anyone with access to a computer terminal that has an Internet connection. Access is not restricted to those who own computers since many colleges, universities, libraries, adult education centres, and so on, now provide Internet facilities on site. Internet cafes, too, are very popular; they are also becoming more affordable as increasing competition brings prices down. The modern cell phone is similarly empowering, as a means of connecting and sharing information.

The theme of empowerment is critical to our appreciation and assessment of contemporary technology. While ICT possesses the potential to educate, inform and empower disadvantaged people and communities, this can only be achieved if the technology is accessible and affordable. Leaders of adult education organisations should do all they can to ensure that the technology used in their programmes and courses is accessible by the greatest possible number of adult learners.

To conclude this section, we can say that leadership development is an inclusive process that embraces a wide range of people and occurs in a variety of settings. The strategies we have briefly considered here are some of the ways in which the leader of an adult education organisation can foster their development.

CASE STUDY: FARMERS' CAPITAL

Nozuko is the Director of Operations of Farmers' Capital, a medium-size NGO located in her country's capital city that provides financial management training for the large number of farmers scattered around the country. The organisation's central committee comprises six heads of department (HODs), each of whom is in charge of a different aspect of service delivery. All the HODs are male and have been with the organisation since its inception twenty-five years ago.

Nozuko is concerned that her organisation is not meeting its targets and identifies the following problem areas: over half the farmers receiving training say that the training programme material is irrelevant and/or difficult to understand; the employees who conduct on-site visits and oversee the financial management training programmes say that they receive little administrative or professional support from head office; the heads of department are exclusively responsible for the design of the training programmes and hardly invite input from others; and, finally, several key donors from both the public and private sectors are threatening to withdraw their funding unless Farmers' Capital improves its service delivery.

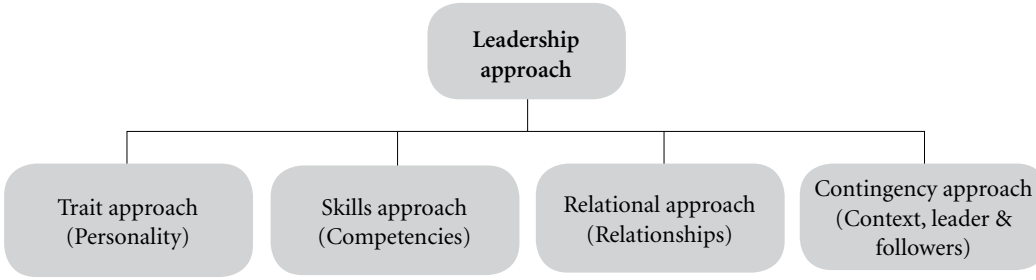

Figure 2.2 Leadership approaches

ACTIVITY

In small groups discuss the above case study. What leadership initiatives do you think Nozuko could take that would improve the current situation at Farmers' Capital?

LEADERSHIP APPROACHES

It is now time to turn our attention to the various leadership approaches (or leadership theories as they are also called) that have been identified. Research on this subject shows that there are four main leadership approaches that are commonly used: the trait approach, the skills approach, the relational approach, and the contingency approach, which are shown in diagrammatic form in Figure 2.2.

The trait approach

The trait approach was one of the first theories on leadership to emerge and was for a long time accepted as the best possible explanation of who and what leadership entails. Trait theory rests on the assumption that leaders are 'born, not made'. In other words, a person is destined to be a leader based on the innate leadership qualities that he or she possesses. The trait approach is very similar to the notion of hereditary power that exists in monarchies (nations governed by a king or queen), where the 'right to rule' belongs to a particular family or tribe of royal blood that passes this right from one generation to the next. The Great Man theory is also closely aligned to the trait approach.

Today, however, the trait approach (and the Great Man theory) has far less significance in terms of its influence on leadership practice and thought.

The skills approach

'Leaders develop competencies over time … and … are shaped by their experiences' (Northouse, 2004: 48).

The skills approach focuses on a leader's *competencies* and capabilities (knowledge and skills). The emphasis of this approach is on skills development, which means that a leader should seek to refine and improve existing skills and, where possible, to acquire new ones.

African adult education organisations can use this approach for leadership development programmes that target, for example, communication, problem-solving, and teamwork skills. It is an empowering approach because it defines leadership as a skill that everyone can develop. As a leader, you can apply this theory on the job by providing your followers with, for instance,

challenging job assignments, mentoring opportunities, and appropriate training.

The relational approach

This approach focuses on the *relationship* process between leaders and followers and on how they interact and influence one another. The emphasis here is on the personal leadership qualities needed to build effective relationships. These qualities include, among others, courage, integrity, high moral standards, and emotional intelligence. As a leader, it is important that you empower, motivate and promote the well-being of your followers.

The contingency approach

This approach advocates that leaders should vary their leadership style or approach depending on the *situation.* Within the context of an incredibly diverse African adult education environment, this approach is particularly relevant. The contingency approach brings together the leadership style, the situational variables, and the followers' development level in such a way that they correspond with and complement each other.

The choice of leadership style is crucial to the success (or failure) of the contingency approach. But what are the different styles of leadership, and how do we know when to use one style and not another? In the next section we attempt to answer these two very important questions.

LEADERSHIP STYLES

The four main categories of leadership styles are: telling/directing, selling/coaching, participating/supporting, and delegating (Hersey, 1985).

- *Telling/directing*. This style is appropriate where subordinates have a low-readiness level. Leaders who use this style give instructions (direct) about what and how goals will be achieved and then supervise subordinates. This 'top-down' style is suited to organisations where the workforce has a high percentage of individuals who have little or no practical work experience, lack proper education, and/or belong to organisations where strict adherence to set procedures is essential for reasons of safety and security, for example, a chemical processing plant or a military unit.
- *Selling/coaching*. A leader adopting this style also instructs his or her followers regarding their work tasks, but he or she also encourages input from subordinates and pays attention to their emotional needs. The leader is still responsible for making the final decision on goal-oriented issues and retains overall authority over and responsibility for the others.
- *Participating/supporting*. This style of leadership acknowledges, supports, encourages and values the contribution of others. This type of leader delegates work and responsibility where possible. He or she will also receive and give feedback, which may include valid, constructive criticism, with the aim of accomplishing tasks and achieving goals as effectively as possible. 'A leader using this style gives control to the subordinates for day-to-day decisions but remains available to facilitate problem solving' (Northouse, 2004: 90).
- *Delegating*. This leadership style is best suited to organisations where the workforce is highly experienced, well qualified and able to problem-solve and prioritise with minimal supervision. The leader facilitates the work of the team, and provides help when asked.

Of course it is perfectly acceptable to use a combination of two or more of these styles, and many leaders do. Most organisations have more than one employee/member 'type' – not everyone who works in a health clinic is a qualified medical officer, for example – and there is usually a mix of different abilities, life experiences, educational backgrounds, and so on. If this is the case then it is clear that the leader of the health clinic/women's group/micro-finance company/adult education facility must be prepared to use whatever leadership styles are needed to maximise the contribution made by the various stakeholders.

We close this section by returning to the culture-fit model recommended by Beugre' and Offodile (2001). This model uses the two concepts of integration (of new ideas that complement the existing organisational system) and eradication (of what no longer works or fits within the organisational system). We share the view expressed by these commentators that, as African leaders of adult education providers are exposed to new theories and techniques, it's imperative that they do not transfer them wholesale, rather, they should modify (adapt) them to suit their specific situations. In addition, they need to ensure that the techniques they use and the leadership style they adapt, take into account the prevailing social, political, and economic environments in which adult education organisations exist.

ACTIVITY

Imagine that you are the Programme Manager in charge of a nationwide malaria-prevention programme. The programme has expanded steadily over the past two years and you have recently recruited 100 new community health workers (CHWs). The CHWs are spread across the various districts of the country, where they work directly with local communities to prevent malaria. Since the CHWs mostly work in the field, you have limited access to them. Most of the CHWs are university graduates although they have very limited experience in the provision of public health care services.

Discuss which leadership approach and style(s) you would adopt to manage the community health workers.

EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP FOR AFRICA'S ADULT EDUCATION ORGANISATIONS

This section highlights the effective leadership attributes that Africas adult education organization needs and deserves. We already have leaders who possess these qualities and no doubt, we need to develop others. As you read, you will notice that each leadership attribute are closely tied to the African values discussed earlier in this chapter and to research-based indicators of what effective leadership is all about.

Visionary leadership

'Leadership that has big outcomes often starts small' (Daft, 2005: 6).

An organisation lead by a leader without a vision will not achieve its goals and may fail. Vision addresses the future aspirations and desired outcomes of an organisation. An organisation's vision statement, when you read it, usually sounds extremely ambitious and often unrealistic. This is because it's meant to! The purpose of an organisation's vision statement is to set out clearly the highest possible standards of service that the organisation wants to achieve. By setting these high standards, the vision statement challenges the organisation's members to

strive for excellence in everything they do, which can of course sound intimidating and/or unrealistic. The job of the leader is to encourage and support others in their efforts to reach these elevated ideals.

Equally essential for the visionary leader is the need to establish a *mission* (what an organisation is all about and its primary goals) and to determine the strategy that will be used ('how' the mission will be implemented). An effective leader is a visionary one who thinks beyond the present to formulate the desired future.

We can also repeat a point raised earlier in this chapter: a leader needs to develop a *shared vision* as a means of gaining commitment. Stakeholders can be a part of creating the vision: if the organisational vision is clear, then various departments can set up their own vision statements that align with the organisational one. As you lead your team in a visioning process, consider the following questions: What does the big picture look like? Where do the people in the organisation fit in? How can the people in the organisation be involved in achieving the vision? What do we want our organisation to look like fifty years from today?

Creating a vision is not enough. This vision must be communicated to the stakeholders from the very beginning. A leader who communicates effectively will more likely create and maintain commitment to the set vision. Such a leader will:

- Seek and provide continuous feedback
- Make his or her message clear to everyone
- Make use of a variety of communication skills and mediums (written, verbal, etc.)
- State expectations and report on progress made
- Keep communication channels open at all times
- Use a variety of strategies and media. (Anecdotes and jokes, used in moderation, can boost morale, defuse tension and encourage togetherness. Audiovisual presentations, PowerPoint slides, demonstrations, and emails are some of the commonly used communication media.)

Innovative leadership

'Leadership involves creating change, not maintaining the status quo' (Daft, 2005: 5).

Effective leaders are innovative leaders. In as much as it is important to preserve the institutional culture, it is also important to be in tune with what is happening outside and to adapt quickly to changing circumstances and demands.

Effective leaders are continuously assessing and reassessing their organisation's performance and how they might improve this performance. In doing this, many leaders and managers use a technique called SWOT analysis, which calls for an investigation of an organisation's strengths (S), weaknesses (W), opportunities (O), and threats (T). Threats arise when conditions in the external environment endanger the integrity and survival of an organisation. According to Burke (2002), opportunities arise when an organisation can take advantage of conditions in its external environment to formulate and implement strategies that enable it to improve performance and thrive.

Enlightened leadership

Enlightened leaders avoid ignorance and prejudice, seek to reduce ambiguity, uncertainty, and to impart knowledge to others. They are both spiritually and intellectually informed. An informed leader is one who keeps up to date with developing trends in the economy, technology, society, finance, and competitors' behaviour. Leaders must be good at environmental scanning ('What's going on out there?'), use personal wisdom,

expertise and experience, and consult as many sources as possible if they want to maintain their organisation's well-being. Sources include people (colleagues, peers, experts, etc.), organisations (NGOs and CBOs, government departments, local residents associations, and community forums, to name a few), media (print media, television, radio, the Internet, etc.) and *indabas* (councils), trade fairs and conferences, and other similar forums.

Motivational leadership

Effective leaders motivate their followers. Motivation can take many different forms and includes providing positive feedback to high-performing individuals and groups, implementing recognition awards, assigning challenging tasks, recommending promotion, and sending staff on training courses. Far less is accomplished without other people's cooperation. Paul Hersey, a leading authority on situational leadership, argues that empowering other people is a key factor in organisational success (Hersey, 1985).

Leading by example

An effective leader is a good role model and someone who leads by example. Such a leader is responsible, has great personal integrity and is respected and admired by his or her followers. Effective leaders ensure that their own behaviour is consistent with the behaviour they expect of others. For example, if you are a leader or manager and you expect your staff to be on time and to deliver their assignments on time, then you should demonstrate the same efficiency when asked to supply feedback, provide resources or set up a management-staff meeting. If you are leading a change effort that demands changes in behaviour and/or attitude, then you should be the first person to demonstrate or model that new behaviour and/or attitude you expect from others.

Socially responsible and service-orientated leadership

The African leadership paradigm has a bias towards serving other people in the organisation as a leader instead of being served (Mbigi, 2004: 21). This principle is also referred to as 'servant leadership', whereby the leader seeks to serve, making sure that other people's priority needs are being met first (Greenleaf Centre for Servant-Leadership, 2009). The leader's role is not to control his or her followers but to serve them. The leader of an adult education facility services the needs of a range of followers and other stakeholders: adult learners (educational and personal development needs); lecturers and support staff (work-related and personal development needs); the department of education at local, district and national levels (academic needs); the local community (social, economic and cultural development needs); and the organisation (academic, social responsibility, and finance- and profit-related needs).

Social responsibility includes paying attention to the needs of the natural environment as well of those of the various stakeholders mentioned above. The damage to the environment caused by industrial, commercial and domestic pollution, deforestation, intensive farming methods, exploitation of natural resources, and so on, has seen an upsurge in the general public's demand for organisations to act in a more environmentally responsible manner. Leaders of organisations have an obligation to look at how they can implement policies and practices that are earth-friendly. Recycling and waste-reduction programmes are examples of relatively inexpensive initiatives

that can be introduced; as are tree-planting and clean-up exercises.

Consensus-building and collaborative leadership

Regardless of your background and training, adult education organisations demand a variety of skills. You will realise that you can't do it all by yourself and that you cannot be an expert in all areas. Therefore, you should be ready to call upon and to collaborate with other subject-matter experts and service providers who offer training, coaching, evaluation services, and so on. Consensus-building means finding ways of getting people to agree on something. This type of leader encourages discussion, debate and negotiation – in fact any form of open communication – in situations where tension, conflict or disagreement exists. He or she often performs a mediating role in these talks, that is, he or she will oversee the discussion in a fair-minded way, making sure that every person present has a chance to put forward their view and that the atmosphere remains as civil (polite) and pleasant as possible. He or she may also suggest compromises or alternative courses of action, or recommend a 'cooling-off' period in cases where there is considerable resentment or anger.

Pro-diversity leadership

'One of the leader's most challenging jobs is to guide followers in using their power effectively and responsibly by creating a climate of respect and development for all employees' (Daft, 2005: 11).

The leader of an organisation is responsible for establishing an inclusive workplace or learning environment. An inclusive environment makes each person feel welcome, valued, and wanted; it also means that employees can do their jobs and express their opinions appropriately without being harassed or threatened. There is, fortunately, a growing acceptance within organisations of the need to, and the benefits of, utilising and encouraging the input of all members of the organisation.

Ethical leadership

A leader is a moral guide who guides others through his or her exemplary and virtuous behaviour. Africa is sometimes portrayed as a place where corrupt leadership practices are common, and good, decent, ethical leaders rare. The observation is a valid one, although in its recent past Africa has improved considerably in this respect. As we have mentioned on several occasions up to now, the spread of liberal democracy across the planet has led to drastic improvements in many countries' political and business leadership systems, which includes, but is not restricted to, the countries of Africa.

This improvement in the standard of leadership is, of course, most welcome. However, it would be naïve to think that further improvements are unnecessary or that our leaders no longer need to monitor and evaluate their ethical behaviour. Even higher standards of ethical and moral leadership are possible, which means that the need for self-assessment remains an integral part of a leader's personal agenda.

Emotional Intelligent Leadership

Peter Salovey and John Mayer are some of the leading researchers on emotional intelligence (EQ). They define emotional intelligence as 'the capacity to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. A high EQ person can better perceive emotions, use them in thought, understand their meanings, and

manage emotions, and is more likely to have positive social interactions' (Ciarrochi, Forgas, and Mayer n.d.).

ACTIVITY

Imagine that you have been recently promoted to lead a brand new department within the Ministry of Social Services that provides services to disabled adults. The main function of your department is to provide self-reliance training to this population. You have 15 staff members to help you in your work, ranging from junior-level clerical/administration employees to managers. Being a new initiative, one of your first tasks is to establish a clear vision and strategy for the department. Your offices are on the second floor of an old building that does not have a lift (elevator). Based on your experience, you know that your clients hardly ever come to the building to be served. You also know that the committee that created the department had no disabled persons on it. You would like to change this culture of exclusion.

In groups, discuss the following questions:

- **What are some of the elements that you would change to create a work environment that is more inclusive?**
- **How you would approach the problem of your clients' reluctance to visit the building?**
- **Develop a possible vision statement for your department and say how you would create commitment to that vision.**

DEVELOPING YOUR LEADERSHIP AT VARIOUS LEVELS

There are various levels at which you could exercise leadership; which you can see if you look at the leadership pyramid shown in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3 The leadership pyramid

- *Individual leadership* is the everyday form of leadership that occurs in a majority of households, offices settings, and in grassroots movements. The leader here is usually someone who others tend to follow naturally or whose opinion is asked for on issues that affect the group. He or she is perhaps more accurately described as an 'opinion leader', rather than a leader who occupies a formal position within an organisation.
- *Team leadership* occurs when a person is in charge of a team that has shared goals, for example, the chairperson of a committee meeting or the captain of a football team. The team does not necessarily have to belong to an institution or possess formal documents that outline its function and objectives.
- *Organisational leadership* integrates the interests of various teams and functions/departments of an organisation.
- *National leadership* may include government ministers, leaders of religious organisations, coach or manager of a national sports team, the leader of a national women's group, NGO or CBO,

and national youth organisations, among others.
- *Global leadership* includes multi-lateral organisations such as the United Nations, Amnesty International, the World Wildlife Fund, and Christian Aid, as well as the heads of multinational companies, civil rights and protests movements, and not-for-profit organisations.

At whatever level you lead, first believe that you can lead; then go ahead and make that choice to be an effective leader who can make a positive difference!

ACTIVITY

Look again at the leadership pyramid and then answer the following questions:

- **At what level of the pyramid do you currently lead?**
- **Are there any ways in which you can improve your leadership at this level?**
- **Do you think that you could operate at another level or levels of the pyramid? If so, what new strategies, approaches or techniques would you need to develop in order to operate at these new levels?**

SUMMARY

The goal in this chapter was to introduce the reader to leadership, which is a centre piece of the management puzzle. We discussed leadership and its impact on the management of adult education organisations in Africa. We defined leadership, identified leadership challenges and opportunities, and explored leadership approaches, values, styles and types. Leadership is essential to organisational growth and renewal, and strong leadership provides an organisation with a competitive advantage (Parry and Sinha, 2005). Leadership is one of the key transformational factors that adult education organisations in Africa need if they are to survive and, ideally, prosper. The future success of adult learning hinges on effective leaders who have a vision, who recognise opportunities and work towards them, and who can be both task-oriented and people-oriented. It is difficult to divorce western leadership practices entirely from this discussion of leadership of Africa's adult education organisations. We would like to remind you that your role as an African leader and manager is to understand the nature of broad leadership and management techniques and their underlying value system and ideology and to review them critically with your local culture in mind.

This chapter has equipped you with leadership knowledge and tools. Now your challenge is to examine yourself and seize leadership opportunities around you!

KEY POINTS

- Leadership affects an individual's commitment to an organisation, job satisfaction, work attitude, effort level, and performance.
- Leadership is a process through which desired traits and skills are developed, and it can be developed through learning and practice.
- Leadership development occurs through coaching, volunteering, mentoring, feedback, studying, and by practice.
- Leadership involves influencing followers and is directed at achieving shared outcomes.
- Leadership styles include telling, coaching, delegating, and participating. Your style should vary depending on the situation and the abilities and motivation of your followers.
- Approaches to leadership include the

trait, skills, relational, and contingency approaches.
- Cross-cultural theory proposes that leadership is both a universal and a culture-specific phenomenon.
- Adult education organisations need to integrate African leadership values with appropriate modern/western leadership values.
- Effective leadership is essential in solving the challenges facing adult education organisations and in seizing the opportunities that exist.
- Leadership occurs at various levels, spanning individual to global levels.
- As a leader you should recognise leadership opportunities around you, influence others, and bring about positive change by encouraging and embracing diversity, collaboration, empowerment and communication, and by striving to serve those you lead.
- Socially responsible and ethical leadership are essential qualities within adult education organisations.

FURTHER QUESTIONS

1. After reading this chapter, how has your attitude towards leadership changed?
2. What steps will you take to develop yourself as a leader in your community or workplace?

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Chapter 3

Management approaches in Africa

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Describe various approaches to managing an adult education organisation.
2. Assess the importance of African values in the context of managing an adult education facility and discuss ways of implementing these values.
3. Explain the importance of motivating workers, facilitators, practitioners and learners in an adult education organisation.
4. Discuss the different motivational strategies available to the manager of an adult educational facility.

KEY TERMS

African values Traditional African values regarding how people live, work and interact that are based on the principles of equality, justice, respect, honesty, truth, love and togetherness.

management A collection of activities involving planning, organising, motivating and controlling.

management skills The technical, interpersonal and communication, and conceptual and decision-making skills that a manager has and which allow him or her to perform a range of specialised tasks.

motivation The forces that energise, direct and sustain people in their effort to perform effectively and to achieve their personal goals.

motivators The factors that result in the attainment of job satisfaction and high morale.

reinforcement Strengthening and supporting others in their work through praise, encouragement and reward.

BEFORE YOU START

Read the case study on page 54 and then answer the questions that follow. You may not be familiar with some of the words and terms you come across, for example, honorarium, and a negotiated document, in which case it would be a good idea to have a dictionary beside you as you read. Your lecturer should also be able to help.

OVERVIEW

The chapter deals with the holistic paradigm of managing an adult education organisation in Africa. It discusses management approaches and ways of motivating workers, facilitators and learners. The chapter opens with a brief look at management approaches that may be described as post-colonial, post-instrumental, and African Renaissance or humanistic. We then focus on how these approaches relate to management in the context of an adult educational environment. We will also take time to consider the various managerial skills needed by managers of adult education facilities, and the ways in which specifically African values can be integrated into the management system of this type of facility.

The central thesis of this chapter is that African values should form the basis of managing adult education organisations. Management skills can be gained through knowledge-acquisition, practice, and personal development gained in educational institutions and in the workplace. Knowledge learned is translated into behaviour that is meaningful and acceptable.

The manager exercises three types of management skills: technical skills, interpersonal and communication skills, and conceptual and decision-making skills. Interpersonal and communication skills improve the manager's ability to motivate staff, improve the quality of decisions made, enhance relationships with stakeholders and raise the level of employee performance and commitment to organisational goals. Conceptual and decision-making skills enable a manager to identify issues facing the organisation, examine the factors behind these issues, and provide solutions. These skills enable the manager to perform specialised tasks such as planning, organising, controlling, leading, directing and budgeting, which will in turn demand the use of various technical skills gained through study and work experience.

The manager's role as motivator is particularly important. This is because if motivation is low, the performance of workers, facilitators, practitioners and learners will be negatively affected, and the achievement of organisational objectives will therefore be jeopardised (put in danger). The conscientious manager will motivate the various groups of organisational members so that their combined energies bring about positive results and/or change. The proverb 'One finger alone cannot even kill a louse' (Charlotte and Leslau, 1985: 34) is something that managers should keep in mind as they set about securing commitment to their facilities' goals.

CASE STUDY: MANAGEMENT OF THE BOTSWANA NATIONAL LITERACY PROGRAMME (NLP)

The Botswana National Literacy Programme (NLP) relies upon three groups of workers to administer its programme: Adult Education Officers (AEOs), Adult Education Assistants (AEAs), and Literacy Group Leaders (LGLs). All three groups were experiencing difficulties. The AEOs and AEAs had a job description although it was not a negotiated document. The LGLs, all of whom were volunteers, were not involved in decision-making at any level; their honorariums were not being paid on time; and the money they received was the same regardless of how long they had worked for the NLP. Furthermore, long-serving volunteers who had been asked to leave had done so without receiving any reward, monetary or otherwise.

The NLP was failing to meet its targets for several reasons: inadequate transport facilities, unexpected departmental and national activities, limited office equipment and space, and poorly maintained, and insufficient learning equipment and materials.

Training of LGLs took only two weeks after which they were expected to recruit and start teaching adult learners. The majority of the AEOs and AEAs felt that the programme was not achieving its objectives and some did not even know its aims. In several locations, teaching and learning took place under a tree. Any complaint from the LGLs was met with ridicule and a reminder that they were not employees of the organisation but volunteers. Teaching time was too short and abrupt closures had been experienced, signifying a lack of commitment to the programme.

(Adapted from Modise, 2000)

ACTIVITY

In small groups, answer the following questions:

- **What are the motivational issues that emerge from the case study?**
- **What strategies could you use to address the complaints of the AEOs, AEAs and LGLs?**

- **Does the management of volunteer staff differ from the management of employees? Motivate your answer.**

MANAGEMENT APPROACHES

Management is a collection of activities involving planning, organising, motivating and controlling. It involves designing and maintaining an environment in which individuals, working together in groups, efficiently and effectively accomplish the activities of an organisation. A management approach is a framework that encompasses the knowledge and skills required to design and maintain an environment in which the manager works together with staff, facilitators, practitioners and learners, to attain the vision and mission of the organisation. The approach applied influences the efficiency and effectiveness of the service delivery system; it also requires the proper allocation of responsibilities, and makes an allowance for flexibility and innovativeness. An effective management approach aims for an improvement in work performance through motivation of workers, facilitators, and learners, by harmonising tasks, delegating duties and ensuring the free flow of information.

The management approaches practised in Africa are a combination of western influences and African values. According to Jackson (2003), Africa's management approaches can be categorised as 'post colonial that was based on coercive leadership and alienative involvement; instrumental that was based on remunerative reward and contractual involvement; and African Renaissance (humanistic) that was based on normative leadership and moral involvement' (Jackson, 2003: 6). The following is a brief explanation of these approaches.

Post-colonial management approach

This management approach is results-oriented and control-oriented. It is also hierarchical, centralised, authoritarian, rule bound, inflexible, personalised, politicised, insensitive and distrustful of employees (Jackson, 2003; Blunt and Jones, 1992; Kiggundu, 1988). The source of this approach to management can be traced to the era of colonial rule in Africa, when colonial administrators had little faith in the ability of their African employees, and therefore kept all the managerial powers to themselves. The institutions established by the colonial authorities were therefore highly autocratic; authority was vested in high-level (and non-African) individuals and there was very little consultation with those below. If there was any consultation, then it was usually with those outside the organisation such as donors, government officials, politicians or the president of the country. Hence politics played a vital role in the management of the organisation (Blunt and Jones, 1992)

The authoritarian rule of the colonial administrators spilled over into the post-colonial period. Traditional African leaders such as chiefs, having been conditioned by their colonial overlords into adopting a dictatorial system of rule in their communities, continued this practice in the wake of the colonisers withdrawal.

This authoritarian management approach, in which the leader is a unilateral decision-maker who invites little or no input from others, has been widely practised by managers in Kenya, as revealed in a study by Leonard (1993) on the secrets of African managerial success. After studying the biographies of four Kenyan managers, namely Charles Kibe Karanja, Harris Mutio Mule, Simeon Nyachae, and Ishmael Muriithi, Leonard's study attributed the manage-

rial success they enjoyed to their ability to effectively pursue professionally dictated policies and to protect the integrity of their organisations against inappropriate political pressures by having personal relationships with the president. The study concluded that 'when these relationships were lost, so was their managerial effectiveness' (Leonard, 1993: 47). Political connection was vital to managerial success. As Leonard (1993: 48) notes:

> *In Kenya and most African countries, the relevant political intervention comes from the President. Effective public servants are able to mobilise support at critical junctures not by building independent political bases of support for themselves or their organisations, but from personal access to and the confidence of the President.*

Leonard's findings are corroborated by Montgomery (1987), whose study of managerial behaviour in South Africa discovered that managers were conservative and were concerned more with issues of resource allocation and relationships 'than with policy issues, developmental goals and public welfare' (Blunt and Jones, 1992: 82). Montgomery's study also confirmed the existence of an authoritarian management style and a hierarchical structure in the organisations examined.

The post-colonial management approach has several failings. The fact that power is concentrated in the hands of the manager and that this creates a climate of fear and uncertainty in the organisation is particularly damaging. There is also the danger that an all-powerful manager, left unchallenged, may turn into a dictator. The political aspect of this management approach creates discomfort among the stakeholders who feel that what they do should remain free from political influence or interference. Finally, the present climate of change and upheaval that dominates the African continent makes it vital for a manager to be outward-looking so as to monitor, anticipate, initiate and manage change in order for the organisation to remain relevant.

Instrumental management approach

This approach views workers as instruments for achieving an organisation's vision, mission and goals. Originating in the West, the instrumental management approach can be subdivided into three further approaches that, broadly speaking, share the same purpose: the scientific management approach, modern operational management, and the contingency approach (Cole, 2004).

The scientific management approach

The scientific management approach, attributed to the work of Frederick Winslow Taylor (1856–1912), is concerned with achieving high output through the use of scientific methods. The use of these methods is believed to make workers more efficient and motivated. Emphasis is on systematic analysis of tasks based on the belief that most people utilise only minimal effort to carry out their daily tasks (Cole, 2004).

Scientific management is used in many manufacturing, industrial and commercial operations, where the need to maximise the efficient use of a number of resources (labour, materials, equipment, plant, capital, and so on) is critical to an organisation's operations. However, the approach has also found a home in the service sector, where the same need for efficient resource-usage applies even if the inputs measured and the methods of measurement are different.

The benefits of applying scientific management to an adult education organisation would include: accurate measurement of tasks, provision of information that could be used to improve the way tasks are per-

formed, increased service delivery due to improved methods of working, result-pegged remuneration, and improvement of working conditions.

The demerits (disadvantages) of applying a scientific management approach in an adult education environment would be: rigid adherence to methods and procedures over which the manager has no discretion; fragmentation of activities due to the approach's emphasis on analysis and organisation of individual tasks; negative effects of using the 'carrot-and-stick' method to motivate individuals through pegging remuneration to performance; placing the control of activities in the hands of one person (the manager); and low morale due to lack of bargaining power because remuneration is based on results (Cole, 2004). These demerits may create room for hiring people on a part-time or voluntary basis, a situation that is prevalent in some adult education organisations in Africa, for example, in Botswana (Modise, 2000).

The rigidity of the scientific management approach is its greatest weakness as far as the management of an adult education facility is concerned. The manager's relationship with employees and volunteers is fundamental to his or her ability to achieve the organisation's mission and realise its goals. In the previous chapter we talked about the relevance of consensus-building to the successful leadership of an adult education organisation, and the same observation can be made here. An organisation's success or failure rests upon the manager's ability to secure the trust, cooperation and commitment of the organisation's stakeholders. A manager therefore needs to address issues raised by workers and facilitators (paid or not paid) through establishing clear expectations, enhancing learners' orientation, and providing meaningful and effective performance evaluation. This is especially true if we consider the contribution made by the many volunteers who offer their skills, time and energies to the development of adult education in Africa. Volunteers occupy a special place in this environment through the service they provide in the areas of governance, administration, project coordination, and teaching.

The modern operational management approach

The modern operational management approach has its origins in the work of Fayol Henri (1841–1925) and its focus is on increasing efficiency among top level management (Cole, 2004) by getting the organisational structure and purpose right. This approach calls for a top-down management strategy in which senior-level management figures determine how the organisation will operate and employees at the levels below implement these decisions using appropriate methods, techniques and processes. This approach is not well-suited to the diverse nature and external environment of adult education organisations, which is something we looked at in Chapter 1. As we noted then, and can reiterate here, such diversity requires workers, facilitators and learners to be active participants in the decision-making process. Managers (and leaders) who set aside the claims, opinions and energies of others may de-motivate the 'workforce', even if unintentionally, and so prompt a reduction in the level of commitment to organisational objectives in these groups.

A further weakness of the operational management approach is its inability to cope with the rapid changes that are currently taking place in the environment in which adult education organisations operate. Adult education facilities must be able to offer a credible response to the challenges presented by globalisation and technology-driven job markets. Such a

response would include the introduction of market-driven courses, e-learning, additional information and communication technology (ICT) courses and programmes, evening classes, distance learning courses, and so on. The linear chain of command that typifies the organisational management approach (in other words, its reliance on a top-down management strategy) makes no provision for input from 'below', that is, from the facilitators, workers and learners who are most directly affected by the changes just mentioned.

Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga (2005) have noted that an emphasis on purpose and structure fails to take account of the pressures and challenges caused by globalisation, rapid changes in modern technology (especially in the field of ICT), Africa's poverty levels, and the different social attitudes of the African people. This approach, therefore, fails to acknowledge or incorporate the economic, social, cultural, technological, political and environmental factors that shape the management of adult education organisations in Africa.

Although formal management approaches recognise the fact that good management practice is essential for efficient and effective use of resources, these resources may be viewed by a manager as a means to an end; as some kind of instrument for achieving the organisation's goals (Jackson, 2003). It is possible that a manager may regard his or her workers, facilitators and learners as valuable only in terms of their ability to help attain the aims of the organisation, but that he or she fails to take account of their personal interests, needs and claims.

The contingency approach

This approach was covered in Chapter 2's treatment of different leadership approaches. The observations made there apply to this chapter's treatment of management approaches, and we therefore suggest that you revisit the previous chapter at this point.

Humanistic management approach

This approach to management comes from the belief that workers, facilitators and learners have value in their own right and that their interests in the organisation need to be taken into account. In other words, all members of an organisation are valuable in all respects and should be treated with dignity. The manager should emphasise the collective brotherhood, solidarity and interdependence that are key characteristics of African communities (Malunga, 2006). Indigenous African values that capture these characteristics need to be incorporated in the management style.

In these circumstances, the manager ensures that every decision is made by a group of people and not by a single individual. A study by Jackson (2003) found that in Mozambique, Rwanda, South Africa, Burkina Faso, Botswana and Cameroon, managers, especially those of the NGOs, practised a people-oriented management approach. These managers protect the rights of workers, facilitators and learners by treating them fairly and by using the best management practices available. Cooperation and collaboration at work and in life are encouraged in the belief that true progress is that which can benefit all. Problems should be solved together because 'united, the ants can take a dead elephant to their cave' (Malunga, 2006: 3).

INTEGRATING AFRICAN VALUES IN THE MANAGEMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION ORGANISATIONS

A number of timeless values, social attitudes, and beliefs have evolved in Africa. As noted in Chapter 1, a manager needs to integrate these qualities in the management of the organisation. The need for African values to be included is made more urgent by the increasing number of external challenges that organisations face today. These challenges include: rapid developments in technology (for example, e-learning); competition for adult education provision; the entry of private adult education providers; learners' increased expectations regarding the quality and variety of courses offered; improvements in communication systems, including the use of internet services; and the need for greater interconnectivity and non-competitive networking with other adult education organisations. At this point it can be noted that the Japanese, Europeans and Americans have integrated their relevant cultural values and beliefs in their management styles, and that Africa lags behind in this respect. A more detailed exploration of why this is so, however, remains beyond the remit of this book.

The following case study highlights some of the African values that have been or can be incorporated in the management of organisations in Africa. You may come across new or unfamiliar words and terms in the case study, for example, interpersonal issues, self-development, people-oriented, task-oriented, hierarchical nature, extended family, and kin network. Look these words up in a dictionary or ask your lecturer for an explanation.

CASE STUDY: MANAGERIAL PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT IN AN AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVICE ORGANISATION

The following case study is an adapted version of an article by Jones, Blunt and Sharma (1996). The authors conducted a study of managerial behaviour, organisational functioning and performance in the Ministry of Local Government, Lands and Housing in Botswana. Their findings are summarised as follows:

Authority in the ministry was organised in a paternalistic way, leading to a hierarchical relationship that called for a degree of dependence on seniors by juniors. The employees had high expectations of the manager's ability and willingness to provide clear guidance and support, and to help them in a kind way. The factors that influenced management practices in the ministry were: the communalist nature of the society, scarcity of resources, and concern for basic security that was achieved through the extended family and kin networks. These factors suggest that the managers' emphasize on the control of resources rather than individual or organisational performance reflected the importance of the social need to secure individual security before attending to other concerns. Societal values that created the customary dependency relationships led to reluctance by managers to make critical judgements on individual performance. An effective manager was one that could consult staff, treat staff with consideration, promote staff self-development, support and help staff, and provide them with clear direction. This suggested a

people-oriented and not task-oriented management approach.

In many African countries, where basic security is of primary concern, unchanging social and organisational structures that offer a measure of security can help to manage uncertainty.

We should therefore not be surprised that these structures are also highly conservative, change-resistant and preoccupied with the maintenance of rules, systems, and social networks, since these are the ways in which stability and security can be achieved. In addition, many African societies retain values that accentuate the need for quality relationships (politeness, respect for age, deference to status and authority), social rituals, consensus, and tolerance of individual mistakes and weaknesses.

The findings contained in this case study strengthen the case for managers to integrate African values in their management approach because by doing so they will improve the quality of interpersonal relationships, which will in turn have a positive effect on the attempt to secure organisational objectives.

In the following section we will look at several African values that can be integrated in the management of adult education organisations.

The extended family

A typical African family consists of the father, mother, sisters, brothers, aunts, uncles, children and grandparents. Family activities are in most cases carried out in a spirit of togetherness. The head of the family and the elders settle disputes and encourage family members to show love to one another. Love makes African people care for those who are old, orphaned or destitute and share in the fortunes and calamities of others (Moi, 1986; Onajole, 2003; Mbiti, 1975). This assures the individual of basic security.

The manager of an adult education organisation should realise the importance workers, facilitators and learners attach to the basic principles of the extended family, and assure them the provision of basic security in terms of food, shelter and clothing. He or she should show love to workers, facilitators and learners at all times and be sensitive to their needs. By doing so, a sense of belonging is instilled in them that will motivate them to be effective and efficient while undertaking their tasks.

Kinship and unity

Kinship and unity is one of the bases of traditional African societies (Moi, 1986). In most African communities, the strength of these values is such that the notion of referring to another as 'auntie', 'uncle' or 'cousin' has no relevance – many African languages lack the vocabulary to describe these types of relationship. In fact when two people from the same village meet elsewhere, they greet each other as 'brother' or 'sister', even if they are not from the same family (Onajole, 2003).

African people have faith in communal activities. They have faith in sharing resources, knowledge, and communal work, and they demonstrate a strong resolve to help one other, and especially the economically disadvantaged within their community. The United Republic of Tanzania, for example, has incorporated the spirit of *ujamaa* (brotherhood) and self-reliance in the provision of adult education (Farrant, 2004). Unity is paramount in the management of an organisation: even though each worker, facilitator or learner performs his or her tasks independently, their common goal is the achievement of

the organisation's mission and vision. Unity of purpose thus precedes prosperity in an adult education organisation.

Respect

African people respect their elders and their leaders. Respect is shown in a number of ways. Onajole (2003), for example, notes that it is a common African custom for men to bow and for women to kneel when greeting an elder or a leader. In Uganda, women adopt a kneeling position upon meeting men, elders and leaders, while the Maasai elders in Kenya greet children by touching their heads. African people do not call elders by their first names and children refer to the age mates of their parents as 'mother' or 'father' regardless of whether they are related or not.

In an organisational setting, workers, facilitators and learners are expected to respect the manager irrespective of their or his or her religion, tribe or clan. They should understand that the manager has certain privileges that they themselves do not have. This need not act as a discouraging factor, but instead it should act as a positive reinforcement for individuals to work extra hard to earn promotion. In the previous case study, for example, it was found that workers, facilitators and learners accepted the hierarchical authority and accompanying dependency by *Tswana* managers. The managers were found to judge their own performance according to the reaction of their bosses.

Leadership

We noted earlier that the highly centralised power structures that exist in African societies are a means of combating the uncertainty and fragility of everyday life. Within organisations, therefore, managers perform a controlling and stabilising role and are not overly concerned with issues such as individual or organisational performance. This conservatism explains the general distrust of and resistance to change that dominates managerial thought and practice. The fact that extended family and kin networks are also prominent features of African social and organisational life represents another way in which the manager of an African organisation can be distinguished from his or her counterparts elsewhere.

The management principles of an African adult education organisation must be grounded in the communalist nature of African society, and the primary concerns of the African people for the preservation of scarce resources and the attainment of basic security. The manager should be an integrated and mature individual who is conversant with African values concerning good leadership. These values include integrity, moral uprightness, truthfulness, dignity, and respect for life. In the case study above, the authors (Jones, Blunt and Sharma) found that leaders in Botswana were kind, supportive and provided clear directions; virtues that should be emulated by a manager of an adult education organisation.

Corporate existence

Mbiti (1975: 108) comments that 'The individual in his/her own capacity acts and makes personal decisions while considering the general aspirations, expectations, traditional values and customs of the community to which he/she belongs because he/she exists corporately and not alone'. Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga (2005: 11), in their consideration of the *ubuntu* spirit permeating African life, noted that '*omundu nomundu wa bandu*', which in English means that 'a person is for the people'. (The spirit of *ubuntu* is explained more fully in Chapter 6.)

The African concept of corporate existence can be interpreted to refer to, for example, children of the same parents, children from a polygamous family, a social group, a peer group, a circumcision group, people from the same area, or people with the same interests.

In an organisational setting, the implementation of the corporate existence value requires that the manager uses group approaches and negotiations; where workers, facilitators and learners define their identity, regulate their daily behaviour, and encourage non-competitive networking. This point is emphasised by Oxenham *et al.,* (2002: 37) who note that 'chances of success are also heightened by working with established groups of people who share a common purpose, rather than with individual applicants'. The same commentators also observe that 'programmes that are well negotiated with their prospective learners in association with local authorities and leaders are likely to be more effective than programmes that are simply put on offer" (ibid.).

These observations were made after a review of the approaches and experiences of the Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA) Functional Adult Learning programme in Uganda, *Appui associatif et cooperative aux Initiatives de Developpment a la Base* (ACOPAM) in Senegal, the Women's Economic Empowerment and Literacy programme (WEEL) in Nepal, and the Women's Empowerment Programme of Nepal (WEP/N). The value of corporate existence is therefore very important in the management of an adult education organisation because it requires a manager to work with groups of people that share a common objective. In circumstances where such groups do not exist, the manager needs to identify common purposes and form new purpose-driven groups for effective delivery of adult education services.

The Riviersonderend Community Learning Centre's Family Literacy Centre in the Western Cape, South Africa is a good example of how the African value of corporate existence can be incorporated in an adult education setting. The Centre's stakeholders (learners, educators, administrators and managers) established that there was a need to concentrate on providing education in a family environment. They believed that this would help to close the big gap that existed in terms of education between parents and children. In 2005, the Centre started to work with foster parents and to help them with problems concerning the well-being of their respective families, with a particular focus on social, cultural, welfare and economic issues.

Sincerity

African culture attaches great significance to the human trait of sincerity and Africans therefore act with commitment and honesty when pursuing their cause (Ekwunife, 1997). Of course, this essentially noble characteristic can be exploited by others in certain situations. The colonisation of the African continent was clearly made easier by the fact that many Africans communities welcomed these 'visitors' with open arms and believed that what they heard the missionaries preach was quite literally 'the truth', without suspecting that this new religion could be in any way connected to the imminent loss of their land, freedom and resources.

African people cherish an individual who is truthful and has great personal integrity; someone who stands by their word no matter what pressures or temptations they endure. These are the qualities of a good manager. As well as being truthful and honest himself or herself, a manager should also encourage workers, facilitators and learners to be sincere and truthful at all times without fear of being expelled,

demoted, sacked or disciplined. By being sincere and by motivating others to be sincere, a manager benefits workers, facilitators and learners and enhances the profile of his or her organisation.

Justice

Justice, like sincerity, is greatly valued and cherished by African people. To the *Igbo* of Nigeria, for example, justice implies being truthful, letting everyone have what they are entitled to, and maintaining good and fair relationships (Ekwunife, 1997). The manager must uphold fairness at all times while managing an organisation. Peace and respect cannot thrive where justice is absent.

Morality and integrity

African people uphold moral principles and philosophies in all circumstances and situations and therefore they know what is right and what is wrong. This morality underpins the customs, beliefs and taboos practised by communities. Proverbs, riddles and myths that offer moral insight and guidance exist in all African communities and the knowledge they provide is passed from one generation to the next (see, for example, Charlotte and Leslau, 1985). A manager should live an upright life (that is, a morally correct life) so as to earn the confidence and cooperation of his or her workers, facilitators and learners.

Sacredness

Africa possesses a wealth of indigenous religions that believe in and revere the existence of a supreme power and the sacredness of human life. Long before the missionaries arrived with the gospel of Christ, Africans worshipped a superior force who, like the Christian God, was opposed to humans acting immorally. An African is sacred from the perspective of his or her relationships within the environment, while the family is sacred because it reflects wholeness in unity of being (Ekwunife, 1997). Sacredness in Africa is associated with power and values such as patience, honesty, gentleness, endurance, sincerity, justice and perseverance. When a person breaks a taboo, a ritual cleansing is usually done through confession of guilt by the culprit followed by sacrifices. Sacredness is internalised through worship, oath-taking, sacrifices, initiation ceremonies, festivals, and covenants.

In the environment of an adult education organisation, sacredness of human beings needs to be internalised by the manager. A manager should respect workers, facilitators and learners, value them and their religious convictions, provide for their needs and rights – including the right to worship – and contribute towards their attendance at important social rituals and ceremonies, for example, weddings and funerals. The manager needs to be aware of the religious traditions of the workers, facilitators and learners so that he or she can structure the teaching and learning programme in such a way that tension or friction between the different religious groups is avoided.

ACTIVITY

Read the passage on page 64, which is an adaptation of an article by Kooijaman (1980), and then answer the questions that follow.

There may be some words and terms that are new to you, such as hierarchical order, traditional social structure, conservatisms, social mobility, and anti-development. Look these words up in a dictionary or ask your facilitator to explain them to you.

Life in Bokaa village in Botswana
In this rural village in Botswana, after colonisation, the hierarchical order of traditional social structure based on distinct rank, age and sex of the head was superseded by a new and foreign culture. The community's old values and beliefs began to disappear. Conflict arose when one group of conservatisms, that is, the older generation and its followers who wanted to uphold the past, was accused by another group – those who advocated acceptance of the new culture – of being autocratic, exploitative and corrupt.
The conservatisms preserved ancient laws that were passed from generation to generation, and the elders educated the young. Sex and age determined what rights and duties a person held. Women, for example, were engaged in crop growing and domestic activities, while men acted as guardians of the village and tended the cattle. Unmarried adults were not allowed to participate in civic affairs and had to obey orders given by the elders. The rules were rigid, which served to maintain security and certainty. The maintenance of traditional law and order brought peace and stability to the community and ensured that as a person aged they received greater reward. Those who wanted the village to embrace the modern way of life argued that their traditional codes of behaviour and rules stifled initiative, restricted social mobility and were anti-development.

In small groups, discuss the following questions:

- **Do you think that the preservation of a traditional way of life is more important in a rural setting like the one above than it is in an urban environment?**
- **The case study refers to a number of traditional practices. Are there any practices that you wish to challenge, and if so, why?**
- **How important are the opinions of young people in the settlement of disputes or disagreements?**
- **How can the manager of an adult education facility deal with the type of dispute raised in the case study?**

ISSUES FOR MANAGEMENT

Adult education organisations in Africa are finding themselves competing for societal resources and in doing so are becoming competitors. They no longer operate in a protected environment in which little is expected in exchange for the support they are given by donors and government. Today, the organisations are expected to demonstrate their effect on society (Light, 2000), and good intentions are no longer enough. In fact, numerous scandals involving some major adult education organisations have eroded the public's trust and confidence in them. A good example is the African Association for Literacy and Adult Education (AALAE). In 1995, the AALAE was in a financial crisis following persistent reports of mismanagement at the secretariat. An international firm of auditors, commissioned by donors, carried out an investigative audit in 1996. The audit report revealed serious acts of corruption and mismanagement by the secretariat. This forced donors to pull out and the secretariat was subsequently closed (Ekundayo, 1998). In this case, the closure could have been avoided if the board and the management had acted with utmost professionalism in directing and controlling the secretariat activities, and had treated stakeholders and workers with respect and involved them in decision-making.

When managing an adult education organisation, it is important to remember that it is a service that is people-oriented and that its existence depends on the goodwill and generosity of stakeholders. The managerial skills required therefore include networking, sharing information, alliance building, managing volunteers, and creating a participatory environment (Waiguchu, 1999).

The central thesis for the manager is to recognise that workers, facilitators and learners should be valued for who and what they are. Their interests in the organisation should be taken into account when developing the management approach to be used in the organisation. To ensure that a suitable management approach is developed, the following managerial issues need to be addressed:

- *Relevancy to the local situation*: incorporate in the whole management process the culture, traditions, politics and economic aspects of the African people (Youngman and Singh, 2005).
- *Embrace decentralisation of decision-making*: workers, facilitators, learners, and other stakeholders are to be involved in making decisions at all levels. An adult education organisation is an outreach institution that takes educational services to the people where they live (Bhola, 1989). A consultative decision-making process boosts morale, improves service delivery, and provides the flexibility needed to survive and prosper in the fast-changing environment in which adult education organisations operate.
- *Good coordination of the organisation's activities to inject quality, avoid duplication, and minimise wastage and overlaps in resource utilisation* (see, for example, Republic of Kenya, 2003).
- *Cooperate and network with other organisations to avoid duplication of efforts*. Cooperation can take place in areas such as development of programmes and study materials, and sharing of relevant materials. Close cooperation with regulatory bodies, government ministries and other agencies is also essential.
- *Proper planning of organisational activities by the manager*.
- *Recruitment, transfer, promotion and, if necessary, demotion to be performed fairly and objectively*. Clear, consistent rules regarding management-employee relations (for example, details of the organisation's disciplinary procedures, promotion criteria, and recruitment policy) need to be made available to all members. Recruitment and promotion should be based on an objective assessment of an individual's skills, experience, qualifications (if appropriate) and attitude and not on the basis of personal preference or prejudice.
- *Workers', facilitators' and learners' basic needs should be met promptly in order to improve their morale*. In this case, the manager should make sure that the honorariums (for volunteers) and salaries (for employees) are paid on time.
- *Gender issues need to be addressed by the manager*. Many African women are economically impoverished, physically assaulted and/or raped, excluded from decision-making processes, and the most severely affected by HIV/AIDS (in this respect their plight is made worse by the fact that they are also expected to take care of HIV/AIDS orphans, which is an incredibly stressful, exhausting duty). The manager must ensure that his or her organisation respects and promotes the rights of women and their desire for equal treatment wherever they work, live, study and socialise.
- *Undertaking continuous supervision of the workers, facilitators and learners to make sure that they take their work seriously so as to minimise absenteeism*.

ACTIVITY

In small groups, discuss the following questions:

- **Are there any disadvantages to the adoption of a decentralised decision-making process in the context of an adult**

education environment? If so, what are they and how could they be addressed?

- **Workers, facilitators and learners may resent being supervised, especially if the methods used are insensitive and/or intrusive. What methods, approaches or techniques would you use to ensure that supervision is conducted with sensitivity and respect?**

MOTIVATION

This section deals with the motivation of workers, facilitators and learners in an adult education organisation. The issues covered are explained in relation to the management approaches and the African values discussed in the previous section.

Importance of motivation

Workers, facilitators and learners are an organisation's most valuable assets. In order for an organisation to be effective and efficient, committed and capable people should be encouraged to join as workers, facilitators and learners, while good performers need to be retained through proper motivation. Successful implementation of the organisation's activities depends largely on the availability of knowledgeable, skilful, sensitive and socially committed workers, facilitators and learners (Youngman and Singh, 2005). For an organisation to attract and/or retain individuals who possess these qualities, it needs to motivate them.

Individuals are motivated to work hard if they understand the purpose of their work, see value in it, and can perform it successfully. The manager's role here is to reassure the workers, facilitators and learners that what they do is vital to the achievement of the vision and mission of the organisation, and to their job satisfaction. Positive reinforcement and feedback is therefore critical, an issue that we will consider in more detail later in the section.

A person is motivated by internal drives, which are the needs and beliefs that he or she wishes to satisfy. Motivation lies at the heart of a person's achievement and is based on many characteristics, including: not being forced to work, deriving a sense of pleasure, offering free labour, and offering more labour when they have time. They are also motivated when they are given an opportunity to apply new skills, gain new knowledge, and receive support from their manager.

A study in Sudan found that motivation strongly influenced the nature of the project performance (Leach, 1995). Two sets of people were involved on the project: a group of poorly motivated local workers and a group of highly motivated expatriates. As a result of this imbalance, project performance suffered. This prompted the expatriates to step in and take over some of the administrative and operational duties in order to get the project back on track (Leach, ibid.). It is understandable that the expatriates wanted to help out, but a better solution would have been for them to discuss the reasons for low morale with the local workers.

Methods of motivating people in an organisation

This section looks at the various methods a manager can use to motivate workers, facilitators and learners. To achieve motivation, the manager needs to ensure that there is a coordinated set of inducements and reinforcements available. The choice of inducement(s) and/or reinforcement(s) will depend, among other things, on the issues and personnel involved.

Remuneration

Poverty levels in Africa are extremely high, while per capita incomes are extremely low. Addressing these problems is a matter of international concern yet no solutions are imminent. Given the scale of the 'poverty problem', what can the manager of an adult education organisation do to help?

At the very least, he or she must offer adequate wages and salaries to employees. Yet even this is not as straightforward as it may appear because salary and wage levels are usually determined at a higher organisational level, or at an industry level, or even at a national level. However, a manager still has the responsibility of making every effort to address this issue. In a study by Leach (1995), the absence of realistic salary levels was found to be a major barrier to a high level of local participation in projects. Poorly paid employees are often forced to seek other work in order to supplement their meagre earnings, as Leach discovered in a study of the working conditions of public servants in Sudan (1995).

The manager of an adult education organisation should also ensure that his or her employees are paid on time. This is a critical issue for many households in Africa, where the wage or salary of a husband, wife, daughter or son may represent a family's only source of income. In these circumstances, late payment of the wage or salary can cause severe hardship to the immediate family and to members of the extended family whom the breadwinner provides for. In addition, low per capita households are unlikely to be awarded short-term loans or overdrafts as a solution to this problem; and if they are, the attached interest charges represent a huge disincentive.

Rewards and incentives

Rewards and incentives stimulate an individual to perform the task(s) assigned to him or her effectively. It is therefore important for the manager to provide workers, facilitators and learners with rewards and compensation that can satisfy their needs (Ndongko, 1999). And, because people are motivated differently, the manager needs to study each worker, facilitator and learner in order to determine what he or she values most as a reward before using it as a motivator. Money is, of course, a powerful motivator, but it is not the only one. Praise for work well done, publicly given, is for many people an extremely satisfying reward. A manager might also introduce performance-related pay schemes, where improved performance results in increased pay. Again, the manager's ability to initiate such a scheme depends on the organisation's income and/or budget provisions, but the concept nevertheless remains a sound one.

CASE STUDY: ADULT LEARNING WEEK – WESTERN CAPE LEARNER OF THE YEAR AWARD

Read the article below and then answer the questions that follow. You may come across several words that are new to you, such as matric, inspiration, perseverance, determination, and memory. Look these words up in a dictionary or ask your facilitator to explain them to you.

Charmaine Martin is a 53-year-old housewife from Paarl who recently received the Western Cape Learner of the Year Award. Her achievement is extraordinary considering her background and the life she has led. Charmaine had reached Grade 10

when she had to leave school to look after her sick father. It would be 35 years before she would be able to resume her studies. During that time she raised a family, ran the household, and suffered the loss of three brothers. But Charmaine was determined to finish her schooling and so she enrolled at the Wellington Community Learning Centre. At Wellington she proved to be an excellent student, gaining high grades in all her subjects. She also had a 90 per cent attendance record. Charmaine achieved her goal of completing her matric. It had taken her 37 years.

Nelson Mandela is her hero and her matric examination number is as important to her as the number 46664 is to Nelson Mandela. Like Mandela, Charmaine is an inspirational figure.

ACTIVITY

- How do you think Charmaine's life experiences may have helped her at Wellington College?
- In what ways can Charmaine's achievement inspire others?
- Will gaining her matric help Charmaine secure employment if that is what she wants?

Meeting the needs of workers, facilitators and learners

The work of Abraham Maslow (1908–1970) is often cited in a discussion on the nature of human needs and how these needs are satisfied. Maslow identified several categories of human needs. He suggested that these needs were hierarchical in nature and that a person had to satisfy these needs one level at a time, starting at the bottom of the hierarchy with basic needs and then moving upwards to satisfy needs of increasing levels of importance. The levels of needs Maslow identified were as follows (starting at the bottom of the hierarchy): (i) physiological needs, that is, the basic needs that sustain life – food, water, sleep, sex, shelter, health and warmth; (ii) safety needs, which create a stable environment that is free from danger, threat, and fear of losing employment or property; (iii) affiliation or love or acceptance needs, which are to do with affection, a sense of belonging, and status; (iv) esteem needs, which include the need for self-respect, self-esteem and the esteem of others, and which lead to power, prestige, status, and self-confidence; and (v) self-actualisation needs, which include the maximisation of personal potential, self-fulfilment and accomplishment of life dreams (see Gboku and Lekoko, 2007 for further discussion on this issue).

Once these needs are satisfied, a worker, facilitator or learner will demonstrate a sense of attachment and belonging to the organisation. They will maintain discipline, high morale, high productivity, punctuality, and commitment to duty. On the other hand, if the basic needs are not satisfied, this may lead to indiscipline, high turnover, hostility, absenteeism, boycotts, go-slows, lower levels of commitment, and reduced output. Income-generation activities and incentives in Ghana, for example, acted as motivators for learners, facilitators, and the community as a whole (Adu-Gyamfi *et al.*, 1996).

Expectancy theory posits that people act only if they expect that their actions will result in a desired outcome. The theory also acknowledges the fact that an individual's needs and motivations are usually different to those of the organisation. The manager's task, therefore, is to try and harmonise the two sets of needs (organisational and individual) so that a person feels that he or she is working with, and not against, the organisation. Additional training, supervision, guidance, counselling, and participation in decision-making, are used for motivation purposes.

A study done in Sudan found that the local workers on donor-funded projects were preoccupied with meeting basic needs, while the expatriates were motivated by self-actualisation needs. This led to tension because the locals 'showed little interest to work beyond a certain level in their official job, while the expatriates had considerable incentive in meeting the project objectives within a specified time limit . . . and were impatient at their counterparts supposedly poor performance' (Leach, 1995: 473). We can acknowledge that from the expatriates' point of view, the local workers attitude must have been frustrating, especially if their reluctance to work harder meant delays or disruptions to the project. But we must also acknowledge that, unlike the expatriates, the local workers were not operating at a level which would allow them to see, or to value, the importance of satisfying project needs. Their primary concern was with meeting their basic personal needs, which would demand a radically different management approach to that used with the expatriates.

Participation in the decision-making process

A manager should encourage participation in decision-making by workers, facilitators, and learners. This calls for a participative motivational style based on lifelong employment prospects, shared forms of decision making, and mutual respect for each other. Change and new ideas should come from workers, facilitators, and learners, which are then discussed by the management for adoption by consensus. The workers, facilitators, and learners will have a feeling of belonging and will therefore be confident and loyal to the management. A study by Ndongko (1990) on the Cameroon public service found that managers who were democratic encouraged workers to be high performers and achieved better results than authoritarian managers.

Circumstance or situation

We have already considered how an individual's desires and drives are based on his or her psychological needs, and that these needs can take many different forms and are not the same for everybody. However, we can also note that a person's needs are also dependent upon the circumstances or the situation in which he or she works. In other words, a person is affected by his or her environmental conditions and that these conditions will impact upon his or her needs as well his or her ability to perform satisfactorily. The implication of this for the manager is that he or she must try to make these working conditions as favourable as possible for the workers, facilitators and learners. If possible, the manager should delegate responsibility for the use of resources and control of equipment to the other stakeholders in the organisation; he or she should also encourage and facilitate information acquisition and exchange and provide every opportunity for feedback to be given and received. In doing all this, the manager ensures that the working, teaching and learning environment is as pleasant as it is possible to be and creates an atmosphere of positivism and purpose.

It is important to remember that individuals seek and accept responsibility only if the working conditions are favourable. Motivation depends on the manager providing them with the resources and equipment they need to perform the tasks they have been assigned (Ndongko, 1999). As an example of what can go wrong when a manager does not take the circumstances and/or situation into account, we can look at what happened to one of the projects of the Lesotho Association of Non-Formal Education (LANFE).

In this project, LANFE members were trained in income-generation skills and then loaned initial funds to start up their business. The members began operating traditional income-generation activities but could not find markets for their manufactured goods and agricultural products. It was soon discovered that the low per capita income of the local community meant that the potential customers the members had identified simply could not afford the goods and products offered. The businesses were never established beyond subsistence level and the members were unable to pay back the loans. When it came to looking into the reasons for the project's failure, one factor stood out: the income-generating course had failed to address the crucial issue of marketing. Without knowledge of marketing strategies, target markets, customer profiling, etc., the LANFE members' businesses were bound to fail (Banks and Morphet, 2003).

Responsibility and autonomy

Workers, facilitators, and learners should be allowed to exercise self-control and self-direction while performing their duties, so as to experience a feeling of accomplishment. They need to be encouraged to use their imagination, ingenuity and creativity when responding to challenges arising in the organisation. They should learn new challenging tasks and get feedback and reward. Duties should be based on proper job descriptions. The manager should look out for signs of demotivation such as absenteeism, sickness, low morale, and high turnover, and put in place corrective measures.

Professionalisation, promotion and progression

People work and study in order to better themselves and will use every opportunity they can to go further and rise higher in their chosen career. The motivators, as Ndongko (1999) notes, are achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and progression. The manager of an organisation should provide the means an individual needs to achieve his or her ambitions; 'means' in this context would include further training opportunities, structured career paths, personal performance reviews, genuine promotion opportunities, and so on. Lack of opportunities for promotion or further training, and lack of professional support, make individuals feel neglected and unappreciated (Leach, 1995), leading to low morale.

The African statement on the power of youth and adult learning and education for Africa's development, made in Nairobi during the CONFINTEA VI preparatory conference on personnel and their professional development, supports the above observation. The statement reads:

> *There is a crisis at the bottom of the field at the level of the literacy, non-formal and adult education facilitators and another (less obvious but of particular long term importance) at the top, at the higher education institutions which are meant to nurture the new leaders and specialists and practitioners of adult education. The calls for the professionalisation of adult education practice have been inadequately dealt with. Many adult education practitioner qualifications and training are not recognised, there is a need for better conditions of service, and for the strengthening of the tertiary institutions, both nationally and regionally, that educate and train practitioners, managers and policy developers in adult education (CONFINTEA VI preparatory conference, 2008).*

Adult education qualifications need to be of comparable status to those of conventional educators and trainers. There should

be training and research institutional capacity-building through the creation of higher and other tertiary education institutes and departments for the development of educators and trainers. The creation and reinforcement of adult learning and education research centres is also critical.

Organisation policy

The manager should explain clearly to the workers, facilitators and learners, the organisation's policy and administrative procedures. The purpose here is to enhance morale within the organisation through proper organisation policy, administration, and supervision, and to create conducive working conditions. Some organisations have human resource policies that have guidelines on terms of employment (part time and full time), affirmative action, recruitment policy, appointment procedures, trial periods, hours of work, leave, confidentiality agreements, workers' compensation, meal allowances, private work, salary advances, employment equity, terminal illness and HIV/AIDS, performance management, termination of service, exit interviews, and disciplinary and grievance procedures.

The Adult Learning Network (ALN) in South Africa is an adult education organisation that has a human resource policy. The policy was developed through a consultative process to set guidelines for human resource management in the ALN health care project. The policy, which is reviewed and updated annually, aims at fostering a spirit of collectiveness and shared responsibility amongst its leadership and staff. Thus ALN through its policy, 'encourages people to work collaboratively by striving to create a stimulating, supportive and conducive work environment and model sound organisational and developmental practices in the adult learning field' (ALN, 2008: 1).

Clear and regular feedback on performance

An individual's motivation is enhanced through an efficient feedback mechanism on performance. People need to access clear and regular feedback; hence they should undergo internal and external performance evaluation. The evaluation report should indicate any corrective measures to be undertaken. But for evaluation to be done, there must be a set of realistic, achievable targets, benchmarks and measurable indicators related to task performance.

According to CONFINTEA VI preparatory conference (2008), there is a scarcity of concrete strategies to improve participation and promote inclusion among diverse groups of youth and adult learners and to set realistic achievable targets, benchmarks and measurable indicators related to resources, enrolments, contract hours, assessment and certification.

Social comparison

Employees assess fair treatment based on outcomes they receive and the contributions they make to the organisation (Okumbe, 1999). Salaries or wages, for example, should be equal to those of employees in other organisations who have similar qualifications and perform similar tasks. If employees feel that they are not fairly remunerated, they become dissatisfied and unmotivated. The social comparison processes among workers, facilitators and learners must be understood by the manager. This includes comparisons among workers themselves; among facilitators themselves; among learners themselves; among workers in the organisation and those of other organisations; and among volunteers in the organisation and those of other organisations. If equity prevails in the

organisation, turnover will be reduced and performance will be enhanced.

Setting goals

People are motivated through setting goals, supplementing the long-term objectives with short-term goals and specific activities to be carried out. Goal-setting theory contends that an individual's values, emotions, and desires influence thoughts and behaviour that are used to achieve the outcome. In this case, goals are made public and individuals who attain them are rewarded appropriately. The manager should be committed to the goals, which should be challenging and yet attainable, specific, quantifiable, and measurable. These goals are set through involvement of workers, facilitators and learners and other stakeholders for ownership. Instruments should be provided for goal achievement, such as support services and resources, and timely feedback on goal performance that lets a person know what progress he or she is making and whether any corrective action is needed. If the manager does not address the issue of goal-setting, there is the risk that some participants may sit back, relax and not progress. A study by Ankomah (1985) found that most people in Africa are not inspired to work, because they lack a desire to accomplish something. They are motivated more by the material things that they can gain from work.

Respect and dignity

In African culture, human beings are valued for who and what they are and treated with respect and dignity. They are not regarded as a resource but as individuals with unique skills, abilities, opinions, beliefs and value to offer. The management approach should therefore be people-centred and emphasize self-direction. Individuals cannot be motivated by a management approach that regards them as lazy, pessimistic, static and rigid. The manager should treat individuals with the knowledge that they like working and need not be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment so as to perform.

Giving help

Workers, facilitators and learners' basic needs must be met, which means that they should be provided with essential medical services, clean water, and adequate food and clothing (Kanungo, 1994). The manager should also provide emotional support to individuals who experience loss, illness, relationship problems, and so on. Most African families experience hardship of one kind or another, and in many instances, the suffering they endure is intensely painful, for example, when a mother loses a child to TB, or a young person becomes addicted to drugs. A manager may feel helpless when confronted by a grieving learner, worker or facilitator, but his or her caring, compassionate and supportive approach in such circumstances will not go unnoticed or unappreciated.

Carrot and stick

Carrot and stick have been used as motivators in formal management approaches (Farrant, 2004). The stick refers to punishment while the carrot refers to reward, which may be in the form of increased pay or a bonus. There is little that can be said in favour of this approach and we would definitely not recommend that you use it in an adult education organisation. It is, at the very least, a crude method of motivating people and works on the assumption that people can be scared into acting 'properly'. In other words, if a person does not do as he or she is directed, she or he will incur

punishment of one sort or another – dismissal, demotion, loss of income, and so on. Conversely, if a person does do as he or she is directed then a reward will be forthcoming. In practice, however, the carrot-and-stick approach to motivation is far more likely to make a person defensive, or prompt him or her to engage in retaliatory behaviour such as doing poor quality work, becoming indifferent, refusing to take risks in decision-making, acting dishonestly, or initiating industrial and/or legal action.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, approaches to management have been explored in the context of an African setting. The focus has been on the possible integration of African values in the management of an adult education organisation, and we have used examples and case studies to illustrate some of the points made. The diversity of the adult teaching and learning environment in Africa suggests the need for a management approach that permits flexibility, encourages consensus-building, seeks participation of others at every opportunity, shares knowledge and resources, and embraces the personal development of workers, facilitators and learners. The chapter also focused on the ways of motivating workers, facilitators and learners, and advocated the adoption of methods that empowered and challenged them to maximise their efforts. Motivation can be improved by implementing a management approach that offers professional support, encourages participative decision-making, and recognises and rewards individual effort and achievement.

KEY POINTS

- Incorporating African values in the management of an adult education facility injects relevance, appropriateness, acceptability and quality into the management process.
- A manager needs to be sensitive, responsive, and alert to the needs of workers, facilitators and learners.
- The expertise of a manager should be adapted to the realities of his or her organisation and the circumstances or setting in which the organisation operates.
- An effective manager uses his or her vision and judgment to explore new ideas, create solutions to problems, and challenge employees to achieve even higher performance.
- Employees should be consulted on actions affecting them so as to boost their performance.
- Management, like leadership, is a process and requires the participation of all organisational stakeholders if it is to be successful.

ACTIVITY

Discuss the opportunities that are available in an adult education organisation for the use of rewards to motivate workers, facilitators, volunteers and learners. Which of these would you seek to encourage and which would you discourage?

FURTHER QUESTIONS

1. Explain the importance of incorporating African values in the management of an adult education organisation with which you are familiar.
2. Explain the humanistic approach to management and discuss its suitability

to the management of adult education organisations in Africa.

3 Describe two methods of motivation that you are familiar with and outline the methods' strengths and weaknesses.

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Chapter 4

Human resource development

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Explain the meaning of human resource development.
2. Explain why you think people represent the most valuable asset of an organisation.
3. Discuss the main functions of human resource development and human resource management.
4. Distinguish between human resource management and human resource development.
5. Differentiate between training and education and describe the various types of training available for workers, facilitators and learners.

KEY TERMS

career development An ongoing process by which individuals progress through a series of stages, each of which is characterised by a relatively unique set of issues, themes and tasks.

career management This includes an individual's continual evaluation of his or her career progression, investigation of employment opportunities, as well as all the strategies, techniques and methods that can be used to attain his or her career goals.

career planning Activities performed by an individual in collaboration with specialised career counsellors to assess his or her skills and abilities with the aim of establishing realistic career goals.

education Prepares people for relatively undifferentiated roles, positions and work settings and is mainly future-oriented.

human capital The idea that individuals are motivated to spend on themselves in diverse ways by purchasing education and training as a form of investment.

human resource development The process of developing individuals through training and development, career development, and organisational development.

human resource management The effective selection and utilisation of employees to best achieve the goals and strategies of the organisation, as well as the goals and needs of the people working in the organisation.

training Activities, events, and experiences in which people engage to improve their performance in specific job-related tasks.

BEFORE YOU START

Discuss the reasons why after someone gets a job he or she might seek further education and training.

OVERVIEW

This chapter focuses on the most valuable resource that adult education organisations possess – human resources. In Chapters 2 and 3 we looked at the ways in which leaders and managers can inspire and motivate workers, and facilitate the learning processes towards achieving organisational goals. We talked about the importance of leaders and managers using a people-oriented, participative approach in their interactions with other people, and being sensitive to and supporting the needs of workers, facilitators and learners. In this chapter we will build on the themes raised in Chapters 2 and 3 and look at the ways in which human resource development can help managers and leaders provide a meaningful, progressive, and dynamic teaching and learning experience for everyone concerned.

We will therefore spend time investigating the meaning of human resource development, human resource management, training and education. The various types of training and professional development programmes available to managers of adult education organisations will be dis-

cussed. We will also look at career planning programmes and career management programmes that seek to enhance employees' career paths by investing in information and communication technology (ICT) courses and programmes. Human resource development is also about equipping adult learners with the skills, abilities and knowledge that they will need in order to look for and secure employment, which are issues we will explore later in the chapter.

The central argument of this chapter is that an investment in human capital is critical to the development of Africa. Empowered, skilled, knowledgeable individuals can achieve extraordinary things and the role of the manager of an adult education organisation is to foster the development of as many of these individuals as he or she possibly can. There is a Swahili proverb that perfectly captures the message of this chapter (and perhaps this book), which is: '*Akili ni mali*', which in English means 'Intelligence is wealth'.

THE MEANING OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Managers of adult education organisations in Africa and the rest of the world need a clear understanding of the emerging field of study known as human resource development (HRD). In this chapter, we will consider HRD as a general field of study and, more specifically, in terms of how it relates to adult education in Africa.

Human resource development as a general field of study is a process that aims at developing individuals through training and development, career development, and organisational development (McLagan and Suhadolink, 1989). We should also note that HRD is culturally influenced and that its scope of activities, intended audience(s), and beneficiaries display international variations (McLean, Bartlett and Cho, 2003). There are numerous definitions of HRD but we have chosen the following four as being most applicable to HRD in Africa. Human resource development can therefore be described as:

- 'the process of facilitating organisational learning, performance, and change through organised interventions and initiatives and management actions for enhancing an organisation's performance capacity, capability, competitive readiness, and renewal' (Gilley and Maycunich 2000: 6).
- 'a process of developing and unleashing expertise for the purpose of improving individual, team, work process and organisational system performance' (Swanson and Holton 2009: 4).
- 'any process or activity that, either initially or over the long term, has the potential to develop adult's work-based knowledge, expertise, productivity and satisfaction, whether for personal or group, team gain, or for the benefit of an organisation, community, nation, or ultimately, the whole of humanity' (McLean and McLean (2001: 10).
- 'a set of systematic and planned activities designed by an organisation to provide its members with the opportunities to learn necessary skills to meet current and future job demands' (Werner and DeSimone, 2006: 5).

At the core of all HRD efforts is learning and performance. The only way individuals and their organisations can manage change and improve their performance is through learning. Learning in this case refers to changes in behaviour or performance as a result of an HRD intervention such as training.

In the context of adult education in Africa, the focus of HRD is on how adult learners can enhance their employment opportunities through learning and training in an adult education facility. Unemployment is a major problem in many countries of the world, including those in Africa. The purpose of HRD is to address the reality of this situation and to find ways in which adult learners can improve their chances of gaining work. In particular, HRD confronts issues such as:

- Uncertain employment and career prospects
- Low pay or no pay
- Job-related stresses
- Informational organisational structures for adult learners
- Underemployment and disguised employment.

All of the above issues demand attention. To illustrate just how severe the challenges are that confront adult learners, the plight of literacy facilitators of adult learning classes in Mozambique provides a good, and depressingly familiar, example. There are 40 000 literacy facilitators in Mozambique – sufficient, in other words, to represent a significantly large employment sector – and yet they earn only $22 per month. There are many questions that this classic case of underemployment raises; two of the most urgent being: 'How can $22 a month provide for a family's needs?' and, 'While they work, are the facilitators to be considered as employees or volunteers?' (Diagne, *et al.*, 2006).

Human resource development as a field of study

Human resource development as a field of study originated in the United States of America. Werner and DeSimone (2006) note that although the term 'human resource development' has only been in common use since the 1980s, it has existed in the United States in one form or another since the early nineteenth century. If we were to mark the historical progress of HRD on a timeline that showed the introduction of new features or aspects of HRD, it would read as follows: vocational schools (1809), early factory schools (1872), apprenticeship training programmes (1902), vocational education programmes (1917), training programmes for semiskilled and unskilled workers (introduced by Henry Ford) (1913), human relations movement (1938), training profession (1942), and the emergence of human resource development (1980s).

Prior to colonisation, African indigenous education was vocational and holistic and its purpose was to help the individual fit into society (Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga, 2005). During the colonial era, however, the education of Africans was restricted to vocational and technical subjects while a purely academic type of education was reserved for whites and Asians. The colonisers' rationale for adopting this approach was that because Africans were intellectually inferior to whites and Asians (though of course the Europeans believed that they were the intellectual and moral superiors of both blacks and Asians) their purpose was merely to serve the interests of the ruling elite, which in essence meant that blacks were seen, and used, as a source of cheap labour.

Post-colonisation efforts were made to redress the damage caused by these discriminatory policies. In the late 1950s and 1960s, for example, technical training institutes were established on a self-help basis in several African countries. In the 1970s, village youth polytechnics were introduced; in the 1980s, institutes of research, science and technology were set up in countries such as Kenya, Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Zambia,

Malawi, Uganda and Tanzania. Today, besides technical skills, these institutions also offer management and entrepreneurship programmes as a strategy to address the unemployment problem facing many youths and adults in Africa (Nafukho, 2007; Nafukho, 1998).

Returning to the development of HRD more generally, Werner and DeSimone (2006) observe that during the 1960s and 1970s, professional trainers extended their work beyond the traditional training classroom environment and started offering services such as coaching and counselling of employees. This change was caused by new developments in HRD thought; one idea being that the focus of HRD should be on the whole individual in order to make him or her productive in the workplace. Training and development competencies such as employees' skills, coaching, group process facilitation, and problem solving were emphasised. Werner and DeSimone also point out that in the 1980s, the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) began to attach great significance to training and development as a legitimate, and an important, area of study. This in turn led to the ASTD's approval of the term human resource development. And to bring matters up to the present, Gilley and Maycunich (cited in Werner and DeSimone, 2008: 8) note, 'in the 1990s and up to today, efforts were made to strengthen the strategic role of HRD – that is how HRD links to and supports the goals and objectives of the organisation'. Werner and DeSimone (2006) have also observed that HRD has more recently focused on high performance work systems.

Human resource development as a field of study is offered by departments in the colleges of education and business schools of the United States (Kuchinke, 2002), and at both an undergraduate and post-graduate level. A study by Roberts (2008) revealed 178 HRD degree programmes on offer in the United States, which included 8 Bachelor of Arts, 31 Bachelor of Science, 32 Master of Arts, 16 Master of Education, 47 Master of Science, 11 Doctor of Education, and 33 Doctor of Philosophy degree-granting programmes. Several commentators have made the point that HRD as a field of study has borrowed from various disciplines, for example, systems theory, psychological theory and, most recently, economic theory (Aliaga, 2001; Swanson, 1999).

In Africa, HRD programmes have been started mainly by faculty staff who have studied in the United States or in other high-income countries and who, on their return home, have launched programmes similar to those in their former universities but with African applications (Lutta-Mukhebi, 2004). Thus, the HRD programmes and curricula have been adapted to reflect the realities of the African countries where they are being offered. In Kenya, for example, Moi University and the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology have Institutes of Human Resource Development that offer core courses such as development studies, communication skills, and entrepreneurship education, which are taken by all undergraduates.

Entrepreneurship education is one way of helping adult learners combat the problem of high unemployment among university graduates in several African universities. Nafukho (1996) suggests that students who have taken an entrepreneurship course have learned to be creative and innovative and should seek to be employment creators and not job seekers. For specific examples of adult education programmes and how to design and successfully deliver such programmes, you are encouraged to read one of the books in the African Perspectives on Adult Learning series, namely *Developing Progammes for Adult Learners in Africa,* by Gboku and Lekoko (2007), and co-published by the

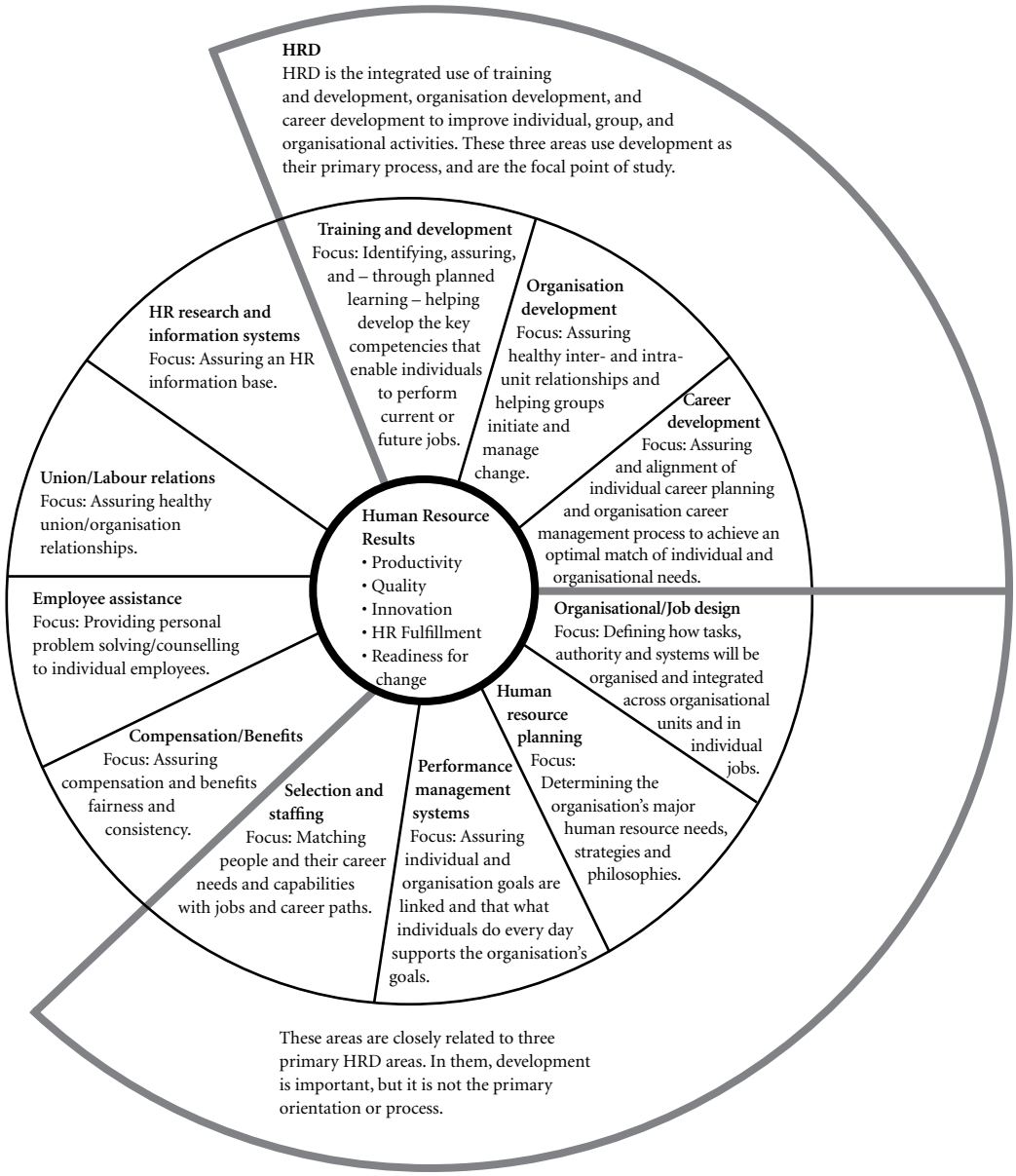

Figure 4.1.The Human Resource Wheel

Source: *McLagan, P. (1989). Models of HRD Practice. ASTD Press.*

UNESCO Institute for Education and Pearson Education South Africa.

ACTIVITY

Find out which organisations in your community offer adult education learning programmes. Arrange to interview the managers of these organisations. At the interview, try to find out as much as you can about the human resource development courses and activities offered. See if you can identify any similarities between the types and range of HRD education the different facilities provide.

Human resource management

Werner and DeSimone (2006: 9) define human resource management (HRM) as the 'effective selection and utilisation of employees to best achieve the goals and strategies of the organisation, as well as the goals and needs of employees'. Unlike HRD, which focuses on training and development, organisation development, and career development, HRM focuses on organisation job design, human resource planning, performance management systems, selection and staffing, compensation/benefits, employee assistance, union/labour relations, and human resource research and information systems (Walton, 1999). Figure 4.1 shows the human resource wheel developed by McLagan (1989). The centre of the wheel confirms that the main outcome of both HRM and HRD is increased productivity, quality of products and services offered, creativity and innovation among the people in the organisation, optimality in the utilisation of human resources that an organisation possesses, and the willingness of people in the organisation to embrace change, which in turn leads to adaptability. Figure 4.1 also shows the core functions of human resource management and human resource development departments in organisations.

Human resource development functions

In some organisations, HRD functions are performed by the HRM department; in others, HRD is an autonomous department. The three main functions of HRD are: (i) training and development, (ii) organisational development, and (iii) career development.

Training and development

The training and development function focuses on using learning to improve individual employee performance. The purpose of training is to equip employees with the key competencies needed to perform their current jobs through the acquisition of new skills, knowledge and attitudes. The development function has the same purpose except that its focus is not only on an employee's current job but also on his or her possible future jobs.

Managers of adult education organisations in Africa are in charge of designing training and development programmes that provide employee orientation training for new employees. These programmes also provide new employees with relevant information regarding organisational culture. This information may include actual work schedules, as well as documentation relating to organisational values and norms, networking systems, time management, mentoring programmes, employee performance evaluation, and teamwork and team-learning practices.

Besides orientation training, employees' skills and knowledge are kept up to date via ongoing training programmes.

Organisational development

The second function of HRD, organisational development, has been defined as 'the process of enhancing the effectiveness of an organisation and the well-being of its members through planned interventions . . .' (Beckhard, 1969, cited in Werner and DeSimone, 2006: 12). Thus, both the organisation and the individuals working within it have needs that are constantly changing. For a detailed discussion on the meaning and importance of organisational development, you are encouraged to read Chapter 5 of this book.

Career development

Career development, the third function of HRD, emphasises the fact that both the organisation and the individuals working for the organisation have career paths to follow. There are, for example, young employees and young organisations; old employees and old organisations; inexperienced employees and inexperienced organisations; experienced employees and experienced organisations, and so on. As noted by Graham and Nafukho (2004), organisations are today experiencing a metamorphosis caused by revolutionary changes in technology, diverse consumer demands, globalisation, corporate downsizing, rightsizing, restructuring, and increased competition. As a result, 'psychologists, sociologists, educators, economists, and management scholars are trying to understand how a person selects, works within, and makes decisions to change the focus of his or her working life' (DeSimone, Harris, and Werner, 2002: 452).

Career development has been defined by Greenhaus (1987, cited in Werner and DeSimone, 2006: 12) as, 'an ongoing process by which individuals progress through a series of stages, each of which is characterised by a relatively unique set of issues, themes and tasks'. Greenhaus' observation also applies to organisations, schools, training institutions and universities, since these entities, like individuals, go through growth and changes that affect them both negatively and positively. This 'ongoing process', to use Greenhaus' term, means that an individual must devote time to career planning, which consists of all the activities he or she performs in collaboration with specialised career counsellors with the aim of setting realistic career goals based on an objective assessment of his or her skills and abilities.

Career planning is an important element within the broader concept of career management. Career management includes an individual's continual evaluation of his or her career progression, investigation of employment opportunities both within and outside his or her organisation, as well as all the strategies, techniques and methods that can be used to attain his or her career goals. The manager can support the career management process by ensuring that the organisational environment is designed to help individuals pursue their chosen careers, which could include establishing clear career paths within the organisation, providing opportunities for further study and training, conducting personal performance reviews, and so on.

Human resource management functions

Though closely linked to human resource development (HRD), human resource management (HRM) has its own distinct set of priorities and therefore functions differently to HRD. We can begin by listing the following primary functions of HRM, as identified by Werner and DeSimone (2006: 10). These functions are:

- *Human resource planning*: focuses on activities that prepare individuals and organisations to manage rapid changes for current and future survival.
- *Equal employment opportunity*: addresses issues relating to employee recruitment, training, appraising, and compensation, with the aim of meeting the organisation's legal and moral responsibilities.
- *Staffing*: includes employee recruitment and selection based on merit and on whether the employees' qualifications and experience match the needs of the organisation.
- *Compensation and benefits*: managers must put in place an equitable internal remuneration structure, a competitive benefits package, and incentives to motivate employees.
- *Labour relations*: the rules, procedures and processes that govern how employers and employees interact, and which covers such issues as the resolution of disputes, negotiations on pay and working conditions, disciplinary procedures, trade union affiliation, grievance procedures, and agreed forms of industrial action.
- *Health, safety and security*: the rules, processes and procedures governing the provision and maintenance of a safe, healthy and secure work environment.
- *Human resource development*: activities that ensure employees have the skills and competencies to meet current and future job demands (the training and development, career development and organisational development we discussed earlier).

Werner and DeSimone also note that HRM has secondary functions that are similar to HRD functions, which include organisation job design, performance management and performance appraisal systems, and research and information systems. A manager must have a good understanding of both human resource management and human resource development if he or she is to extract and utilise the full range of skills, competencies and abilities of the organisation's workers, facilitators and learners for the benefit of the organisation and its stakeholders.

CASE STUDY: UWC USES ICT TO PROMOTE HUMAN RESOURCES

The University of the Western Cape (UWC) in South Africa serves adult learners as well as regular high school students. In an effort to increase the efficient use of its human resources, UWC used information and communication technology (ICT) to promote the development and utilisation of human resources. Keates and Darries (2004: 335) reported that the university initiated the following developments:

- The development of a fiber optic network system spanning the entire campus and the provision of network points in all offices and most other relevant spaces.
- Placing a networked computer in the hands of nearly all staff.
- Stabilised email, and email addresses for all staff and most students.
- Development of a number of websites, as well as website development and management capacity located in an academic department.
- The establishment of departments of Computer Science and Information Systems.
- The development of a teaching and learning technologies unit to support academic use of information and communication technology (ICT).
- The establishment and rapid growth of the South African National Bioinformatics Institute (SANBI).

- The establishment of research and development in environmental informatics, educational informatics, and Geographical Information Systems (GIS).
- The creation of an Open Source learning management system (KEWL).
- The establishment of the Centre for IP and Internet Computing.

The use of ICT by the University of the Western Cape helped to link up individuals in the university; it also meant that the decision-making process became much faster since people no longer had to rely on hard copy letters and memoranda for communication purposes. In addition, the new technology meant that service provision was standardised and professionalised, decentralised decision-making became possible, and staff had the opportunity to improve their job and career prospects as they acquired in-demand ICT skills.

MEANING OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

As noted above, one of the core functions of human resource development is training. In this section, the meaning of training and its value to organisations and individuals is further examined. Training is a form of human capital development and is often the most popular intervention for organisations experiencing performance problems. McLagan (1989: 7) defines training as 'identifying, assuring, and helping develop through planned learning, the key competencies that enable individuals to perform their current jobs'. Broad and Newstrom (1992: 5) define training as, 'instructional experiences provided primarily by employers for employees, designed to develop new skills and knowledge that are expected to be applied immediately upon (or within a short time after) arrival on or return to the job'. Nafukho and Kang'ethe (2002) observe that training involves transfer of skills, knowledge, behaviour and attitudes. Training is a form of investment in employees with expected returns for both the employee and the organisation where the employee works.

While training provides employees with new skills, knowledge, behaviour and attitudes for immediate use, education is concerned with the future development of the employee. Nadler and Nadler (1989: 4), for example, define employee education as 'learning focused on the future'. To these observations we can add those made by Hakimian and Teshome (1993: 3), who suggest that:

- Education focuses on broader objectives whereas training normally has more narrowly defined objectives.
- Education may open up career opportunities while training helps to improve current job performance.
- Education deals mostly with knowledge and understanding whereas training concentrates more on skills.

Nafukho and Kang'ethe (2002) correctly point out that training is a form of education and that the differences between education and training can be explained in terms of the purposes for which education or training is provided and/or received. For instance, some employees may go for training to acquire new competencies for successful job performance, while others may undertake training to satisfy their curiosity or to improve their level of self-awareness. Jahns (1981: 98–99) summarises the essential difference between training and education (and again it is a difference of purpose) in his comment that, 'Training includes those activities, events, and experiences in which people engage to improve

Table 4.1 Types of workplace training

Type of training	Reason for training
Pre-service training	Formal training provided to qualified trainees admitted to training institutions. For example, training given to high school leavers who enrol at teacher training colleges.
Basic skills training	Focuses on provision of entry level knowledge, skills and attitudes (also referred to as remedial training). For example, the training of primary school graduates in youth polytechnics in countries such as Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania, in basic carpentry and brick-making courses.
Orientation training	Provides trainees with general information about their job duties and the organisation. Introduces newcomers to the organisation's rules, benefits and facilities.
Qualifying training	Helps new employees acquire basic knowledge, skills and attitudes required to perform job-specific tasks. Similar to orientation training.
In-service training	Aims at correcting deficiencies in employee performance. For example, new or inexperienced teachers in countries such as Nigeria, Kenya, Tanzania, and Ghana undergo training (often during the school holidays) while serving as teachers.
Cross- or multi-task training	Prepares ancillary (support) employees to perform the tasks and duties usually assigned to others. For example, an office secretary who can undertake the basic duties of his or her office manager if the manager is on sick leave or holiday, or an educator who can competently teach several courses and can therefore perform the duties of an absent colleague.
Retraining	Aims at maintaining or improving performance level of employees in order to meet new demands, confront challenges and cope with change. Involves acquisition of new knowledge, skills and abilities. For example, when countries such as Nigeria, Kenya and South Africa introduced educational reforms based on new curricula, the teachers, especially science teachers, had to be retrained.
Outplacement training	Provides for employees retiring voluntarily or through rightsizing. For example, the training given to civil service employees about to be retrenched because of the introduction of structural adjustment programmes in sub-Saharan Africa.

Source: Adapted from Nafukho and Kang'ethe (2002).

their performance in specific job related tasks. Education on the other hand prepares people for relatively undifferentiated roles, positions and work settings.'

In the case of adult education, Indabawa and Mpofu (2006) observe that adult education is a viable instrument that can be used at all times and in all places. Thus, unlike training, which aims at fixing specific performance issues at a particular time; education, and especially adult education, has long-term benefits for the adult learners.

Types of training

Table 4.1 provides a summary of the various types of workplace training available.

People as the most valuable resource in organisations

All organisations need resources – land, buildings, materials, equipment, capital, and so on. All of these resources are of course important but the most valuable resource an organisation has is its people. Without

people, the managers of organisations will not achieve much even if they have all of the other resources (land, buildings, equipment, etc.) (Nafukho, 2008).

The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) has identified as a priority the development of human resources, including education, skills development, and reversing the brain drain. By investing in adult and continuing education, the African NEPAD member countries will help to achieve NEPAD's primary objectives of poverty eradication, sustainable growth and development, reducing the marginalisation of Africa in the globalisation process, integrating Africa fully and beneficially into the global economy, and ensuring acceleration of the empowerment of women in the development process (NEPAD, 2001).

People in organisations and the way they are managed and deployed, are the single most sustainable source of competitive advantage (Appleby and Mavin, 2000). The same commentators are also keen to point out the ability of the human mind to imagine, develop and produce new ideas, processes, products and services 'other advantages', they observe, 'such as technology, global reach, or IT systems, can all be copied and exceeded by competitors. The current drive for differentiation is to generate ideas and innovation through the organisation's human resources (Appleby and Mavin, 2000: 555).

We now live in a world controlled by knowledge and ideas. As correctly observed, 'Ideas are now the DNA of organisations and therefore learning and development of people become crucial to economic survival' (ibid: 555).

The discussion above brings us to an important economic theory regarding the management of people in organisations – the theory of human capital. Blaug (1976) defines the theory of human capital as the idea that people spend on themselves in diverse ways, by purchasing education and training not for the sake of present enjoyments, but for future financial and non-financial returns. A number of respected economists of education (Dennison, 1962; Mincer, 1962; Shultz, 1961) have observed that education and training combined with an individual's performance and work experience measured in years had a positive and statistically significant impact on individual earnings (see Nafukho, 2008; Nafukho, Hairston and Brooks, 2004). In addition, an investment in employee training and education equips workers with the skills, traits, knowledge and attitudes that will add value to their organisations and local communities, and to society at large.

The above comments constitute the main proposition of the theory of human capital, which is that people are a form of capital for development (Aliaga, 2001; Becker, 1993; Engelbrecht, 2003; Hendricks, 2002; Nafukho, Hairston and Brooks, 2004). Looked at from this perspective, education and training are seen as deliberate investments that prepare the labour force and increase productivity of individuals and organisations, as well as encourage socio-economic growth and development. Given the importance of investing in people, managers of adult education programmes in Africa are urged to demonstrate to policy makers and policy implementers through evidence-based work and research that investment in adult learners benefits individuals, organisations, communities, and society.

ACTIVITY

Write a two-page essay on the weaknesses of the theory of human capital. You may want to consider the following questions and issues as you plan your essay:

- **Does an investment in education and training always benefit employees, facilitators and learners?**
- **In what situations or circumstances might this type of investment fail?**
- **Why are there so many well-educated university graduates out of work?**
- **If the labour force of a country is generally well educated and well trained, might a surplus of talented employees mean that employers can reduce salary and wage levels?**

SUMMARY

In this chapter we looked at the theory and practice of human resource development (HRD). We discussed the historical development of HRD and compared the similarities and differences between HRD and human resource management (HRM). We then spent time discussing the core functions of human resource development: training and development, career development, and organisational development. The second half of the chapter investigated the types of training and education available to African adult learners, and examined the proposition that people represent an organisation's most valuable asset.

KEY POINTS

- Individuals and organisations can manage change and improve their performance through learning.
- African indigenous education was vocational and holistic in nature and aimed at helping the individual fit into society.
- The main aim of both HRD and HRM is increased productivity, and the provision of quality products and services.
- The main three functions of HRD are training and development, organisational development, and career development.
- HRM focuses on human resource planning, performance management, employee recruitment and selection, compensation and benefits, employee assistance, labour/union relations, and human resource research and information systems.
- Training and development focuses on using learning to improve individual employee performance.
- Training equips employees with the skills, knowledge and attitudes they need to do their current jobs.
- Development activities equip employees with the skills needed for current and future jobs.
- Effective management of human resources requires both career planning and career management.
- The difference between education and training can be explained in terms of the purposes for which education or training is provided and/or received.
- People are the most valuable resource that organisations have.

ACTIVITY

Examine the human resource development plan of the adult education organisation you currently attend or the one you plan to attend. Evaluate the training and development, career development and organisational development activities that the plan contains. Suggest ways in which you think the plan could be improved.

FURTHER QUESTIONS

1 Are adult education organisations in Africa sufficiently 'African'? In other words, do these organisations utilise traditional African values in the teaching

and learning experience they provide?

2 As the manager of an adult education organisation, describe the type of orientation training you would offer to new workers, facilitators and learners.

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Chapter 5

Organisational development and change

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

- Determine the value of organisational development within adult education organisations.
- Justify the need for change within adult education organisations.
- Identify types and levels of change.
- Describe types of organisational development interventions and their application in organisations.
- Compare and contrast organisational development interventions.
- Justify the value of using each organisational development intervention in adult education organisations.
- Apply the practice of organisational development within your organisation.

KEY TERMS

behavioural science theories Theories that help us understand people's actions (behaviour).

human process interventions Interventions aimed at improving the effectiveness of human social interactions.

human resource interventions Interventions aimed at successful integration of people into an organisation.

organisational development (OD) A planned process of change, utilising technology, research, and theory to solve problems and to take advantage of opportunities in order to improve organisational effectiveness, learning, and performance.

organisational learning The process through which people in an organisation discover how to learn for continuous self-improvement.

system 'A system is an organised collection of parts (or subsystems) that are highly integrated to accomplish an overall goal' (McNamara, 1998).

techno-structural interventions Interventions aimed at improving the effectiveness of structure and technology within an organisation.

transformational change Organisational change that is multi-dimensional, discontinuous, or radical. Such a change involves a paradigmatic shift in the way things are done within an organisation.

transactional change Involves continuous improvement to adapt your organisation to fit with environmental demands.

BEFORE YOU START

Reflect on your own experiences with adult education. Give some examples of ways in which your organisation has changed when responding to changes in society. Were those changes successful or not? Explain your answer.

OVERVIEW

'When the drumbeat changes, the dance changes.'
– A proverb from the Hausa people of Nigeria (Mathis, n.d.).

If you are a keen follower of African music and dance, and have been for a long time, you will have noticed the evolution in rhythm and rhyme; from rumba to rap. The dance venues have also changed, from lantern-lit village dances to brightly flickering disco halls. Amidst these changes, dancers have evolved as well. Good dancers have changed their steps and sways to match the new tunes and moves. Bad dancers are equally noticeable – they are stuck on the same old styles of their heyday, awkwardly moving against the sound of the new rhythms – a sign of their failure to change!

Change is apparent, not just in Africa's music and dance, but in almost all facets of our lives. As our societies change, so do the expectations of learners, employers, and communities. Consequently, adult education organisations are compelled directly or indirectly to modify or completely change their

operations and seek other means of meeting society's changing demands. On both personal and professional levels, these changes demand an examination of and possible changes to our attitudes, skills, and values; all of which we discuss in this chapter.

This chapter examines organisational development (OD) and the effect change has on the management of adult education organisations in Africa. Organisational development is defined here as *a planned process of change, utilising technology, research, and theory to solve problems and to take advantage of opportunities in order to improve organisational effectiveness, learning, and performance*.

This chapter will examine why managers of adult education organisations are undergoing change, and how they can anticipate change, recognise types of change (internal and external), manage the change process, choose appropriate interventions to facilitate change, and deal with resistance to change. Throughout the chapter, various case studies of Africa's adult education organisations' response to change serve as practical examples.

Activities are used throughout this chapter to reinforce learning and to provide you with an opportunity to reflect on and apply what you have learned.

DEFINING ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Organisational development (OD) is a planned process of change, utilising technology, research, and theory to solve problems and to take advantage of opportunities in order to improve organisational effectiveness, learning, and performance.

Various authors have come up with different definitions of OD, but these definitions have overlapping characteristics. Organisational development is about developing or improving people and organisations, and this dual focus is one of the unique strengths of OD (Wendell and Bell, 1999). Organisational development focuses not only on bringing change to an organisation but also on helping organisations and individuals to learn (transfer of knowledge). In addition, organisational development helps individuals and organisations to realise their potential. According to Wendell and Bell (1999) OD has two goals:

- To improve the functioning of individuals, work groups (teams), and the entire organisation.
- To teach individuals, work groups, and the entire organisation how to continuously improve and/or resolve problems.

As an adult education manager, you need to have an appreciation of how the organisation as a system works. McNamara (1998) offers the following definition of a system:

> *A system is an organised collection of parts (or subsystems) that are highly integrated to accomplish an overall goal. The system has various inputs, which go through certain processes to produce certain outputs, which together, accomplish the overall desired goal for the system. So a system is usually made up of many smaller systems, or subsystems.*

Systems thinking – that is, considering the whole system rather than concentrating on individual parts or subsystems – helps us appreciate the interactions and linkages that make up an organisation. Organisational development is also different from other change efforts due to its focus on the total system (Cummings and Worley, 2005: 1), which is essential to understanding OD and implementing it successfully.

The previous quote highlights three key characteristics of a system: inputs, processes, and outputs. Let's examine these characteristics within the context of our chosen system: an adult education organisation.

Inputs

To undertake successful OD efforts, organisations need inputs, which include resources (time, money, human resources); technology; theory; research; drivers of change (external or internal, for example, technology, economy or politics); and people leading the change (external or internal change agents). Organisational development is a planned effort and managers of adult education organisations must plan for inputs associated with adult education programmes. Chapter 7 covers planning in more detail.

Process

Organisational development involves a process of improvement. Organisational development initiatives should be viewed as a long-term investment and not as a short-term undertaking or event. For the OD process to go smoothly, engagement of and collaboration with team members is essential. (We looked at the importance of collaboration in Chapter 2.) A collaborative (participatory) approach where all interested parties (stakeholders) are involved is recommended. At the very least, there needs to be an OD consultant (external or internal), a committee within the organisation, and a change champion (which could be a manager or leader) to facilitate the change process.

Outputs

Organisational development involves learning. A distinguishing feature of OD is the transfer of knowledge and skills to the organisational members so that they are able to manage change in the future (Cummings and Worley, 2005). The role of OD is to 'structure activities to help organisation members learn to solve their own problems and learn to do it better over time' (Wendell and Bell, 1999: 3). This process of organisational members' learning is referred to as organisational learning, self-renewal, or learning how to learn for continuous self-improvement (Wendell and Bell, 1999). Thus, OD is based on the adult learning principles of self-directedness and practical learning that adults prefer. It is important to note that OD deals with people issues and work systems issues that occur within organisations. The goal of OD is to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of individuals and organisations. For example, some of the goals of OD could be to build capacity; to achieve greater effectiveness; to increase financial performance; or to improve the quality of work life. Ultimately, organisation interventions lead to change. Figure 5.1 summarises these key facets of OD and the change process.

A brief history of organisational development

The history of organisational development as a field of study is fairly recent, having developed rapidly over the last six decades, mostly in the western world/developed countries (Cummings and Worley, 2005). Although the actual term organisational development may not be familiar to many in Africa, this does not mean that it has no relevance to organisational theory and practice here. On the contrary, there is ample evidence of the constant pursuit of learning and performance improvement within Africa's organisations. For example, team-building initiatives, leadership training and development, and coaching are instances of

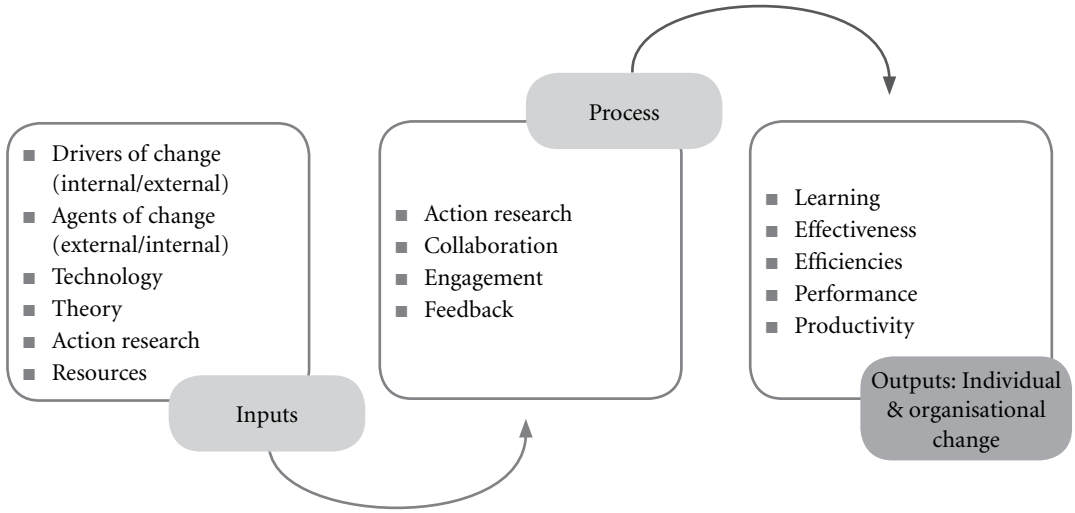

Figure 5.1 Facets of organisational development

OD interventions that are present in organisations across Africa today.

Indeed, traditional African societies' use of the apprenticeship system suggests that organisational development has been woven into our cultural practices for some considerable time. Apprenticeship was planned; it provided opportunities for learning among individuals, and it created opportunities for skills to be passed from one generation to the next. Apprentices honed their craft skills and experimented with new materials until they became artisans in their own right; able to deliver their knowledge and expertise to the upcoming apprenticeship population. As cultures became exposed to new skills (for example, basket weaving) they changed or adapted their craftsmanship to include new materials, shapes, colours, and so on. To use today's OD language, the work that a traditional master artisan performed involved coaching and mentoring younger artisans.

Organisational development borrows heavily from other fields of knowledge, and especially from the behavioural sciences. A list of subject areas would therefore include the following: education, psychology, anthropology, theatre, social work, philosophy, systems theory, economic theory, sociology, management, and organisational behaviour and theory. This rich and diverse mix of inputs makes OD particularly well suited to our investigation of how to manage adult education organisations in an equally rich and diverse African setting.

Organisational development as a field of study has undergone evolutionary changes. Wendell and Bell (1999) classify the field of OD in two generations. Key activities in the first generation OD were characterised by training groups, also known as T-Groups or learning groups; survey research and feedback or use of organisational surveys; action research (a mode of inquiry that is collaborative in nature and that involves a client and a consultant); and socio-technical and socio-clinical approaches that emerged as an attempt to give organisations, families, and communities practical help (Wendell and Bell, 1999).

As society changed, people were required to do more with less; stockholders sought higher returns; and workers' rights and preferences led to workplace changes. This

ushered in the second generation OD, which was characterised by interest in organisational culture, high performance organisations (HPOs), transformational change, learning organisations, leadership, team work, total quality management (TQM), whole-systems discussions, collaboration, and diversity issues (Wendell and Bell, 1999). These aspects of OD are discussed later in this chapter and elsewhere in this book.

Organisational development in an African context

While organisational development as a field of study may be relatively new, the concept of change is as old as humanity. Change has impacted and continues to impact on African organisations just like anywhere else. With post-independence changes, revolutionary changes such as the end of the apartheid era in South Africa, the rise and fall of dictators, and war in various African countries, adult education organisations have not been immune to change. It is the response to change that differs. As Cummings and Worley (2005) argue, the traditional approaches to OD and planned change may promote management practices that conflict with the cultural values of other societies. The diversity of culture and values evident in Africa calls for OD practitioners with a good understanding of African culture. Yeager (2002: 4) warns:

> *The applicability and effectiveness of OD in countries and cultures outside of the West has been a recent subject of debate. Because OD was developed predominantly by American and Western European practitioners, its practices and methods are heavily influenced by the values and assumptions of industrialised cultures. (¶4).*

You may be wondering then why we are devoting an entire chapter to organisational development, if its theoretical underpinnings are western. While the title OD may not be used in your organisation, you may already be engaged in the various processes and activities covered in this chapter. In a globalised world filled with multinationals, expatriates, and virtually borderless educational opportunities, African adult education organisations can no longer ignore exchange of knowledge with other cultures. Beugre' and Offodile (2001) agree with this notion by suggesting a culture-fit model of management that involves integration. In this case, adult education managers would need to learn to integrate modern techniques of OD that fit with the African culture. Integration involves a synthesis of local cultures and modern management techniques and an assimilation of new principles and techniques that would be of value to the African system of management (Beugre' and Offodile, 2001). On the other hand, eradication refers to 'the extent to which the learner eliminates old practices that may impede the learning process' (Beugre' and Offodile, 2001: 543). We also discussed Beugre' and Offodile's culture-fit model in the chapter on leadership (Chapter 2).

As an adult education manager, you will need to examine what in your culture could undermine the change and/or reduce the effectiveness of an effort you may be targeting to change.

Opportunities and challenges

Change creates both challenges and opportunities for the application of OD interventions within adult education organisations in Africa, regardless of their location, mission or size. African education institutions in the twenty-first century are facing changes, challenges, and tremendous

opportunities (Mungania, 2006; Teferra and Altbach, 2004). The presence of both challenges and opportunities are indicators of the need for change in adult education organisations.

Organisational development and change deals with people issues and work systems issues that occur within organisations. All organisations today face various opportunities as well as challenges. The people within these organisations are constantly looking for ways to take advantage of the opportunities and supply viable solutions to the challenges. The challenges facing individuals in adult education include issues such as job security, poor pay, limited access to resources, and constantly changing responsibilities, tasks and work methods; stress and health-related problems, low productivity, conflict, and corruption, among others. In some cases, some of these problems can be handled internally but in other cases, external OD consultants may be called in to help improve the situation.

Africa is still experiencing huge demographic changes brought about by the continuing migration of rural Africans to urban centres and the ongoing brain drain of teachers, doctors, nurses and other professionals, which has left organisations with large skill gaps to fill. Further, multinational organisations (NGOs and companies) are increasingly opening up offices in African countries, which are sometimes manned by expatriates who do not always have a good understanding and appreciation of local cultures.

Education still remains one of the key concerns for many individuals, communities, governments, and even the donor community. Sub-Saharan Africa has about 140 million illiterate adults (over 15 years old), with over 771 million illiterate adults worldwide (UNESCO, 2006); it is therefore important that African governments make a concerted effort to invest in education for adults who missed the opportunity to go to school. Education is a vital component in the development of any nation, and it is especially important for Africa to improve both access to, and the quality and effectiveness of, adult education. The good news is that providers of adult education continue to grow in number and that training programmes are on the rise.

Post-secondary training

More good news for Africa is that primary education has received a lot of attention especially with the Education for All (EFA) and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) initiatives, opening up doors for millions of children. However, limited funding still exists at the secondary and post-secondary levels, which is why there are still many – too many – adult workers in Africa who are under-skilled. This causes problems for employees and employers alike, and has significant implications for providers of adult education. Big changes in national policies are warranted in order to make adult education and training a national priority in the same way that primary education already is. Similarly, efforts to improve and increase adult education programmes should also be at the top of the policy agenda, especially as more and more children enter adulthood. Leading such changes is one of the roles of adult education managers. Various countries (for example, Ghana and Ethiopia) have responded with initiatives targeting capacity building (World Bank, 2005).

Knowledge management

In the twenty-first century, knowledge is the main determinant of individual and organisational success. This means that efforts to help advance knowledge and skills should be constantly re-evaluated.

Knowledge management and sharing has become an important and frequently addressed issue, evident in various scholarly meetings, organisational missions, and donor organisations' criteria for funding. For example, the Global Development Network (GDN), a World Bank initiative, uses its website and other means to promote awareness of the issue, as the following statement demonstrates:

> *Access to information and knowledge hold one of the keys for the [African] continent to unlock its potentials to bridge the development gap in relation to the rest of the world.*
> *(Global Development Network, 2001: ¶1)*

Organisational development helps to channel organisational knowledge, experience, and creativity into solving organisational problems (Wendell and Bell, 1999). For Africans, finding home-grown solutions is extremely valuable. This is something that numerous scholars, practitioners, theorists, educators and workers have advocated for years, while simultaneously deploring the importation of wholesale solutions from abroad.

CAUSES OF CHANGE WITHIN ADULT EDUCATION

External and internal forces such as globalisation, pressure for accountability, economic growth, expansion of organisations, new democracies, new leadership, expanding markets, and new technologies, have brought many changes to the structure, purpose and operation of adult education organisations. As a manager of an adult education organisation, the need to plan for or anticipate change is one of the skills you have to develop; and to do this, you need to know about the causes of change.

Table 5.1 Internal and external change triggers

Internal change triggers	External change triggers
• New leadership • Technical processes • Internal politics • Restructuring • Merger of acquisition • Risk of bankruptcy • Failure to meet internal targets • Internal competition • Departure, death or injury of staff/leaders	• Globalisation • Technology • Foreign or domestic competition • Rural-urban migration • Increasing number of multinational organisations in Africa • Population trends • Social trends • Government mandates • Social movements • Political environment • Economic changes • Professional organisations' standards • Funding/donor requirements • Diseases, e.g., HIV/AIDS • Union movements • Environmental (climate) changes • Stakeholders' demands

Change is inevitable in African organisations and in our practice of adult education. In an era where competitive advantage rests upon the availability of a trained workforce, there is consequently a high demand for proactive, pro-change adult education providers. Those providers who resist change are therefore taking a great risk. African countries need to improve the performance of their public sectors if they are going to achieve their goals of growth, poverty reduc-

tion, and the provision of better services for their citizens (World Bank, 2005). All these changes demand knowledge and use of OD interventions. But first, let's examine the nature of change in more detail.

Change triggers: internal and external drivers

There are factors within and outside of an organisation that could trigger change (see Table 5.1). Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga (2005), for instance, examine Africa's social, political, and economic environments and their effect on adult education. Indabawa and Mpofu (2006) discuss in detail some of the pertinent social issues impacting adult education in Africa. The external environment usually does have an influence on how organisations operate. External triggers, for example, a new political party in power, could lead to leadership changes in ministries and parastatals, which create repercussions for adult education organisations in terms of their policies, priorities, and financing.

CASE STUDY: AN AFRICAN UNIVERSITY

Educating Teachers to Achieve Excellence
University of Education, Winneba, Ghana

Across Africa, the push for improved education is being felt at all levels, from primary to postgraduate institutions. Teachers, in particular, are under pressure to upgrade their skills and get high-quality training in order to provide a better level of education and advance student achievement – in the hope of yielding greater numbers of educated young people with leadership potential. With $1.7 million in Partnership support plus government funding, the University of Education, Winneba, which has a current enrolment of 13 500 students, has undertaken an ambitious strategy to meet the nation's need for educational excellence through three channels: distance learning, student internships, and postgraduate studies. These new and enhanced programmes aim to make teacher training more widely available, practice-oriented and cost effective.

Distance education. Every year about 15 000 Ghanaian primary school teachers leave their jobs to further their own education. This exodus results mainly from the recently stated government requirement that teachers hold a diploma in basic education conferred by a university. For those with middle-level teaching certificates (about 90 000 in all) this means going back to school. Distance learning can help by enabling teachers to do their coursework and hold onto their jobs. In 2003, the University of Education had an enrolment of 2 000 students in the distance education department, which with grant support has expanded to 3 500 – 54 per cent women, compared to 31 per cent in conventional classes – while improving the quality of the programme. Newly trained lecturers and tutors, updated course books, upgraded radio and computer equipment, and new study centres have all been acquired with the help of Partnership funds.

Student internships. The University's Bachelor of Education degree programme consists of three years on campus and a fourth-year internship. About 2 500 interns are placed in schools throughout Ghana to experience the day-to-day realities of the classroom and to develop successful teaching strategies and self-confidence. To prepare, students attend pre-internship seminars and report on their teaching philosophy and research projects. Once interns arrive at their schools, the quality of their experience is mainly in the hands of their mentors. 'We have a partnership with schools, and the Heads (Principals)

recommend mentors to us,' explains Kwami Asante, director of the student internship programme. 'They must be very experienced, competent and committed teachers.' To ensure that mentors are well prepared, Partnership funds have paid for comprehensive training materials and workshops held in regional capitals. 'It's a very big job for mentors and they need to be skilled —not only in teaching but in counselling, too,' Asante adds. 'They can't just be critical. There's give-and-take, and being tactful is important.' A double dividend from this investment has been the boost mentoring has given to experienced teachers. According to Asante, 'Heads of schools are writing to request that their teachers become mentors because there's a big benefit to the in-service training they get from the programme. Participating teachers work harder and become more professional.'

Postgraduate studies. Established less than ten years ago, the School of Research and Graduate Studies offers master's degrees in a limited number of subjects. This lack of opportunity has meant university staff often travel abroad for long periods of time for training – which is costly and discourages women from participating – and almost a third of those who study abroad do not return to Ghana after graduation. By strengthening the graduate school, the Partnership hopes to keep scholars home while developing university staff and providing educational opportunities for thousands of individuals, many of them secondary school teachers whose degrees are in disciplines other than professional teaching. By offering scholarships and establishing a system for attracting, recruiting and retaining top students and lecturers, university leaders have taken great strides toward achieving the level of excellence they seek.

Source: *Partnership for Higher Education in Africa (2006).*

ACTIVITY

- **The University of Education case study identifies three change initiatives. Describe these changes.**
- **Discuss the external triggers and the internal triggers that have affected the adult education programme at the University of Education in Winneba.**

Levels of change

Change touches multiple levels and entities. Some examples of change initiatives in non-formal adult education include the training being offered by NGOs in various countries: for example, programmes related to health (malaria, HIV/AIDS prevention), childcare (breastfeeding), and human rights (voting, protection of women and children). Although these programmes may seem to be group specific, that is, targeting women at the village level, they do have major implications for the rest of society. For example, heightened awareness among women about their rights has lead to changes in government (more women representation bills that reflect women's views, for example), which has consequences for policies and procedures at various levels.

In a study of changes in Kenyan higher education institutions resulting from distance education, Mungania (2006) identified four levels of change within institutions: (1) individual (personal), (2) interpersonal (group), (3) organisational (institutional), and (4) changes in the external system (inter-organisational level), which are shown in the illustration in Figure 5.2. For example, change at the individual level could occur due to the need for a better-paying job, training mandates, or from an individual drive for change (Burke, 2002).

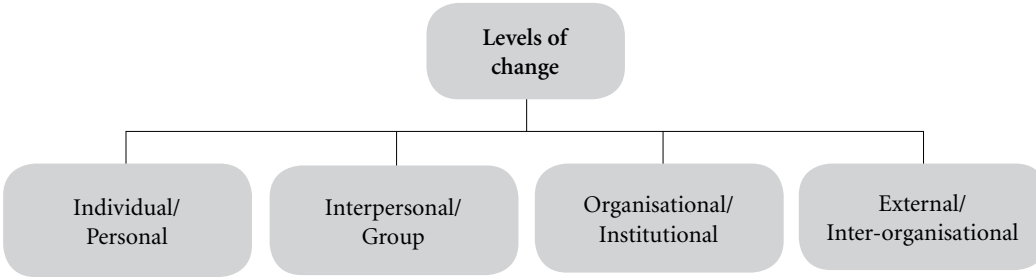

Figure 5.2 Levels of change

ACTIVITY

Refer back to case study on the University of Education in Winneba. Give an example (or examples) of changes that are occurring at each of the four levels (individual, group, organisational, external).

TYPES OF CHANGE

It is important to realise that not all change efforts are similar. Some changes are long term while others are short term. Change initiatives differ by organisation, duration, speed of implementation, style of leadership, and their magnitude among other variables. In this chapter, we are focusing on types of change that affect the management of adult education organisations.

The type of change that we are concerned with is planned change. Planned changes are deliberated on and the process is planned and the impact anticipated. For example, the growth of private adult education organisation in Africa over the last decade has been phenomenal. Such a change, resulting in competition for students, creates a whole series of further changes within established adult education organisations, which may have to restructure admissions procedures, adapt marketing plans, increase the number of faculty, construct new classrooms or accommodation facilities, and so on. All of these changes will of course have to be funded, which again leads to further changes in the organisations' financial management strategies.

Unplanned changes occur accidentally and can be the result of a sudden disruption in the internal or external environment – for example, a financial crisis, natural disaster, sudden exit of a leader, or new appointment.

We now turn our attention to the rate at which change occurs, which can be classified as transformational or transactional.

Transformational change is the type of change that happens quickly or abruptly. Transformational change is also known as revolutionary, radical, massive, fundamental, or large-scale change. This kind of change transforms an organisation by changing an organisation's mission. It involves change in mission and deep structure (strategy, leadership, structure, culture, and systems). It occurs in 'leaps' and 'spurts' and disruptions are common (Burke, 2002). Certainly, not all revolutionary changes make an organisation better (ibid).

Transactional change, which we are focusing on in this chapter, is also known as continuous improvement or incremental change. Transactional change is about continuously fine-tuning or adapting your organisation to fit with environmental demands. Indeed, small continuous changes across units may result in substantial changes in the long run.

A majority (over 95 per cent) of all change initiatives are evolutionary (Burke, 2002). Rather than occurring in leaps, transactional change is gradual and the mission, strategy, culture (deep structure) of the organisation remains intact. Usually it occurs in parts of the system and the goal is continuous improvement. An example of this type of change is organisational learning.

It is vital that managers of adult education organisations are able to recognise the need for change and then to implement the changes that will improve the effectiveness of their organisations. The magnitude of change can be large or small; and could have an impact (repercussions) throughout the system. Whether change is planned or not, the rate of implementing change or the pace at which change takes hold differs. Change also differs by setting, for example, some changes occur in a domestic setting while others occur in the international arena.

It's important to note that change in itself is neutral – it's neither good nor bad. What may be good or bad are the effects or consequences of the change. Sometimes the process can be so poorly managed that people begin to resist the change, even before its impact is evident.

The purpose of organisational development is to help organisations to embrace change, and thus change should be viewed as an opportunity rather than a threat, and an experience from which we can all learn. Therefore, organisational development and change are not opposing contrasts; instead, they are integrated.

ACTIVITY

Read the following four descriptions of change scenarios in an organisational setting. Say whether you think the type of change described is: A. planned change, B. revolutionary change, C. continuous change, or D. unplanned change. Be prepared to justify your answer.

- **Scenario 1: The recently appointed Minister for Education announces his intention to make drastic changes to the way in which the ministry is structured and the communication strategies it uses. The new policy is that the ministry will start using emails and text messages to reach its teachers. Every single teacher in the country will be connected into the new system and will be able to receive information on upcoming training programmes, new regulations, proposed initiatives, and so on.**
- **Scenario 2: You are in charge of a Health Agency's public health committee. Following a sudden spread of a communicable disease outbreak, your first tasks are to inform the public immediately and to train them on prevention strategies. Large public gatherings must be cancelled with immediate effect. This is an urgent matter and you must get the word out as quickly as possible.**
- **Scenario 3: The type of change occurring at the University of Education in Winneba (refer back to the case study) involved many committees and stakeholders. It's been years in the making but finally they are seeing positive results, most noticeably in terms of huge intakes of students.**
- **Scenario 4: A training company that is a provider of Leadership Development programmes recently adopted new 360-degree feedback assessments. These will enhance the assessment system that is already in place for use by its clients.**

You may have noticed from your answers to the questions above that for revolutionary change to be successful, continuous change initiatives must be put in place. To sustain a radical change, continuous improvements are called for. Clearly this is the case in these scenarios. For every change there will be

unintended consequences that result in further changes and decisions. Planned change results in other systemic changes that may not have been planned for.

Change leader capabilities

Regardless of the type of change being implemented, one similarity among most change efforts is the critical need for effective leadership, which is an issue we looked at in Chapter 2. As Burke (2002: 239) notes, 'Without leadership, planned organisational change will never be realized.'

A transformational style of leadership is recommended whenever change is being implemented (Beugre' and Offodile, 2001; Burke, 2002). Transformational leadership is associated with leaders who help their followers to change, find problems and solve them, are supportive, and take risks. Changing leadership alone is not adequate without other systemic changes, which will be discussed later. As a leader or manager of an adult education organisation, your role in organisational development and change is to:

- Make deliberate decisions to change.
- Provide direction for change.
- Champion (support) the change.
- Adapt your organisation to change.
- Be selective in choice of changes.
- Engage the stakeholders.
- Monitor change and progress being made.
- Deal with resistance.
- Ensure that the changes match the internal environment.
- Provide learning opportunities.
- Sustain change.

Most OD and change initiatives within an organisation require a change leader (usually referred to as a 'change agent'). An external or internal consultant could be involved in providing the direction for change but their role would be to offer learning opportunities as problems are resolved rather than to prescribe solutions. But in addition to using a consultant, there must be someone inside the organisation to champion the change (internal change leader). This could be a manager, head teacher, department head, OD manager, top administrator or manager, the managing director of a company, a dean at a college, or a board member of an NGO – this will depend on the size and/or type of adult education organisation. The advantage of using external consultants is that they may bring skills not available within the organisation; they may also be needed if the organisation does not have adequate staff. Also, external consultants are likely to be more objective and to see changes that to an insider may not be so obvious.

When hiring a change consultant, look for 'fit' and for someone who has experience within the field of OD, adult education, educational development, as well as management experience; and a good understanding of behavioural science theories. However, keep in mind the cost implications of using external consultants. As you start thinking of change within adult education, do not imagine that you can do it alone. 'Bringing the whole system into one room' is a common slogan in OD. To get support from various stakeholders, you will need to use a collaborative approach.

Budgets are often small in many adult education organisations, which means that hiring an external consultant is not always feasible. However, the manager can involve community members, who may possess needed skills. As a manager, never underestimate the potential that may lie within your employees. For example, the authors of this book have provided consulting services to international companies and NGOs with programmes in various

African nations. As external consultants, we have led clients through various change processes, conducted organisational needs assessments, trained employees on leadership development, and implemented other OD interventions in various sectors. In one of our experiences working in this capacity, two of the authors collaborated with an international NGO (client). While our services were initiated by headquarters staff based in the United States, these services had broad implications, reaching the NGO's clients in rural areas across Africa. In this case, we were the (external) agents of change, but worked together with internal change leaders. In another OD consulting experience, one of the authors was an internal change agent, hired to lead a change initiative within a company that would lead to a team-based culture. These are examples of what you may be called to do as an OD consultant.

Therefore, as a manager of an adult education organisation, you may be charged with the responsibility of recruiting an OD consultant to work with you, or with leading the change initiative yourself. In the next section, we look at what you should you do to prepare yourself for working with a consultant.

Checklist for working with OD consultants and other change agents

What do you look for in an external consultant? In answering this question, you will find the checklist in Table 5.2 will come in useful (the checklist has been adapted from The Alliance for Nonprofit Management, 2004). This list is not exhaustive and you should check with your organisation about other requirements, approvals, and legal issues that should be taken into consideration prior to signing any contract.

A fundamental difference between OD and other organisation improvement pro-

Table 5.2 Checklist for working with OD consultants

Checklist criteria	**Yes (✓)/No (✗)**
Develop a request for proposals (RFP) that potential consultants can respond to. This will help to clarify your broad expectations of what the consultant will do.	
Determine a budget and have it approved.	
Talk with at least two consultants and check the references they provide.	
Ask each consultant to submit a written proposal summarising the work to be performed, the timeline, and the cost.	
Make sure you feel comfortable working with the person you select.	
Sign a non-disclosure agreement – highlighting the organisation's intellectual property (materials, ideas) and how they may/may not be used.	
Develop a clearly worded written contract, which should include the following. ■ a list of deliverables ■ a projected completion date ■ a schedule for payment ■ checkpoints along the way to evaluate progress and resolve problems ■ details of contract termination procedures ■ identification of the person in your organisation who has the authority to approve expenditures and/or the consultant's work ■ a description of who will do the consulting work ■ means and frequency of communication.	

grammes is found in the OD consultant's role and relationship to clients. Organisational development consultants establish a collaborative relationship of relative equality with organisation members as they together identify and take action on problems and opportunities. This is not a doctor-patient type relationship that involves diagnosing and prescribing a solution; rather OD consultants are co-learners and collaborators working with organisation members to discover what needs to be changed and how to go about it (Cummings and Worley, 2005; Wendell and Bell, 1999). Burke (1982: 358) underscores the OD consultant's role and personality: 'The primary instrument in OD work is the consultant-practitioner.'

One way to examine the OD consultant's role and function is to consider the degree of personal use of oneself as an instrument of facilitation, feedback, and change '… the OD consultant should be a finely tuned instrument' (ibid., p. 350).

You may be asking why an external OD consultant should be used when an organisation has limited resources (talent, time or money). The use of external consultants for OD and change initiatives is recommended whenever skills and knowledge (talent) within an organisation are lacking. In such a case, it would be advisable to employ external OD consultants or collaborate with stakeholders who have the necessary skills. However, the use of external consultants does not preclude the use of internal consultants: both types could work as a team, using their complementary consulting skills. The upfront cost of hiring a good OD consultant may seem expensive but if she or he is effective, your organisation is likely to reap the benefits for a long time into the future.

Table 5.3 OD code of ethics

Desirable skills, values and attitudes of OD consultants		
Skills	**Values**	**Attitudes**
• good communicator • team-building skills • client-oriented • facilitation and presentation skills • systems thinker • good project-management skills • understanding of OD theory • sensitivity to organisational culture • independent yet collaborative thinker	• self-awareness • ethical • trustworthy • humility • empowerment • respectful	• positive • learner-oriented • open to change • people-centred

ACTIVITY

In Table 5.3 we have listed some of the desired skills, values and attitudes of an OD consultant. In small groups, discuss the qualities mentioned and any other that you think should be included.

The International OD Code of Ethics developed by the Academy of Human Resource Development and the Organisation Development Institute, available online at www.ahrd.org and http://members.aol.com/odinst/ respectively, are valuable guides on professionalism for consultants. The following code of ethics is adapted from the OD Institute and what stands out in the code is the need to be a responsible person. While the following code of ethics may refer

to OD consultants, it can also apply to all professionals engaged in managing adult education organisations as well:

- *Responsibility to self*: Consultants need to act with integrity; be authentic and true to themselves; and continually strive for self-knowledge and personal growth.
- *Responsibility for professional development and competence*: Consultants should accept responsibility for the consequences of their actions and make reasonable efforts to ensure that their services are properly used; terminate services if they are not properly used; and ensure that any abuses are corrected.
- *Responsibility to clients and significant others*: Consultants should establish mutual agreements in a contract covering services and remuneration; resolve conflicts; make accurate public statements; and protect confidentiality.
- *Responsibility to the profession*: Consultants should actively pursue ethical practice by sharing OD knowledge and skills, and by seeking opportunities for professional development (training).
- *Social responsibility*: Consultants should act with sensitivity because their recommendations and actions may alter the lives and well-being of people; be respectful of cultures different to their own; and be sensitive to cross-cultural and multicultural differences and their implications.

UNDERSTANDING YOUR STAKEHOLDERS

This section considers the different groups of people in an organisation who will be affected by a particular organisational development intervention or interventions. Understanding who these stakeholders are is imperative if any change initiative is to be successful. In a private company, for example, the stakeholders include its managers, staff, investors (shareholders), consumers, the community, and the government (at the local, district, provincial and national level). Figure 5.3 depicts the stakeholders of an adult education organisation (vocational college or university).

In all your OD work, always think of the whole system and how you can collaborate with these stakeholders to get the job done. Remember that whatever changes you recommend, they (the stakeholders) will be either directly or indirectly affected, which makes securing their support – and not provoking their resistance – vital.

The importance of understanding stakeholders is all about understanding their needs, which will vary according to the type of stakeholder, the situation, and the nature of the proposed intervention. Let's look at an example.

Suppose you work for an NGO that provides training on malaria prevention strategies. You are the manager of adult education within the organisation. Before you implement any change, you need to consider the following:

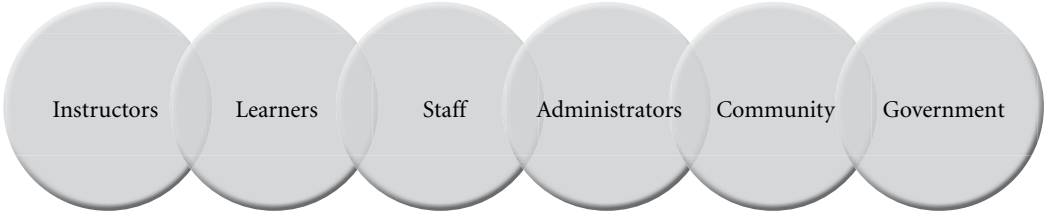

Figure 5.3 Stakeholders of an adult education organisation

- The identity of the stakeholders, including the identity of the target audience
- The prior knowledge or skills (level of education) of the stakeholders
- The location of the target audience (This will determine the type of delivery used.)
- The target audience's access to and experience of technology (if distance education is being considered)
- The time available for study (Will they be full-time or part-time students?)
- The infrastructure they have
- Their strengths and limitations
- The affordability of the programme
- What support system(s) they have
- The most suitable language of instruction to use.

To this list we can add the importance of addressing the socio-cultural nature of the community, which will include issues such as the social acceptability of new methods of instructional delivery, new ideas, and 'foreign' concepts; traditional values and attitudes surrounding the concept and practice of education; the transfer of learning to local context; and the relevance of the proposed intervention to local needs.

Culture is such an important factor in the field of organisational development that it merits a more detailed discussion, which now follows.

CULTURE AND ITS EFFECT ON ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE

'… culture and indigenous knowledge systems should be taken into consideration before a blind or wholesale transfer of techniques, tools, or theories' (Beugre' and Offodile, 2001).

A consideration of culture issues must precede the implementation of any OD intervention. We can think of culture in individual, organisational, and national terms, while also cautioning that what may be culturally significant or valuable for one person, organisation or country is not necessarily true for other people, organisations and countries. Some models and theories used in organisational development assume a universality of approach and application, which is something that we wish to guard against. As Adler (1997: v) notes:

> *Today, managers no longer have the luxury of reducing global complexity to the simplicity of assumed universality; they no longer have the luxury of assuming that there is only one best way to manage.*

Adler's observation serves as a warning against considering the outside world – its peoples, cultures, customs, values, and so on – solely from one's personal point of view, which we call parochialism. On this, Adler (1997: 10) comments:

> *Parochialism means viewing the world solely through one's own eyes and perspective. A person with a parochial perspective neither recognises other people's different ways of living and working nor appreciates that such differences have serious consequences.*

One way of addressing our parochial tendencies is to develop self-awareness. As a manager of an adult education organisation, you need to demonstrate an appreciation of culture and how it affects the values, attitudes, and behaviours of people in the organisation. If you are new to a particular culture, your first task will be to educate yourself about that culture. Self-education can be formal [for example, conducting a needs assessment

exercise]) and/or informal (for example, having casual conversations with others, reading books, attending cultural events, visiting the site of work [more than once], reviewing organisational literature (for example, catalogues, brochures, website, annual reports). But most of all, you'll learn a great deal from observing what people do and how they behave at work.

ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT MODELS AND THE CHANGE PROCESS

Models are widely used in the field of organisational development. As noted by Wendell and Bell (1999: 73), 'the development of models of planned change facilitated the development of OD.'

Models are especially helpful in identifying the important variables that an OD consultant should consider. It is important to realise that there are several models of planned change but we are only going to focus on one of them here, that is, the action research model. (For a more in-depth treatment of research methods, we recommend Chilisa and Preece's (2006) book *Research methods for adult educators in Africa*, which is a further title in the African Perspectives on Adult Learning series published by the UNESCO Institute for Education and Pearson Education South Africa.)

Cummings and Worley (2005: 25) observe that the action research model 'underlies most current approaches to planned change and is often considered synonymous with OD'. The action research model is shown in Figure 5.4 on the previous page. The 'reinforcement of change' step was added to this model as a means of ensuring that change becomes embedded in the organisational culture (Burke, 2002). Remember that models

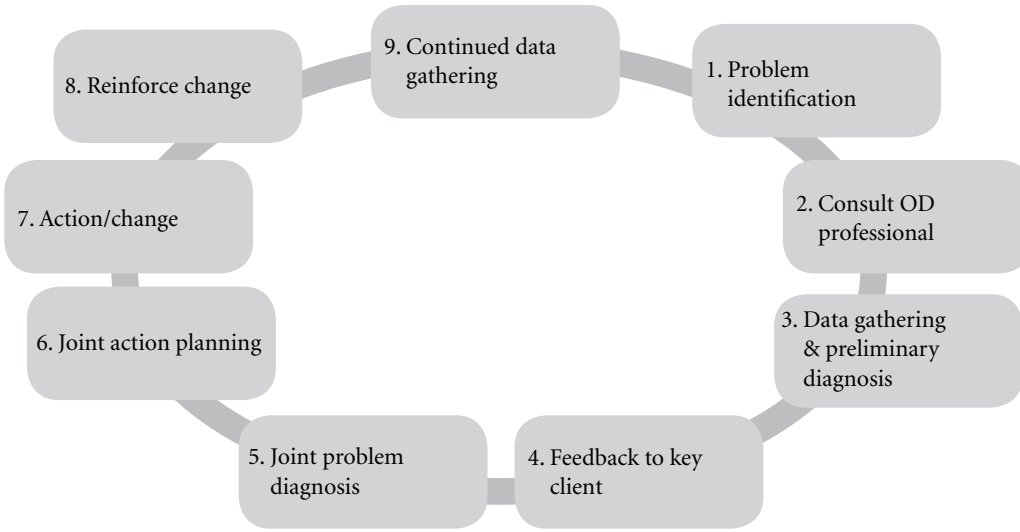

Figure 5.4 Modified action research model of OD and change

(Adapted from Cummings and Worley, 2005).

are not static; the one shown here can be adapted to suit a range of settings, circumstances and contexts.

ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTIONS

Brown and Harvey (2006: 223) suggest that'[a]n OD intervention encompasses the range of actions designed to improve the health or functioning of the client system.' Cummings and Worley (2005: 143) define an OD intervention as a set or sequence of planned actions or events intended to help an organisation increase its effectiveness. It's clear from these two definitions that an intervention is not a standalone activity or event. Rather, interventions are the specific activities, means, programmes, and tools for change that managers and leaders of adult education organisations can use to improve their individual and organisational performance and effectiveness. We can note further that, '[a]ll OD interventions aim at changing some specific aspect of an organisation: its climate, members, structure, or procedures' (Brown and Harvey, 2006: 223).

Organisational development interventions range from those that are standardised (used in many organisations) to others that are tailor-made (specially made) for specific organisations. For example, educating adults on HIV/AIDS is a common training topic today in many African countries. Thus, training and development on HIV/AIDS prevention is one example of a standard intervention. However, there are cases when managers of adult education organisations experience unique challenges that call for a tailored intervention, for example, when a decision has been made to introduce a new range of technology programmes and courses for distance learners.

How then do you go about choosing an intervention that will be right for your organisation? Cummings and Worley (2005) and Brown and Harvey (2006) suggest that the following issues need to be considered:

Fit or relevance

How relevant will the OD intervention be to your organisation? Just because it has been used in another organisation does not automatically mean that it will be relevant to yours. First determine what your organisation's needs and priorities are. Refer to your needs assessment results, mandate, or strategic plan to determine whether a particular intervention is the right fit for your organisation. Also determine the potential acceptance of the intervention. Is the technique acceptable to the organisation and has it been explained to the organisation (client)?

Transfer of learning

Will your organisation benefit from a transfer of learning? All effective OD interventions will seek to build the capacity of the organisation to manage change by itself. This is made possible if the intervention has been conducted in a collaborative, participative manner that enhances the problem-solving and decision-making skills of the organisation's members. The goal should be to acquire skills and knowledge that remains in the organisation long after the consultant has left.

Knowledge of outcome(s)

How will you know if the intervention has been effective? You will need to establish a means of evaluating the impact of the intervention. For example, if your organisation is a provider of a violence-prevention programme targeting women, how will you

know if your intervention was effective? What will success look like in rural areas as opposed to urban areas?

Potential results of the intervention

Determine what problems will be solved and any additional positive outcomes the chosen intervention will have (Brown and Harvey, 2006).

Potential implementation of the intervention

Can the proposed technique actually work in this organisation? What are the estimated costs versus the benefit(s) of the intervention? (Here, costs include those measured in non-monetary terms, for example, the cost of modifying people's behaviour or overcoming their resistance to change, and/or the cost in terms of losing employees who refuse to accept the introduction of the new initiative.)

Situational factors

There are situational factors that must be considered prior to implementing an OD intervention (Cummings and Worley, 2005). The situational factors that can affect the effectiveness of OD interventions include the:

- Capabilities of the change agent.
- Cultural context of an organisation.
- Capability of an organisation to change.
- Readiness for change.
- Organisational issues that the intervention targets.
- Level of organisation system where primary impact is expected.

Resource availability

What kind and what level of resources (time, money, and people) can the organisation dedicate to the intervention? Availability of resources is a major factor in the possible success of an intervention. Interventions vary in terms of their cost of implementation to an organisation and so their timing is an important issue.

OD Interventions

The next section covers various OD interventions that can be adopted. Our advice here is that you keep in mind the situational factors we just discussed when choosing the best intervention(s) for your organisation.

Organisations differ in their belief systems and culture and that affects the kind of intervention chosen. For example, 'Organisations that believe people can change, emphasise training and development' (Adler, 1997: 21). Many organisations use more than one OD intervention because they have been found to achieve better results than relying on just one (Brown and Harvey, 2006). Therefore, adult education organisations should consider a multifaceted approach using a combination of interventions. Intervention design involves understanding situational contingencies and the change process itself.

Types of organisational development interventions

The practice of OD and the change process covers activities and topics such as team building, structural change, job enrichment, group dynamics, organisation- or work-design, and strategy. The literature categorises OD interventions into four major types (see Figure 5.5):

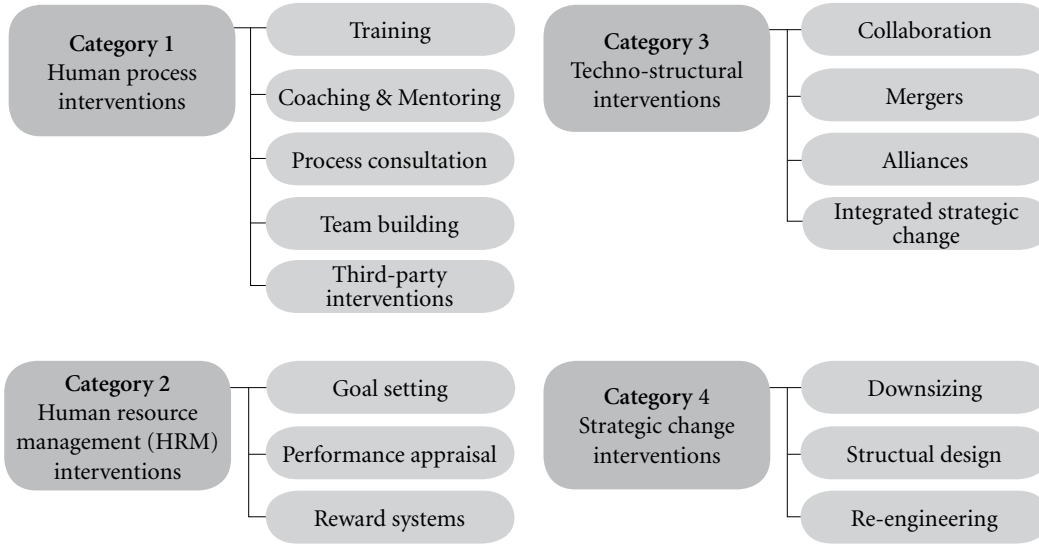

Figure 5.5 The four types of OD interventions

(Adapted from Cummings and Worley, 2005).

- Human process interventions
- Human resource management (HRM) interventions
- Techno-structural interventions
- Strategic change interventions.

Human process interventions

As shown in Figure 5.5, human process interventions (HPIs) deal with social processes among organisation members such as how to communicate, interact, lead, solve problems, and how to make decisions (Cummings and Worley, 2005). They have to do with individual competencies, interpersonal relationships, and group dynamics that are intended to improve knowledge, skills, and relations within an organisation. Interventions related to HPI include:

- *Training and development intervention*: This intervention is one of the oldest and most used OD interventions. Training is usually implemented in organisations that believe that people can change. An organisation may choose to use training and development as an intervention where skills and knowledge are lacking, rather than hire new people who possess the desired attributes. Training is a commonly used intervention for adult education within Africa. The goal of training is to improve the participants' knowledge, attitudes, and skills required in the workforce. Training managers and leaders is a common practice in today's organisations and leadership development and management development programmes are becoming increasingly popular. However, not all [training interventions] involve OD. For training to be considered an OD intervention, it must focus on changing the skills and knowledge of a group of organisation members to improve their effectiveness or to build the capabilities of an organisation

(Cummings and Worley, 2005: 219). Examples of some training delivery approaches include using face-to-face/classroom, distance education, staff exchange, simulation-based training, case-studies, computer-based training, Web-based training, and blending some or all of these delivery methods.

- *Coaching and mentoring:* Coaching and mentoring involve a guided relationship between a coach/mentor/consultant who works with member(s) of an organisation (client) to assist them in goal-clarification, transition issues, problem-solving, leadership development, change implementation, addressing performance problems, and skills development. Coaching is one of the fastest-growing areas of OD practice (Talents Ascent, 2009). Mentoring and coaching are one-on-one or team-based approaches to developing others.
- *Process consultation:* Process consultation is a set of activities that a consultant undertakes to help an organisation to realise, understand, and act upon its own processes (how it operates) in order to improve the situation (Brown and Harvey, 2006). It focuses on interpersonal relations. Process interventions help a work group become more aware of the way it operates and the way its members work with one another. It has been reported that a majority of OD practitioners used process-consulting skills more than any other OD skill mentioned (Brown and Harvey, 2006).
- *Team building or team development:* This is an intervention used to increase cohesion, cooperation and communication among workers or work units (Brown and Harvey, 2006). It focuses on member roles and group tasks. Work teams are the basic unit of any organisation and therefore organisations use the team approach to increase productivity by working more effectively and efficiently. Team members, a team leader, and an OD practitioner work collaboratively in process interventions.
- *Third-party interventions:* These are aimed at dysfunctional interpersonal relations. Conflict resolution is one of the strategies that organisations use.

Human resource management (HRM) interventions

These interventions have to do with how to attract competent people, reward them, and develop their careers, and how to set goals. In essence, HRM deals with development and performance management issues. Changes at the individual level include recruitment, selection, replacement and displacement, layoffs, retirement, transfer, and so on (Burke, 2002).

Cummings and Worley (2005) discuss the following change programmes under HRM interventions:

- *Goal setting:* This is about setting clear and challenging goals to establish a fit between individual and organisational objectives. Managers of adult education organisations, for example, can get together with their subordinates or trainees to establish individual goals and review accomplishments.
- *Performance appraisal:* This type of programme provides feedback to individuals or work groups. Performance appraisals can be a learning tool for individuals to determine their effectiveness and how they can improve. Performance appraisals link goal setting to the rewards system.
- *Reward system:* This involves designing rewards (monetary or non-monetary) to improve performance and satisfaction. Pay, promotions and benefits need to be designed, taking into consideration

organisational culture and the resources available.

Performance-based management is gaining increasing attention. Beugre' and Offodile (2001) observe that a performance-based system would allow African employees to perceive a direct link between their efforts and the compensation they receive, with a possibility of increasing productivity. Due to the collective nature of African culture, Mbigi (2004) recommends team-based rewards. Involving employees in decision-making empowers them and could enhance their motivation, and increase productivity, satisfaction and trust in an organisation (Beugre' and Offodile, 2001). Freedom of expression is clearly limited in some countries more than others; many African organisations deny their employees opportunities to air their views, leading to resentment and laying the ground for strikes, sabotage, and resistance, as well as other undesirable behaviours (Beugre' and Offodile, 2001). As an adult education manager, you will need to offer leadership in employee negotiations.

Techno-structural interventions

These interventions are grounded in the fields of engineering, psychology, and sociology. Three interventions include downsizing, structural design and re-engineering.

- *Downsizing:* This intervention is about reducing the number of personnel through layoffs, outsourcing and redesign. As a manager, you may be faced with the need to downsize. The 2008–2009 financial crises led to downsizing at all firms – large and small. As resources diminish, more downsizing of workforces is likely.
- *Structural design:* This involves changing the division of labour (tasks). Many efforts towards restructuring are mandated by the donor community, and are 'often implemented through conditions for sector lending' (World Bank, 2005: IV) and privatisation of public institutions (Varghese, 2004). Structural changes occur at all institutions, and process consultation should be used to determine how the division of labour should be structured and the most appropriate restructuring process.
- *Re-engineering:* 'This is a recent radical intervention (that) redesigns the organisation's core work process to create tighter linkage and coordination among the different tasks' (Cummings and Worley, 2005: 151). Business Process Re-engineering (BPR) could be used in order to improve customer service, quality, efficiency and effectiveness (Beugre' and Offodile, 2001). Institutional re-engineering is a survival technique because change is not only for organisations in deep trouble, or for those without problems but with foresight, but also for those operating at peak condition. Managers of adult education organisations are not immune to re-engineering; as providers of education, the quality, efficiency, and effectiveness of their programmes should be continually reevaluated and improved.

Strategic interventions

These are among the latest additions to the OD field and they are organisation-wide interventions intended to 'bring about a fit between business strategy, structure, culture, and the larger environment' (Cummings and Worley, 2005: 152). These interventions include: (a) collaboration, (b) mergers, (c) alliances, and (d) integrated strategic change (Cummings and Worley, 2005). One such user of the collaboration or alliances strategy is the University of South Africa (UNISA),

the largest distance education provider in Africa. Not only does UNISA open colleges in different countries, it also collaborates with local colleges in other nations to provide distance education to adults.

Another example of strategic intervention using collaboration includes the launch (2005) of the African Management Development Institute (AMDIN) to enhance the capacity of Africa's public servants to deal effectively with management challenges.

ACTIVITY

Read the scenario below and then answer the questions that follow.

Imagine that you are the Director of Talent and Community Development for a local bank that provides consulting and financial services. Lately, after noticing the increased need and demand for financial literacy, your bank has decided to extend its corporate social responsibility (CSR) programme to include an educational programme focusing on the importance of investing. Most of the adult population you serve know very little about this issue. Your team is responsible for initiating and launching the bank's programme, which will entail many business meetings as well as live forums in communities, schools, markets, etc. You are in charge of this change initiative, which will transform your bank's relationship with the community.

- **Identify the stakeholders (internal and external) that should be involved. Explain why they need to be involved.**
- **What are the socio-cultural issues you would take into consideration as you plan and implement this adult education initiative?**
- **Discuss other OD interventions that the bank could use to introduce the new educational programme.**

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE ADOPTION OF CHANGE

Rogers (1997) argues that there are multiple factors which determine people's attitudes toward change and influence the rate of adoption of an innovation. These include:

- *Relative advantage:* the degree to which the change is perceived to be a better idea than those it supersedes. For example, suppose you want to introduce e-learning technology for adult training that at present is delivered in a classroom setting. To determine the relative advantage, ask yourself this question: Will the students judge e-learning to be preferable to face-to-face training? If the answer is yes (that e-learning would be an advantage), this means that the adoption of the technology is likely to be positive.
- *Complexity:* To what degree is the change perceived as difficult to understand or use? The easier it is for potential users, the better. Therefore easier interventions stand a better chance of being adopted than complex or difficult interventions. We recommend that you avoid technical jargon when discussing the change and offer demonstrations or training to familiarise the stakeholders with the intervention.
- *Trialability:* the degree to which the proposed change can be experimented with on a limited basis. Find ways through which the users can try out the proposed change before it's fully rolled out. Whenever implementing change, consider a pilot test prior to full implementation. Implementing the intervention in phases or making incremental changes is also recommended.
- *Compatibility:* To what degree is the proposed change perceived as being consistent with the existing values, past experiences, and needs of potential adopters? The

closer the compatibility, the easier it will be to persuade potential adopters.
- *Observability:* the degree to which the results of the change are visible. How can you show the change in action? If it's a new technology, hold demonstration sessions that show how the new system will work, publicise its benefits, and use credible sources to encourage acceptance of the proposed initiative. Once the implementation is complete, you could post photographs, or testimonials from users, and other multimedia on your website, demonstrating how the new system is being used.

RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

'Trying something new arouses inevitable feelings of discomfort and anxiety.'
– Bonwell and Eison, 1991: 53

Even with an array of models, experience in OD, cultural considerations, and resources, resistance to change is likely to occur. Revolutionary change brings the strongest resistance compared to evolutionary change. But regardless of the type of change, people have a natural tendency to resist it. 'The more that what one leaves behind is psychologically important, the more likely one's behaviour will take the form of resistance' (Burke, 2002: 92). Changing the practice of adult education or organisational operations brings feelings of resistance. Think through the first time you enrolled in an adult education learning programme and had to study independently. You probably had feelings of resistance and discomfort. This is true of any kind of change we experience in life. The following factors help to explain why resistance occurs:

- *Cognition*: How we process information shapes our thinking and may limit our awareness of other options that exist, which may in turn reduce our acceptance of change.
- *Motivation*: Naturally, people are motivated to reduce loss and uncertainty. However, change often brings (or threatens to bring) uncertainty and a sense of loss, hence people resist.
- *Obligation*: People feel obliged to do things in a certain way. Obligation assumptions breed resistance.
- Loss of something valuable, for example, loss of freedom.
- *Loss of familiar ways*: 'known and tried' versus the movement towards the 'unknown and untried'.
- *Involvement*: People resist when they feel that they have not being involved in the change process. Therefore, as a manager, do your best to involve others.
- *Limited understanding of one's stake*: If a person does not understand what they may lose or gain from a change, then they are likely to resist. As a manager, it's your responsibility to help people understand what they stand to lose or gain from a change initiative.

Brehm's Theory of Psychological Reactance offers a valuable insight into resistance to change. When a person's feeling of freedom is in jeopardy, his or her immediate reaction is likely to be an attempt to regain this sense of freedom (Burke, 2002: 93), thus people resist if their freedom is threatened or eliminated. People like to have freedom of choice in determining and implementing change, hence our recommendation for a collaborative approach. People deny that change is necessary hence defensive feelings and behaviour are common.

As a manager of an adult education organisation, you are a change agent who

Table 5.4 Sources of individual and organisational resistance

Sources of individual resistance to change (e.g., among teachers or adult trainers)	**Sources of organisational resistance to change**
• Fear of the unknown • Economic factors • Security • Habit ('I have always done it this way' attitude) • Not feeling in control • Not possessing the skills needed • Selective information processing • Being viewed by others as not teaching in an established fashion • How one feels about one's own teaching • Not knowing how students will react	• Poor leadership • Not knowing the benefits of change • Threat to established resource allocations • Threat to established power relationships • Threat to expertise • Structural and group inertia/pressure • Limited focus of change

Source: Bonwell and Eison, 1991.

is expected to relate to individual needs by initiating a new 'psychological contract' to integrate individual needs with changed goals. An individual's tendency to resist change arises also due to the need to maintain the status quo or homeostatic state. Table 5.4 illustrates other sources of individual and organisational resistance.

Overcoming resistance to change

Managers of adult education organisations or change agents should expect resistance, provide feedback, provide a means of working through the loss that accompanies change, take into account what is being lost, and provide an opportunity for people to mourn, discuss, and deal with their loss (Burke, 2002). Resistance to change can be overcome by using education and communication to inform others about what is going on; encouraging participation and empowering others; facilitation and support; and negotiating. Manipulation and sometimes coercion are used, but these are not recommended approaches.

ACTIVITY

Read the scenario below and then answer the questions that follow.

You are the head of a community-based adult literacy programme. The learning facilities are open at the weekends to community members. In the last few weeks, there have been several complaints about sexual harassment on the part of two females who attend training during the weekend. Your supervisor has demanded that this must stop and tasked you to determine the changes that need to be put in place to prevent further harassment. You know that sex is a 'taboo' subject in your community and culture; and that raising the issue of sexual misconduct may be resented by some people.

- **Who else would you involve in this task and why?**
- **What strategies would you use to overcome people's resistance to discussing the 'taboo' subject of sex?**
- **Which OD interventions would you employ to deal with this issue?**

SUMMARY

This chapter has examined the important processes of organisational development (OD) and change. We identified the role of an organisational development consultant, and established what to look for when hiring a consultant to collaborate with. We spent some time discussing the value of OD, the types of change that affect individuals and organisations, the change process, and various OD interventions. Resistance to change and how this may be overcome were also discussed. From this chapter's treatment of the subject, we can conclude that OD supports the following values: innovation; the development of human potential; participation/engagement; performance improvement; and learning.

KEY POINTS

- Organisational development is a planned process of change, utilising technology, research, and theory to solve problems and to take advantage of opportunities in order to improve learning, performance, and organisational effectiveness.
- Organisational development and change deals with people issues and work systems issues in organisations.
- Organisational development involves internal and/or external consultants who work with the key change leader (agent of change).
- The action research model highlights nine key steps involved in the OD and change process.
- There are various types of change: planned versus unplanned and transformational change versus transactional change.
- Using multiple OD interventions has been found to be more effective than using one single OD intervention.
- The organisational factors that must be considered prior to implementing change include the readiness for change, the capabilities of the change leader, the capability to change, and the cultural context.
- Intervention design involves understanding situational contingencies and the change process itself.
- Four OD interventions were discussed: human process interventions, techno-structural interventions, strategic interventions, and human resource management interventions.
- There are multiple factors that determine people's attitudes toward change.
- Revolutionary change invokes much stronger resistance than evolutionary change.
- Resistance can be overcome or reduced using education, communication, participation and empowerment, facilitation and support, and negotiation.

ACTIVITY

In small groups, identify opportunities for OD and change within your job (past or present) or community. Discuss which of the interventions discussed in this chapter could be applied to your situation.

FURTHER QUESTIONS

1. Based on your personal experiences, what do you consider to be the most beneficial types of OD intervention? Explain why and how these interventions were/are beneficial.
2. What do you consider to be the most important qualities of a change leader?
3. What in your experience is the most common form of resistance to change?

What strategies did you use to try and overcome this resistance?

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Chapter 6

Ubuntu embedded leadership and organisational learning

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Explain the meaning of *ubuntu* and describe its relevance to managing adult education organisations.
2. Discuss the limitations of *ubuntu* in contemporary organisations.
3. Make the distinction between learning organisation and organisation learning using relevant examples.
4. Explain how adult education organisations can be developed into learning organisations as a strategy to manage change.

KEY TERMS

learning organisation An organisation that encourages people to continually expand their capacity to create results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured and where collective aspiration is set free, and people continually learn to see the whole together (Senge, 1990).

organisation learning Specific strategies and practices initiated and implemented by an organisation to promote learning among individuals within the organisation.

ubuntu Humaneness or the essence of being human; 'I in you and you in me'; togetherness; the heart of being human.

BEFORE YOU START

The literature contains numerous theories of leadership and management, the majority of which are based upon western modes of thought and practice. Trying to transplant these theories to an African organisational setting is not easy. Why do you think this is so? Discuss this question with some of your peers to see what common themes, observations and criticisms emerge. Also discuss ways in which African leadership and management models might be used instead (that is, in place of western models).

OVERVIEW

There has been an increasing interest in the role culture plays in determining human relations, and in addressing societal problems. Every society since the beginning of time has developed its own mechanisms and institutions for addressing problems in a way that preserves the integrity and fabric of the society. This chapter is devoted to the African *ubuntu* paradigm of leadership and the need for leaders to use learning to manage change at the workplace. As has been noted, '… the rate at which individuals and organisations learn may become the only sustainable competitive advantage …' (Stata, 1989: 64). Management experts agree that learning and the leverage of knowledge are the major determinants of success for organisations in the twenty-first century. Organisational learning is the key to adapting to a complex, rapidly changing and uncertain organisational climate.

The chapter provides the reader with pertinent information regarding the meaning of *ubuntu* – an important African leadership paradigm well known in many African societies. The key tenets of *ubuntu*

are presented and discussed. Also discussed in the chapter are the terms 'organisational learning' and 'learning organisation'. The importance of learning as a management strategy is summed up by the Swahili proverb *Akili ni mali* ('Intelligence is wealth'). The proverb correctly summarises the importance of investment in human resources and hence the need for managers of adult education organisations in Africa to pay close attention to the value of human resources to their organisations, communities and society. The chapter is also made relevant by the Chinese proverb which says, 'If you plan for one year, plant rice, for twenty years, plant trees but for centuries, grow leaders' (Neuschel, 2005: 23). In the case of African values, these need to be integrated in the leadership approaches because deficiencies in the performance of many organisations in Africa are partly as a result of the erosion of core values within society, especially among its younger members.

THE RELEVANCE OF THE *UBUNTU* PARADIGM OF MANAGEMENT

The focus of this chapter is on the relevance of *ubuntu* as a means of supporting learning in the organisation, and more specifically, its significance in the relationships between people in African adult learning organisations. The African *ubuntu* paradigm of leadership is based on the African philosophy and way of life known as *ubuntu (*Nafukho, 2008*)*. The word *ubuntu* comes from the Southern African Nguni language family (Ndebele, Swati/Swazi, Xhosa and Zulu). In the Eastern African region the same word is known as *omundu/muntu* and is used by the Bantu-speaking people (the Kikuyu, Luyia, Kamba, Meru, Kisii, Chagga, Baganda, Mijikenda, and so on) or *mtu* in the case of the Swahili language spoken by over 110 million people living in Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi, Zambia, Malawi, South Africa, Somalia, Sudan, Democratic Republic of the Congo, and Zimbabwe. The word *ubuntu/omundu/muntu/mtu* means *humaneness* or fellow feeling; or kindness (www.wordreference.com). Bangura (2005) notes that *ubuntu* serves as the spiritual foundation of nearly all African societies. It is an African worldview enshrined in the maxim *umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu*, meaning 'A person is a person through other persons'. Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga (2005: 11) use the saying '*omundu nomundu wa bandu*' ('An individual is an individual because of other individuals in society'). This can also be restated in the Luyia language spoken by people from western parts of Kenya as *Ubundu bwomundu, nabandu* ('What makes an individual humane, is the other individuals in society').

Meaning of *ubuntu*

Nobel Laureate Desmond Tutu, the then first black South African Anglican Archbishop of Cape Town, when asked to explain the meaning of *ubuntu* noted that there was no word in English language that could be used to explain its meaning. However, he did go on to offer the following definition:

> Ubuntu *is the essence of being a person. It means that we are people through other people. We cannot be fully human alone. We are made for interdependence; we are made for family. When you have* ubuntu*, you embrace others. You are generous, compassionate. If the world had more* ubuntu*, we would not have war. We would not have this huge gap between the rich and the poor. You are rich so that you can make up what is lacking for others. You are powerful so that you can help the weak, just as a mother or father helps chil-*

dren. (Source: http://www.beliefnet.com/story/143/story_14326_2.html).

The *ubuntu* philosophy provides society's deeper foundation of what it means to be human and exists in all societies but with different terms being used (Nussbaum, 2003). It is the essence of being human, which includes respect, dignity, solidarity, compassion and survival (Mbgigi and Maree, 1995). In addition, *ubuntu* includes core values such as empathy, sharing and cooperation. Nussbaum (2003: 9), commenting on the significance of *ubuntu,* notes, 'The intangible aspect of *ubuntu* is simply the movement and feeling of compassion for our fellow human beings in our hearts and the spontaneous desire to act in a caring and compassionate way, in which our selfhood is inspired by a sense of collective belonging.' *Ubuntu* philosophy has important implications for leadership development: a leader can build upon the spirit of togetherness that *ubuntu* invokes to encourage the organisation's members to work together to achieve their, and the organisation's, goals. *Ubuntu* also encourages people to adopt a systems-thinking approach to organisational issues, relationships, goals and problems.

The tenets of *ubuntu*

According to *ubuntu* philosophy, leaders are expected to be humane in their leadership roles by showing respect and compassion for their followers. Bangura (2005) suggests that the three main tenets of *ubuntu* are consensus building, dialogue, and spirituality, and that leaders and managers should be guided by these tenets in all that they do.

Consensus building

Bangura (2005) argues that traditional African culture has an infinite capacity for the pursuit of consensus and reconciliation. African-style democracy operates in the form of lengthy discussions. While the discussions value the hierarchy of importance among the contributors to the discussion, the speakers are usually provided with an equal chance to speak up until an agreement, consensus, or group cohesion is reached. As Mandela (1994: 20) recalls

> *Everyone who wanted to speak could do so. It was democracy in its purest sense. There may have been a hierarchy of importance amongst the speakers, but everyone was heard ... Only at the end of the meeting as the sun was setting would the regent speak. His purpose was to sum up what had been said and form some consensus among the diverse opinions. But no conclusion was forced on those who disagreed.*

Thus, the final agreement in the traditional African dispute-resolution process was signified by terms such as *omulembe* ('peace'), *obulala* ('togetherness'), *umoja* ('oneness'), *amani* ('peace'), and *simunye* ('we are one'). These terms are critical to the leadership process. Bangura (2005) also comments that the desire to agree within the context of *ubuntu* safeguards the rights and opinions of individuals and minorities to enforce group or team solidarity. The consensus tenet of *ubuntu* requires an authentic respect for individual rights and cultural values and an honest appreciation of differences among various African cultures and other cultures from within and without Africa. Managers of adult education organisations in Africa ought to learn to build consensus in their management style. People respect leaders who seek the opinions of others before major decisions are made.

Dialogue

The dialogue tenet recognises the power inherent in people in a given family, community and society to talk with one another – their capacity for dialogue. Traditional African society relied on dialogue to make meaning of the problems that it encountered. Leaders were expected to engage in dialogue with their followers to find solutions to problems facing society. Bangura (2005: 32) notes, '… with its particularity, individuality and historicality, *ubuntu,* inspires us to expose ourselves to others, to encounter differences of their humaneness in order to inform and enrich our own'.

Using the dialogue tenet of the *ubuntu* paradigm of leadership, leaders as well as those they lead are required to demonstrate a willingness to learn from others, as a way of building their own knowledge base and wisdom. Without wisdom, one can hardly lead an organisation successfully. According to *ubuntu*, if leaders are to be truly humane, they need to recognise the otherness of those they lead. Leaders are therefore challenged to acknowledge the diversity of languages, histories, values, cultures, norms, traditions, thinking processes, behaviour and customs, which make up an organisation, community or society. Thus, to understand the diversified thinking of human beings in general, dialogue is critical. The dialogue tenet of *ubuntu* emphasises the importance of individuals in organisations, communities, and society at large. The individuality, which *ubuntu* respects, defines the individual in terms of his or her relationship with others.

According to *ubuntu* philosophy, individuals in society exist in their relationship with others. The word 'individual' signifies a plurality of personalities corresponding to the multiplicity of relationships in which the individual in question stands. Being an individual means being with others. According to *ubuntu*, the conception of individuality involves moving from solitary to solidarity, from independence to interdependence, from individuality vis-à-vis community to individuality à la community (Bangura, 2005).

The *ubuntu* paradigm of leadership discourages the notion that the individual should take precedence over the community. As Bangura (2005) notes, true *ubuntu* incorporates dialogue by intertwining both relation and distance. It preserves the other in his or her uniqueness, without letting him or her slip into the distance or being reduced to a mere statistic. *Ubuntu* also emphasises respecting the historicality of the other. This refers to respecting other people's dynamic nature or process nature and their ability to learn and grow. An *ubuntu* perception of the other never reduces the other person to a mere figure, number, statistic, characteristic, conduct or function but instead acknowledges and respects the uniqueness of each individual in society. The *ubuntu* philosophy is a process of realisation through others; it also simultaneously enriches the self-realisation of others.

This is an important tenet for our present-day managers and leaders of institutions who in most cases are seldom close to the people they lead. To be a successful manager, you must understand the psychological (mind), spiritual (soul) and physical (body) needs of the people you lead and remember that you are a leader for the benefit of those you lead. In the case of the managers and leaders of adult education organisations in Africa, there is the need to create an organisational climate in which people are made to realise the fundamental principle of *ubuntu* – 'I am because we are', and 'None of us is greater than all of us'.

Spirituality

In many African cultures, spirituality plays a key role in shaping people's mental models, including their character formation. The maxim *umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu* ('A person is a person through other persons'), has a deeply spiritual meaning. The 'other persons' are, ultimately, the ancestors or the founding fathers whose spirits remain alive. By the same token, these other persons include ancestors who are our great heroes and sheroes (Bangura, 2005). Ancestors, for many African families, are part of the extended family. Dying is an ultimate homecoming. Thus, not only must the living and the dead share with and care for one another, but the living and the dead depend on one another. Many African people employ ancestors as mediators between themselves and God.

To successfully manage organisations, the founding fathers of great institutions, including schools, colleges and other teaching and learning organisations, must be remembered and respected whether dead or still living. In African societies, there is an inextricable bond between humans, ancestors and the Supreme Being. *ubuntu* therefore implies a deep respect and regard for religious beliefs and practices which are intended to guide all human endeavours in organisations. African leaders and managers must attend to the spiritual needs of the people they serve. As noted, 'Every culture, every society has a religion or a set of traditions that sets forth a set of ethics and a creed by which to live – to work and play' (Neuschel, 2005: 125).

Spirituality plays a key role in African societies and unites people to live in harmony as a community (Nafukho, 2007). Spirituality also promotes the African extended family (Mbiti, 1991). It focuses on the meaning and purpose of life and seeks answers to pertinent questions such as 'Who am I?' 'Why do I exist?' and 'Where am I going? The spirituality tenet of *ubuntu* seeks to promote societal moral values such as honesty, trustworthiness, fairness, truth, and caring for each other. It is related to the other two tenets – consensus building and dialogue – in its emphasis on the need for togetherness in all human endeavours. This principle of interdependence is noted by Nussbaum (2003: 8), who says, 'Africans have a profound understanding between the connections of past and present, between human beings and nature, of our common humanity, and of a shared spirituality'.

UBUNTU MANAGEMENT APPROACHES

According to Malunga (2006: 2), *ubuntu* is built on five management approaches: sharing and collective ownership of opportunities, responsibilities, and challenges; the importance of people and relationships over things; participatory decision-making and leadership; patriotism; and reconciliation as a goal of conflict management. In contemporary African societies, Mbigi and Maree (1995: 10) advocate an *ubuntu* management approach, which has the following five outcomes:

- The development of cooperative and competitive people
- The development of cooperative and competitive paradigms and perspectives
- The development of cooperative and competitive processes
- The development of cooperative and competitive policies and procedures
- The development of cooperative and competitive values as well as institutions.

To explain the importance of adult learning and leadership in achieving the above five outcomes, further discussion is necessary.

Leaders and managers of adult education organisations have a key role in the development of their adult learners' cooperative and competitive spirit. Thus, adult learning can be appropriately used to increase the adult learners' capacity to understand the competitive nature of the globalised world in which Africa's organisations operate. Adult learning and training should be holistic in nature and aim at promoting both the competitive and cooperative spirit in and among adult learners.

This presents a considerable challenge to leaders and managers of all organisations based in Africa, particularly in respect of the need to develop a competitive spirit and attitude in the people working within these organisations. The recent history of the African continent suggests that this might be difficult.

Colonialism depends for its existence upon the subjugation of a country, region or continent's indigenous people(s). This subjugation always involves the emasculation of the local people as the ruling (foreign) elite assume control of the region's economic, governmental, legislative and civil affairs. The region's people are marginalised, excluded from the management of their own affairs and regarded with distrust and disapproval by the colonial administrators. One outcome of this process, though there are of course a great many more, is that the local people have no opportunity to engage in the purposeful, dynamic economic activities that are necessary for the development of the 'competitive spirit' referred to above. All this, as we know, happened in Africa during the era of colonial rule and we are still living with the consequences today.

Acknowledging Africa's troubled past, Mbigi and Maree (2006: 13) nevertheless suggest a way forward: 'We need to rise above our unfortunate historical circumstances. There has to be a determination on our part to survive and succeed ...' As championed by President Barack Obama of the United States of America, what African institutions need is a complete transformation, which seeks to change people's mindsets fundamentally. Such a shift requires institutional creativity underpinned by bottom-up processes championed by the managers and leaders of adult learning institutions. As well as investing in human capital, African countries ought to adapt and develop production processes that add value to the continent's rich mineral resources.

Besides the processes, African institutions such as schools, civic organisations, colleges, political parties, and cooperative societies require dialogue and consensus building in their operations (Nafukho, 2008). The development of cooperative and competitive products and services is highly significant to the organisations in Africa faced with stiff competition from other organisations worldwide. The globalised economy in which Africa finds herself requires organisations to produce quality products and services to survive. People in Africa need to support their own organisations by consuming products and services offered by their local companies. Dr Kenneth Kaunda, former president of Zambia, comments, 'Africa's economic problem is they don't consume what they produce. We consume what we don't produce' (Mbigi and Maree, 2006: 15). This statement partly explains why Africans do not value their leadership paradigms while people from other parts of the world do. As noted, 'If the Japanese, Chinese, Europeans, and Americans have included their relevant cultural values and beliefs in their present-day leadership and management styles, and these have been adapted world over, then it should be equally relevant and appropriate to incorporate African values ...' (Nafukho, 2008: 154).

On the importance of the *ubuntu* paradigm of leadership in contemporary South Africa, Mbigi and Maree (2006: 15) observe, '*ubuntu* may mark the departure from the current confrontational approach in our industrial relations to a more cooperative and competitive approach of managing survival issues. We are not suggesting a romantic relationship between management and employees. We are suggesting a new way of forming a creative and competitive dialogue aimed at finding joint solutions.'

CASE STUDY: 100 DAYS OF LISTENING

In Ethiopia, there is a wise saying that goes like this: 'If you are a leader and new in an organisation, then you need to listen, open your eyes, ears and nose but close your mouth as a strategy to learn and work together with others in the organisation. Once you have heard from people in the organisation, and learned from them, then you can start communicating with them through talking.'

Ashifutswa followed this advice when she was appointed leader of a large adult education organisation in Addis Ababa: she spent the first 100 days of her appointment listening to people in the organisation. Guided by *ubuntu* philosophy, Ashifutswa spent her time absorbing the thoughts and opinions of the people whom she believed to be core to the success of the organisation. She later referred to this orientation period as a leader in the organisation as her '100 Days of Listening to the People'.

During this time, Ashifutswa made sure that she visited every operational area of the organisation, including the administration offices, the lecture halls, the dining hall, the student hostels, the student health centre, the cash office, the garage, the audit office, the garden and landscape management office, and the staff recreation area. She visited each location at least twice, and took her notepad with her each time. She always checked in advance to see if she could visit, and never interrupted or questioned the work of the people whom she watched and listened to. Towards the end of her '100 Days', a colleague told her that she'd been nicknamed *ubuntu* by staff members impressed with her considerate, respectful attitude and approach.

ACTIVITY

Do you think that some people may have resented Ashifutswa's presence? What action could she have taken to overcome their resentment?

Is it possible that some staff members, knowing that they were being watched and listened to, acted and spoke in a way they believed would impress Ashifutswa? How could she overcome this problem?

ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING AND LEARNING ORGANISATION

The term 'organisational learning' refers to specific strategies and practices initiated by a particular organisation to promote learning among the people working in the organisation. It is a process that encompasses communication, sharing, and broad-based integration of new knowledge into organisational routines and systems (Bontis, 2002; Crossan, Lane and White, 1999). Marsick and Watkins (2003) correctly note that organisational learning is essential due to employees frequently relocating to new jobs and hoarding knowledge for self-preservation. They further observe that organisational learning is necessary since it

allows organisations to '… think proactively of using learning in an integrated way to support and catalyse growth for individual workers, teams, and other groups, entire organisations, and (at times) the institutions and communities with which they are linked (Marsick and Watkins, 1996: 3).

Human resource development (HRD) practitioners and by extension adult learners and educators recognise that learning has long-term benefits for the individual, the organisation, and society as a whole (Nafukho, 2008). Learning should be considered as a decisive method for addressing most organisational problems and practitioners should utilise learning as a catalyst in designing, developing and implementing learning interventions as their main function within an organisation (Knowles, 1970).

'Learning organisation' on the other hand refers to organisations '… where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to see the whole together' (Senge, 1990: 3). The *ubuntu* term together is important to the organisational learning process and the learning organisation. The literature contains a number of definitions of learning organisation, including the following:

- 'an organisation skilled at creating, acquiring, and transferring knowledge, and at modifying its behavior to reflect new knowledge and insights' (Garvin, 1993: 80).
- 'a learning organisation may best be thought of as one that focuses on developing and using its information and knowledge capabilities in order to create higher-valued information and knowledge, to change behaviors, and to improve bottom-line results' (King, 2001: 14).
- 'an organisation which learns powerfully and collectively and is continually transforming itself to better collect, manage, and use knowledge for corporate success. It empowers people within and outside the company to learn as they work. Technology is utilised to optimise both learning and productivity' (Marquardt, 1996: 19).

In a globalised and rapidly changing environment like the one many organisations in Africa find themselves in; only learning organisations that are flexible, adaptive and productive can thrive, hence the need for organisations to transform themselves into learning organisations.

The learning organisation paradigm and the *ubuntu* paradigm

According to Senge (1990), real learning gets to the heart of what it is to be human. Since *ubuntu* philosophy is similarly concerned with the essential nature of human beings, we should spend some time looking at how the two paradigms complement one another.

The five disciplines of the learning organisation paradigm as advanced by Senge (1990) are similar to the five management approaches of the *ubuntu* paradigm as explained by Malunga (2009). While one may argue that there are no African paradigms of management; the *ubuntu* paradigm which Senge acknowledges in his book is one such great paradigm that can be utilised to manage change in organisations based in Africa. In both paradigms, people are at the core of any change efforts initiated by organisations. To further illustrate the importance of the learning organisation as advanced by Senge (1990), we examine the five disciplines of the learning organisa-

tion paradigm and compare them to *ubuntu* paradigms. The five disciplines are: shared vision, systems thinking, mental models, team learning and personal mastery.

Shared vision

The shared vision in the learning organisation paradigm is the same as the sharing and collective ownership of opportunities, responsibilities and challenges espoused by the *ubuntu* paradigm. Senge argues that if any one idea about leadership has inspired organisations for thousands of years, it is the capacity for the organisations to hold a shared vision of the future, which they seek to create (Senge, 1990). Organisational leaders who build a shared vision, generated by all employees in the organisation, are able to inspire others and to fill them with the optimism they need to be creative, experimental and innovative.

The construction of a shared vision is both organisationally sound and philosophically coherent. According to Senge (1990), an organisation, which develops a genuine shared vision that is people-centred (as opposed to one created in isolation by senior management figures or by an external consultancy firm), empowers individuals to learn and excel, not because they are told to or forced to follow the vision, but because they want to. It is worth stressing the pragmatic element of the shared-vision approach, since this is where its appeal lies. Many leaders develop personal visions for their organisations that are never achieved since the people were not involved in the creation of the vision in the first place. Senge argues correctly that such visions are never achieved because in most cases there is a lack of discipline for translating shared visions. The discipline of shared vision requires people in the organisation, including leaders, to learn the skills of discovering bonding 'pictures of the future that foster genuine commitment and enrolment rather than compliance' (Senge 1990: 9). People in the organisation buy into the vision if they are involved in its development and if the vision is continuously reinforced through well-established procedures.

Systems thinking

A core strength of Peter Senge's outstanding work is the way in which he convincingly expounds on systems theory in his award-winning book *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization.* According to Senge (1990), systems theory refers to the ability to comprehend and address the whole, and to examine the inter-relationship between the parts, which in turn provides the incentive and the means to integrate the disciplines. While explaining the principal issues involved in systems thinking, Senge persuasively argues that one of the key problems regarding what is written about and done in the name of management, is the use and application of simplistic frameworks to very complex systems. In most cases, there is a failure to see the organisation as a dynamic whole; instead there is a tendency to focus on individual parts or subsystems of the organisation. Senge's position is that if leaders (and managers) had a better knowledge and appreciation of systems theory, and were thus able to view their organisations in a holistic manner, the decisions and actions they took would be more appropriate and more successful.

This argument is in complete agreement with the *ubuntu* paradigm of the need to recognise and value the importance people and relationships have over things in the organisation (Malunga, 2009).

Systems theory also states the need for managers and leaders to take a long-term

view of organisational affairs. A manager or leader's natural inclination may be to do the exact opposite: to look for immediate solutions to current problems. (This is, in a way, quite natural, since most of us tend to think that cause and effect are relatively near to one another.) So, when the manager/leader is faced with a problem in an organisation, he or she chooses the nearest available 'solution', that is, the solution that seems most likely to solve the immediate problem and to produce short-term results. According to Senge, such short-term improvements, when seen from a systems theory perspective, can also involve very significant long-term costs. For example, reducing the organisation's payroll through downsizing of employees without a serious examination of the long-term consequences can lower operational costs in the short-run, but can also negatively affect the organisation's performance in the long-run when the key performers are gone.

Senge proposes the use of 'systems maps' by leaders as a means of looking after the long-term welfare of their organisations. Systems maps are diagrams showing the key elements of an organisation and how the elements connect together. To do this, leaders and managers need to learn and acquire the basic building blocks of systems theory and to apply them to their organisations.

Mental models

Mental models are 'deeply ingrained assumptions, generalisations, or even pictures and images that influence how we understand the world and how we take action' (Senge 1990: 8). The mental model discipline of the learning organisation paradigm is similar to the spirituality tenet of the *ubuntu* paradigm as explained by Malunga (2009). Spirituality plays a key role in shaping people's mental models, including their character formation. According to Senge, the discipline of mental models starts with turning the mirror inward; learning to unearth our internal pictures of the world, to bring them to the surface and hold them rigorously to scrutiny. As he correctly notes, 'It also includes the ability to carry on "learningful" conversations that balance inquiry and advocacy, where people expose their own thinking effectively and make that thinking open to the influence of others' (Senge 1990: 9).

For individuals in organisations to learn and adapt to change in a positive way, they must be willing and able to suspend their own mental models of the world around them and open their minds to new, creative and challenging ideas. This should be supported by organisational practices which nurture organisational learning – 'Moving the organisation in the right direction entails working to transcend the sorts of internal politics and game playing that dominate traditional organisations … [it] means fostering openness' (Senge 1990: 273–286).

Team learning

The team learning discipline of the learning organisation paradigm is similar to the dialogue tenet of the *ubuntu* paradigm. Senge (1990: 236) explains team learning as, 'the process of aligning and developing the capacities of a team to create the results its members truly desire'. The dialogue tenet of *ubuntu* recognises the power inherent in people in a given family, community, organisation, or society to talk with one another to address issues – in other words, they possess a capacity for dialogue (Nafukho, 2008).

According to Senge, team learning builds on personal mastery (see below) and shared vision; however, these two disciplines are necessary but not sufficient. People in any organisation need to be able to act together. This is in line with the *ubuntu* core

principle, 'I am because we are and because you are, I am.' Peter Senge argues that when teams learn together, not only can there be good results for the organisation but members will also grow more rapidly than they would have on their own.

The discipline of team learning, like the dialogue tenet of *ubuntu*, begins with 'dialogue', and the capacity of members of a team to suspend assumptions and enter into a genuine 'thinking together'. Where there is genuine dialogue, the people involved learn from others and are able to see 'the bigger picture', adopt a systems view of issues at hand, and avoid being petty or parochical in manner or outlook. Managers and leaders of adult education organisations in Africa need to make the dialogue tenet of the *ubuntu* paradigm the cornerstone of their operation. It should be the guiding principle in their management practices.

Personal mastery

The personal mastery discipline of the learning organisation paradigm as advanced by Peter Senge can be compared to the consensus building and reconciliation tenet of the *ubuntu* paradigm. As noted earlier in this chapter, the consensus building and reconciliation tenet of *ubuntu* recognises that every individual in the organisation has an infinite capacity for the pursuit of consensus and reconciliation.

However, to do this, the individuals concerned need to constantly update their knowledge and skills. Personal mastery is the discipline of 'continually clarifying and deepening our personal vision, of focusing our energies, of developing patience, and of seeing reality objectively' (Senge, 1990: 7). This is similar to the *ubuntu* consensus building process that calls for patience, reflection, intuition and the provision of a system that allowed these qualities to emerge. Individuals who embrace the concept and practice of personal mastery, observes Senge (1990: 142), 'live in a continual learning mode'.

The personal mastery discipline also calls for leaders to be truthful and to build trust among those they lead; for without trust, there is no leadership (Neuschel, 2005). Personal mastery allows people in an organisation to understand the views of others, and increases the probability of consensus building being the preferred choice for managing and resolving organisational conflict.

ACTIVITY

Think of several occasions when conflict has arisen in your organisation. Discuss which of the five disciplines of the learning organisation paradigm you would use to resolve these conflicts. You may of course decide that two or more disciplines are needed in certain circumstances. (The five disciplines are: shared vision, systems thinking, mental models, team learning, and personal mastery.)

The need for the organisational learning paradigm in the management of adult education organisations

Several commentators have noted the importance of the organisational learning paradigm to the management of adult education organisations in Africa. Marquardt (1996), for example, notes four areas of societal change that necessitate organisational learning:

- Economic, social and scientific change (globalisation, competition, environmental and ecological pressures)
- A changing workplace environment (technology, organisation structure and

size, total quality management, workforce diversity and mobility)
- Changing customer expectations (due to the influences of variety and better quality offered in the global economy)
- Changing employee expectations (including the need for learning the new job requirements of manufacturing referred to as 'mentofacturing' (Marquardt, 1996: 13).

We can also note the comments of the following authors in relation to the concept and practice of organisational learning:

- 'Learn or die' (Wick and Leon, 1993: 19).
- 'Learning is at the heart of a company's ability to adapt to a rapidly changing environment' (Prokesch, 1997: 148).
- '[R]eal customer satisfaction is now inextricably tied to innovation' (Baum, Ittner, Larcker, Low, Siesfeld and Malone, 2000: 142).

SUMMARY

This chapter was devoted to the African *ubuntu* paradigm of leadership and the need for leaders to use learning to manage change and improve performance at the workplace. The key tenets of *ubuntu* were presented and discussed. Also discussed in the chapter were the terms 'organisational learning' and 'learning organisation'. The five disciplines of the learning organisation paradigm as advanced by the renowned scholar and author Peter Senge were presented and compared to the core tenets of the *ubuntu* paradigm. The chapter ended with a proposal that the organisational learning paradigm should be included in the management of adult education organisations in Africa.

KEY POINTS

- Every society has developed its own mechanisms and institutions for addressing problems in a way that preserves the integrity and fabric of the society.
- Management experts agree that learning and the leverage of knowledge are the major determinants of success for organisations in the twenty-first century.
- Organisational learning is the key to adapting to a rapidly changing and uncertain organisational climate.
- Traditional African values of a positive nature need to be integrated in the leadership and management approaches of adult education organisations, since the erosion of these core values has been a major factor in the under-performance of many of these organisations.

ACTIVITY

Identify the institutions in your country that offer HRD diploma, bachelor and post-graduate programmes. Arrange for a formal interview with the leader of one of these organisations (or more than one if your work and study commitments allow it), and discuss with them the relevance of *ubuntu* philosophy to the programmes on offer to adult learners.

FURTHER QUESTIONS

In small groups, discuss the following question: What are the similarities and differences between the *ubuntu* paradigm of leadership and the learning organisation paradigm of leadership as advanced by Senge and Malunga?

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Chapter 7

Planning, implementation and evaluation

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Justify the value of planning and evaluation for adult education organisations.
2. Justify the need for using technology in managing adult education organisations.
3. Plan a training programme and design an evaluation plan for an adult education organisation.
4. Identify appropriate tools that you can use to manage your programmes.

KEY TERMS

evaluate To determine or fix the value, the significance, worth or condition of something, usually by careful appraisal and study (*Miriam-Webster Dictionary*, 2006).

implement To carry out or accomplish something.

KPIs Key Performance Indicators. These indicators use financial and non-financial metrics to track progress and define what 'success' should look like. They are used as a management tool to measure progress towards goals or to quantify objectives.

monitor To watch, keep track of, or check, usually for a special purpose.

plan To have in mind, to devise or project the realisation or achievement of a programme (*Miriam-Webster Dictionary*, 2006).

planning The process of establishing work scope, goals, policies, and procedures for a social or economic unit (*Miriam-Webster Dictionary*, 2006).

social return on investment (SROI) SROI

analysis is a method for understanding the environmental and social value being created by organisations in addition to the financial value generated. The SROI approach, like traditional ROI analysis, utilises cost-benefit analysis techniques (Ontario Trillium Foundation, 2008).

triangulation The use of multiple methods to collect and analyse data.

BEFORE YOU START

Discuss your experiences of attending or coordinating programmes within an adult education organisation. You can use the following questions to guide your discussion:

1. **What type of programme was provided?**
2. **What was the purpose of the programme?**
3. **What elements of the programme were planned or implemented properly?**

During the above exercise it is likely that many different types of programmes were mentioned. The range of programmes offered in adult education organisations is indeed wide, and we cannot provide a complete list here. However, the following selection gives a good indication of the variety of learning programmes targeting adult learners in Africa: orientation programmes for new employees; church-based seminars for men or women; profressional development seminars/workshops; short courses for recertification; safety training; language lessons; job retreats to foster teamwork; and democracy forums to promote voters' rights or women's rights.

Regardless of the initiative or setting, a common denominator among all adult education organisations is the need to plan, implement and evaluate whatever initiative(s) are undertaken.

In this chapter, various models and approaches of the Planning, Implementation and Evaluation (PIE) process will be presented. We will examine how technology can be integrated into these processes as tools for data collection, analysis, and dissemination of results.

OVERVIEW

'He who fails to plan, plans to fail.'

Applied in any setting, the above quote underscores the need for planning prior to implementing any idea, programme or project. Failure to plan adequately leads to inefficient use of resources, poor results, and could ultimately result in organisational failure. With the limited resources adult education organisations in Africa have at their disposal, the need for managers to plan properly is absolutely essential.

Managers of adult education organisations in Africa are involved not only in planning, implementing, and evaluating stand-alone programmes but also in overall organisational performance. In this chapter, given the number of times the phrase occurs, we will refer to the process of planning, implementing, and evaluating as the PIE process. This process flow is presented in Figure 7.1. This simple-looking graphic covers a number of important and complex issues regarding the management of adult education organisations, and the purpose of this chapter is to identify and examine these issues. The chapter's other main purpose is to equip you with the tools you need to plan, implement, manage, and evaluate programmes and projects within an adult education organisation.

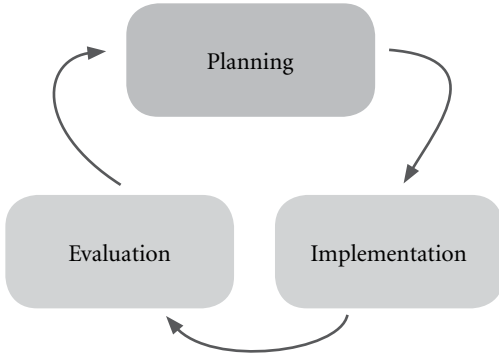


Figure 7.1 PIE process flow

PLANNING

'A goal without a plan is just a wish.'
– Larry Elder

Planning is a prerequisite for reaching one's goals. Planning must happen prior to implementation and evaluation. After careful planning, implementation of the plan follows, and then, finally, an evaluation to determine whether the planned goals were met. This is a cyclical process whereby the results of an evaluation provide an organisation with direction on where plans need to be rectified and/or what to plan for next.

Planning is important in all aspects of an adult education organisation's operations. For example, the manager needs to plan for the efficient and effective use of the various resources the organisation has, including resources of time, capital, labour, facilities, technologies, and so on. The manager also needs to ensure the effective provision of the organisation's programmes, which will involve planning and coordinating the use of the above-named resources.

As we have discovered in earlier chapters, all organisations need to have a vision. The vision represents the organisation's ultimate purpose or goal and it is the end to which all organisational efforts are directed. This vision and the mission statement that accompanies it, are critical; without them an organisation is destined to fail. Why? Simply because 'If you do not know where you are going, how will you know when you get there?'

A plan is simply a map that directs you towards your end destination – to the achievement of your organisation's vision. A good plan will also show you the things you need to do and the sequence of events

that needs to be followed. A useful analogy is to think of the plan(s) an architect draws up for the construction of a house. The plan serves several purposes: it allows the client to visualise what his or her dream home will look like; it provides the local planning authority, quantity surveyor, building contractor, and structural engineer with the information they need to carry out their work; and it serves as a useful reference document for all interested parties. A good organisational plan, as we will discover, has similar purposes and is just as crucial to the achievement of a 'dream', which in our case is the organisation's vision.

We begin by looking at strategic planning, which is a form of planning that is becoming increasingly popular in Africa's organisations. Strategic planning today is not what it was a decade ago. Then, a strategic plan was generally a medium- to long-term plan (typically three to five years long and sometimes longer) that mapped out the organisation's activities against a relatively stable and predictable future. Today, however, things are very different: change is so rampant that organisations have to constantly revise their strategy and plan for a future that is not so certain. There is of course still a place for the type of strategic planning that provides the overall direction of an organisation, but a manager must nowadays be prepared to modify the plan whenever necessary to confront the seemingly daily changes occurring in both the internal and the external environment. That is why we recommend a 'living strategic plan' for organisations that wish to thrive in these ever-changing times. A living strategic plan is one that is revisited and revised on an ongoing basis; one that constantly seeks out emerging opportunities in the environment (external and internal), monitors resource use and application, studies competitors' behaviour, and devises ways of reducing or overcoming threats and challenges. The proactive, dynamic nature of a living strategic plan is also a useful means of coming to terms with the fallout of the 2008–2009 worldwide recession. For the organisations that survived the crash, the need for sound financial management practices has assumed an even greater importance than before. A living strategic plan offers managers the opportunity to construct realistic plans and projections that can be modified, or even replaced, should conditions in the national or world economies change.

Often you will notice new organisations that overtake established ones in the market not only because of the superiority of their products or services, but also because they have a clear plan of where they want to go. For example, following the increase in global terrorism and associated challenges, including strict visa regulations for overseas travel, innovative adult education organisations began offering Web-based training (e-learning and/or distance learning) to meet the learning needs of millions of African adults hungry for more knowledge and skills. To meet this growing demand for knowledge and new skills, some organisations have established partnerships (locally or abroad) or built their own e-learning (and classroom-based) programmes. These are the kinds of changes in planning that managers ought to be prepared to make as the environment changes.

What is amazing is the ever-increasing demand for undergraduate and postgraduate courses, especially in the last decade. Various indicators show a growing number of suppliers of higher education and a steady demand reflected in the number of adult programmes in university campuses, the emergence of new colleges and programmes, working adults' demand for professional development, and the amount of press and online marketing connected to

the provision of adult education. In addition, information and communication technology (ICT) is revolutionising the way in which people live, work, interact, socialise, and study. Fibre optic technology is bringing ICT to more and more communities in Africa and we are likely to see many more educational organisations make use of these emerging technologies in the future. Cost savings and increased accessibility are some of the benefits for individual adult learners and organisations. Such technological changes call for new plans or modification of existing plans.

We can summarise the main benefits of planning by saying that it helps to ensure that:

- The daily activities align with and contribute to the mission and vision of an organisation.
- Everyone involved knows the goal and understands what should be done.
- Tasks are started and completed in a timely manner.
- People involved are aware of what their roles and responsibilities are.
- Organisations can identify future needs, foresee problems, and look for alternative methods of approach or solutions.
- Organisational resources (money, time, people,) are used effectively and efficiently.

Aligning an organisation's vision, mission and goals

Good planning must comply with the mission and vision of an organisation. The vision statement articulates the organisation's aspirations and the mission statement describes the overall reason behind the existence of the organisation. Because of the broadness of a mission, it should be broken down into goals. Each goal should reflect the Key Performance Indicators (KPIs), which are used as a management tool to measure progress towards goals or to quantify objectives. These indicators use financial and non-financial metrics to track progress and define what 'success' should look like. Also, KPIs should be reflected in the tasks that people strive to achieve on a daily basis.

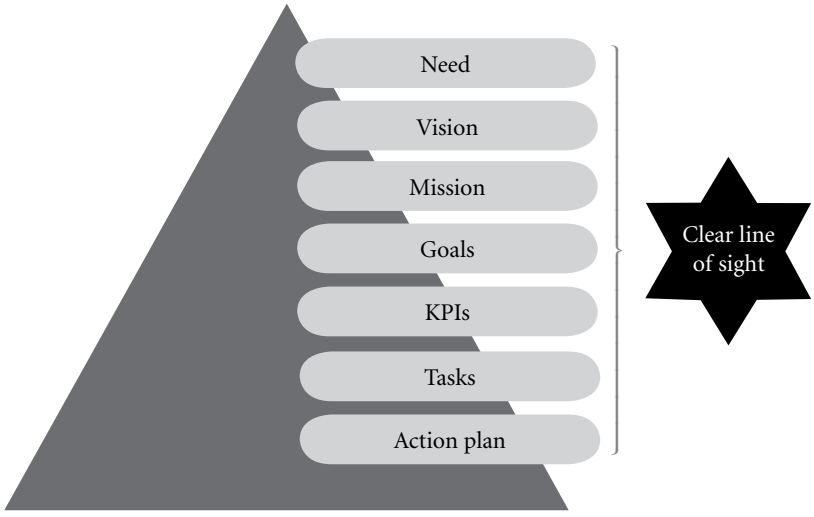


Figure 7.2 Aligning an organisation's vision, mission and goals

The overall aim is to ensure that the vision, mission and goals of an organisation are in alignment (see Figure 7.2).

It is essential that the 'line of sight' (see Figure 7.2) linking the daily tasks and actions to the overall vision is made clear – that the actors/stakeholders must understand why they do what they do (Talents Ascent, 2009). Such clarity improves their understanding of the organisation and can also be motivational.

A good action plan should incorporate answers to these questions:

- *Why?* This is the first and vital question that you must address prior to further planning or implementation. First determine the purpose of the adult education organisation. What is the underlying need that it will address or gap that it will fill? In answering this question, you are in effect stating the vision of the organisation. For example, the need you will address or the gap you will fill is to eradicate adult illiteracy.
- *What?* After the purpose is made clear, you need to determine exactly what services the organisation will provide. All proposed services or programmes should go towards meeting the need(s) identified. Here, you are articulating the mission of the organisation. So, if our vision is to eradicate adult illiteracy, we could describe our mission as follows: To eradicate illiteracy by the year 2030 by providing free adult education classes in selected rural communities.
- *Who?* Here, you identify all the people that your organisation will provide services for, employ, negotiate with, seek funding from, consult, compete with, and so on. For people directly connected to the organisation – educators, workers, learners, and facilitators – you will need to address a wide range of further questions relating to each group's specific needs.
- *How?* Articulate the strategies that will be used to reach the organisation's goals, mission, and vision. For example, how will the organisation identify and attract adult learners to attend its programme? How will these adults be motivated to ensure that they keep attending the classes? How will they be recognised or rewarded for good performance?
- *Where?* Establish where the organisation will be based, which will usually also be the place where its services are provided. In many cases, adult education facilities are located in urban centres, since this is where the majority of the potential adult learners, educators and workers live. However, this can create problems for people living in rural areas who have neither the money nor time to travel into the town or city to attend classes or to pay for the cost of hostel accommodation if the distance involved makes daily travel unrealistic. Branch locations and mobile educational units help in this respect. So too can distance learning and/or e-learning, which allow adult learners to study in remote locations and so save on transportation, accommodation and other costs. An emerging trend among small and medium organisations is the use of rented, shared space or 'virtual' office services as a means of cutting down costs. It is important to define 'where next' as goals are met and new ones are set. The results from a needs assessment are useful guides to help you prioritise goals, while keeping the market trends and the leaders' vision in mind.
- *When?* Adult education organisations offer courses and programmes of study that can be categorised as long-term (for example, undergraduate or postgraduate degree programmes), medium-term (for example, one-year vocational training programmes), or short-term (for example, a month-long refresher course

in project management). These details should be included in the action plan, while information also needs to be given regarding the time of study (for example, day-time courses versus evening classes) and whether students attend on a full-time or a part-time basis.

- *How much?* The cost of providing adult education programmes and courses is an issue of great importance for both the providers and the users. Most adult education organisations experience financial problems of one sort or another. In the vast majority of cases, these problems are due to budget limitations – the providers simply don't have the finances available to provide the service(s) their vision has established. Competition for funds is intense and there is no guarantee that even the best-written proposals will be successful. An ancillary problem is the mismanagement of an organisation's funds due to corruption, incompetence or poor financial management procedures (which we will look at in more detail in Chapter 9).
- *How well*? Well-written goals, objectives, and Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) must have a measurable component to them. They should indicate not only what but also how well an organisation is supposed to do in its pursuit of its mission. The objectives should be SMART: **S**pecific, **M**easurable, **A**chievable, **R**ealistic, and **T**ime-bound, since these are the important criteria against which the programme(s) will later be monitored and evaluated.

Let's suppose, for example, that an adult education organisation in Ghana establishes the following programme goal: to increase the literacy skills of 5 000 adults in four rural districts over a five-year period. This is in itself a well-written goal. However, it can be refined and improved further through establishing clear KPIs, which could be: enrol at least 1 000 adults each year (recruitment rate); 80 per cent of the adults who attend these classes will complete the programme (retention rate). The KPIs introduce the necessary element of measurability, which can be augmented by stating the precise Learning Objectives (LOs) of the programme. The LOs of a programme of this nature would read something like: After attending a five-year course offering English and Mathematics classes, the adult education participants will be able to: read and write at class-five level; perform simple calculations including addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division; and utilise simple mathematics to sell their produce in the market.

MODELS OF PROGRAMME PLANNING

Planning models can be simple or complex, and linear or non-linear. Remember that a good model is one that can be adapted to fit your situation or organisation's needs. In this section, rather than discussing wide-scale organisational planning, we will instead focus on programme planning, since this is a key responsibility of all managers of adult education organisations.

Although we will concentrate on planning training initiatives, training is not the only initiative available to adult education managers. Non-training interventions demand equal attention and these models can be adapted to fit a variety of interventions.

The ADDIE Model

This instructional design model is commonly referred to as the ADDIE model (**A**nalyse/Assess, **D**esign, **D**evelop, **I**mplement, and **E**valuate). Figure 7.3 illustrates

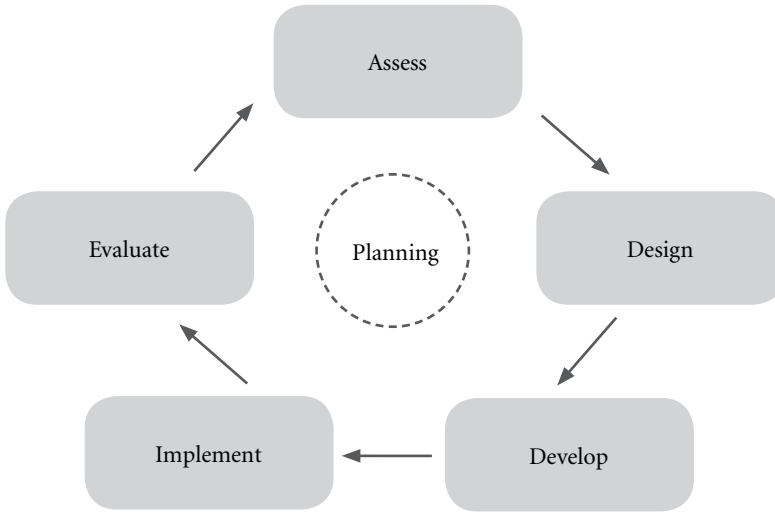


Figure 7.3 The ADDIE model

the five key processes. These steps should not be looked at as stand-alone events but rather as ongoing processes that inform and influence one another. Regardless of the type of organisation, a needs analysis (needs assessment) should be the first activity to plan for. A needs assessment, also called 'front-end analysis' or 'baseline study', determines the needs of an organisation or its stakeholders. It helps to determine where gaps lie, what potential solutions could be integrated, and the priority areas. Market analysis/research is also vital in understanding the market being targeted (consumers, desired products/services, customers). These also have to be planned for and the results should be the basis for all subsequent planning. Needs analyses are conducted through interviews with various stakeholders, surveys, observations, and so on (for a full review of action research methods, we suggest that you refer to *African Perspectives on Adult Learning: Research Methods for Adult Educators in Africa*, by Chilisa and Preece [2006]).

Feedback should be provided throughout these processes in order to ensure communication among stakeholders and to make improvements along the way. While this model is used mostly for training programmes, you can adapt it to plan for any other kind of initiative.

The interactive model of programme planning

This model, suggested by Rosemary Caffarella (2002), will be used here since it is non-linear and reflects the true reality of programme planning. The unique circumstances and the results of the needs assessment should help to determine where to start.

☐ *Programme planning checklist:* This checklist is based mostly on Caffarella's (2002) interactive model of programme planning. Most of the items on this checklist are useful regardless of the kind of programme you are planning. However, there may be some components that may not be as applicable depending on your organisation's goal, context, or mandate. Each component of programme planning involves tasks and decision points.

☐ *Understand the context/organisation*: The onset of any assessment is to understand the context within which you are working. If you are already in-house, this makes it much easier to understand the context.

☐ *Build a solid base of support*: Establish the key stakeholders, the power base, and find key collaborators. In Chapter 2, we discussed the value of involving or partnering with others within and outside of the organisation (stakeholders). Right from the start, identify stakeholders who will later be involved in implementing the programme and have them participate in the planning stage.

☐ *Identify programme ideas*: What is the goal of the planned programme? What kinds of programmes would people be interested in? What skills are necessary for the job? The programme choice(s) should be based on needs assessment results.

☐ *Sort and prioritise programme ideas:* The needs assessment results should be the key guide for this prioritisation. Organisations will differ as to what is important depending on their nature of business, trends, external pressures, and so on. Start with what is both important and urgent.

☐ *Develop programme objectives*: Each programme should have a goal and the supporting objectives should align to the goal and to the overall mission and vision of the organisation.

☐ *Design instructional plans*: An instructional plan acts as a step-by-step guide for the trainer during the training/implementation stage. If it's a non-training programme, substitute the term 'instructional' with 'programme plan', 'meeting agenda', or 'action plan'.

☐ *Devise transfer of learning plans*: Identify how the learners will be evaluated to check whether the training had any impact on their attitudes and on the job. Even for non-training programmes, it's important to evaluate lessons learned from the undertaking.

☐ *Formulate evaluation plans*: The evaluation plan should not wait till the end. Use the programme objectives to design the evaluation plan.

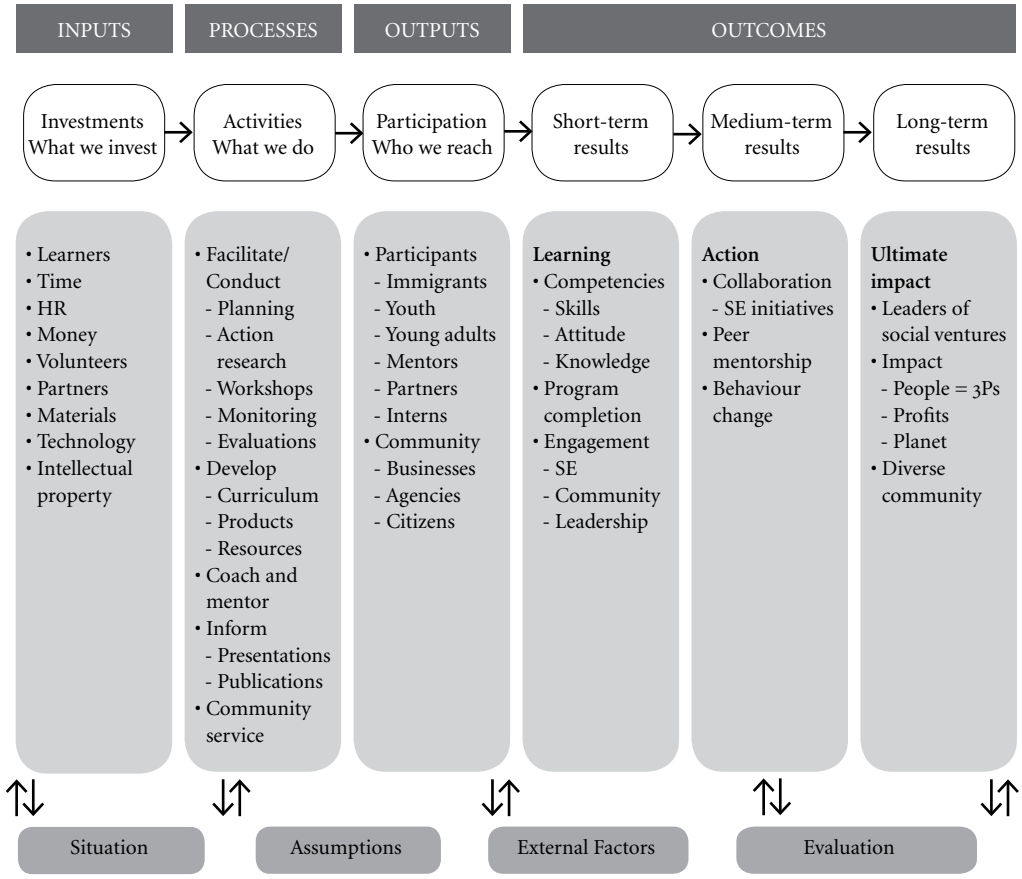
☐ *Make a plan for communicating results:* Feedback should be sought at all levels and continuously communicated to all stakeholders. As shown in Figure 7.1, the arrows indicate feedback from every step/phase and closes the loop.

☐ *Select format, schedules, and staff needs*: In this age of technology, various formats are possible. Identify whether the programme will be delivered face-to-face or at a distance (via electronic means, for example, the Internet, video, and so on). A schedule of events or an agenda should be prepared. Alongside each item, specify who will be responsible for each task. Again, if there are collaborators, this should be evident in this plan.

☐ *Prepare budgets and marketing plans:* Marketing helps to inform people and to attract them to the programme on offer. Budgeting for each and every cost item is essential. (Chapter 9 covers the issue of financial management in more detail.)

☐ *Coordinate facilities and on-site events:* Every programme requires hosting, either on-site, online, at an off-site space, or a combination of these. Some adult education organisations may have a hall or conference room where events can be held, while other organisations may need to rent space. If it's a collaborative project, there is a possibility that partners may host the event(s). Explore various options, taking into account proximity to stakeholders, accessibility, budget, number of people involved, technologies available, and time constraints.

Figure 7.4 An example of a Programme Logic Model (Talents Ascent, 2009)



Logic model

A logic model is a great tool in defining a programme's PIE process. It is like a road map, usually presented in graphic form, which highlights a programme's key inputs (what's invested), assumptions, processes (activities), outputs (short-, medium-, and long-term results), and outcomes (impact).

'It is a framework for describing the relationships between investments, activities, and results'; a depiction of a programme showing what it will do and what it wishes to accomplish. It involves 'a series of if-then relationships that, if implemented as intended, lead to the desired outcomes' (University of Wisconsin-Extension, 2002–2005). You may refer to other planning and evaluation-focused resources to learn more about logic models.

Figure 7.4 is an example of an action-logic model for a programme that seeks to develop leadership competencies among emerging social entrepreneurs (Talents Ascent, 2009).

ACTIVITY

Read the following scenario and then answer the questions that follow.

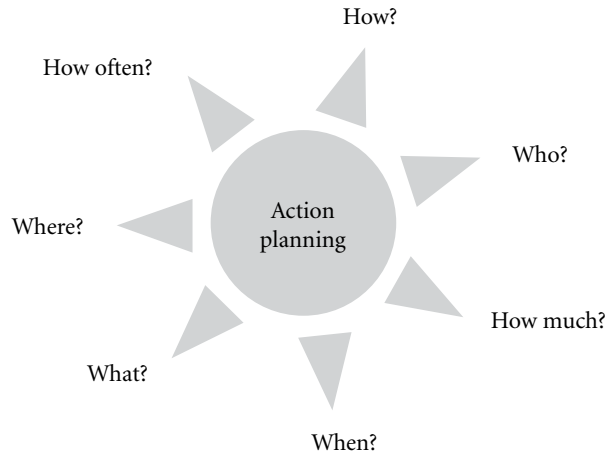


Figure 7.5 Components of an action plan

You are the Director of People Development in the Ministry of Education. Recently, there have been numerous strikes, school closures, teacher resignations, and letters of complaints in the various regions of the country. The media are following developments closely and there have been many reports of parents expressing concern for the safety of their children. The Minister of Education has demanded that you urgently initiate a conflict resolution training programme for high school principals across the country. The resources available to you are $50 000 and a team of three trainers.

- **Working in groups, and based on the information given above, brainstorm and design a plan for this programme. You can use Figure 7.5 as a brainstorming tool.**
- **Discuss how you would adapt the Caffarella (2002) ADDIE model to fit this programme plan.**

IMPLEMENTATION

Implementation begins as the recommendations from the needs assessment results and the emerging plan are actually carried out – where the rubber meets the road! Getting to the implementation phase does not imply that the planning stops; it means that stakeholders start acting on some aspects of the plan. Implementation involves a range of different activities, including:

- Obtaining the resources needed to run the programme (personnel, equipment, materials, land/buildings, utilities, and so on).
- Identifying the roles and responsibilities of all stakeholders and assigning tasks.
- Modifying plans based on daily realities and shifting priorities.
- Dealing with unanticipated events and/or consequences.
- Meeting with stakeholders and partners to exchange feedback on progress made, challenges faced, opportunities identified, and satisfaction levels reached, and to negotiate new interventions, conditions of service, course/programme content, and so on.

- Overseeing the provision of planned services, courses and programmes to ensure that they are delivered according to the plan
- Analysing and assessing performance of the organisation, and its facilitators, learners and workers.

The implementation stage is clearly critical; without implementation plans remain just that – plans!

However, it is also important to remember that, wherever possible, the implementation should follow the plan, and not vice versa. The manager needs to remain aware that too many changes to the plan may disrupt service delivery, add to the costs of implementation, create a new set of problems, and undermine the achievement of the organisation's vision and mission. This is where a pilot study or feasibility study can help, since it gives the manager the chance to test out the likely success or failure of the plan before committing to full-scale implementation. Weaknesses or flaws revealed in the pilot study can then be resolved prior to actual implementation.

Any identified strengths in the pilot could also be adapted in other areas.

The sizes of adult education programmes and the number of people involved differ from one organisation to another and even among functions in one organisation. Resources are a key determinant of how many individuals are involved in the implementation process. The following players (titles may vary) are usually involved in the implementation stage:

- An *instructional designer or curriculum/educational developer* who designs and develops the curriculum or content.
- A *graphic designer* who designs materials, particularly multimedia content such as audio-video clips, databases, or websites.
- A *facilitator or instructor* who delivers the content and facilitates meetings related to an adult education initiative such as focus groups, interviews, and so on.
- An *evaluator* who guides and conducts the monitoring and evaluation processes.
- A *marketer* who is responsible for marketing and recruits programme participants or sells a service or product, either externally or internally.
- A *business developer* who identifies new markets and opportunities for an adult education organisation.
- *Working teams/committees*. In an increasingly collaborative workplace, working with others is becoming the norm. Virtual teams are now possible because of web-based technologies. Regardless of members' locations, managers can now work in teams or committees, face-to-face or virtually.
- *Management teams*. Depending on the programme or setting, this could be a Manager, a CEO, a Board of Directors, a Senate, or a Programme Committee responsible for overseeing a programme.

In some organisations, particularly those with limited budgets, one person may perform all of the above tasks. Obviously, in order for them to be performed properly, a broad range of competencies is required; an issue that lies beyond the scope of this chapter.

EVALUATION

Evaluation is about measuring the impact or contribution made by a programme, service or product. Adult education organisations should make provision in their plan for the continuous monitoring and evaluation of their course, programmes and service delivery.

It is important to point out the difference between monitoring and evaluation, since

these two terms are often used interchangeably. 'Monitoring is the continual process of collecting and analysing data to determine if an initiative is achieving its intended results. Evaluation is the periodic assessment of the results of particular processes or activities' (Universalia, 2009). The purpose of monitoring is for the stakeholders to have timely and relevant information about an ongoing programme/project to help them in decision-making.

The evaluation plan must be 'comprehensive in nature, practical in value, and economically feasible' (Phillips, 1997).Therefore, in addition to evaluating stand-alone projects and programmes, organisational performance should be evaluated as well (MacPherson, 2005). This is because evaluations often reveal major organisational issues beyond the deliverables of a project. Always examine the system within which projects and programmes are run.

The purpose of doing an evaluation

The purpose of evaluation is neither to lay blame on poor performers nor to prove cause and effect (McLean, 2007); rather, an evaluation examines the process to determine what is working and what is not working. There are a number of reasons why adult education organisations should engage in an evaluation of their programmes:

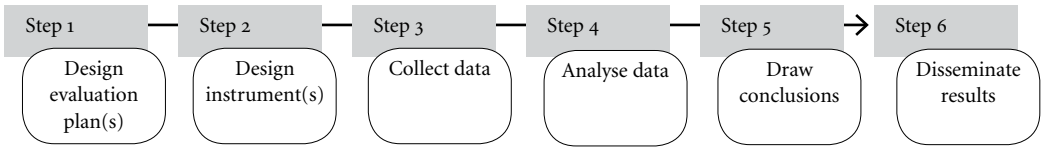
- To determine whether modifications need to be made (change the way things are done)
- To determine whether the initiative is the right one and if it is delivering good results
- To be accountable to stakeholders (partners, shareholders, employees, learners, and funders)
- To build intellectual capital (learning) within an organisation (McLean, 2006)
- To receive feedback for organisational improvement
- To keep doing what is effective and to stop doing what is ineffective
- To improve the overall organisational performance
- To make critical organisational decisions relating to staff recruitment and retention, and to the competencies required for each job. (See, for example, the article by Strasser, London, and Kortenbout (2005), which describes the competency framework and evaluation tool the authors developed for primary care nursing in South Africa. The full reference for this article is given at the end of this chapter.)

The increased demand for evaluation

Adult education organisations in Africa have been failing because of inefficiencies resulting from corruption, incompetence, political pressure, and nepotism, among other reasons. This has created an increased demand for greater accountability on the part of these organisations. For example, donor agencies now require grant recipients to ensure that funded programmes produce the desired impact and are effectively and efficiently run. Most development evaluation has been 'supply-driven', whereby donors require evaluation and accountability of aid recipients and their projects (MacPherson, 2005). Instead of evaluation being supply-driven, we recommend that adult education organisations adopt a 'demand-driven' approach to evaluation. This means that stakeholders such as management and employees know the value of an evaluation and actually plan for and support it.

The changing delivery methods used by adult education organisations further warrant evaluations. The traditional nature of instruction as we know it (teacher, chalk,

Figure 7.6 Steps to the evaluation process



and blackboard) is changing rapidly. The increasing number of adult education services and programmes delivered at a distance (via technology) calls for a more serious evaluation of the quality of education that is sold to audiences in Africa. Therefore, it is becoming even more essential to evaluate such new initiatives. Harry and Perraton (1999: 5) offer this supporting rationale: 'Within frontiers, there are usually structures for the regulation or self-regulation of university activities, but there is less regulation across frontiers and less still in cyberspace.'

Why evaluations are not done

There are several reasons why managers choose not to, or are unable to conduct evaluations:

- Lack of knowledge or expertise on how to evaluate. 'Usually one person will not own all of the requisite knowledge needed to do the evaluation adequately. A team of experts who complement each other are much more likely to produce a sound evaluation' (Fitzpatrick, Sanders, and Worthen, 2004: 113).
- Gaining acceptance of evaluation results is usually difficult (McLean, 2006).
- Evaluations can be time-consuming and expensive.
- Concern that the results of the evaluation may damage one's credibility can persuade some managers to avoid conducting evaluations.
- The people charged with conducting the evaluation do not know what questions to ask, how to phrase the questions, how to capture and analyse multiple variables, or to whom to direct the questions (Bernthal, 1995; Mungania and Hatcher, 2004).

The role of the evaluator in the evaluation process

Conducting effective evaluations is only possible if an effective evaluator is used. As the last observation in the previous section (bullet 5) made clear, the evaluation process is not something that everyone is capable of. Trained in-house personnel or hired external professionals are needed, and, as we have discussed previously, this is largely a matter of organisational resources and capacity. Whether the evaluator is internal or external, there are a number of phases or steps to the evaluation process as shown in Figure 7.6.

Let's now take a look at what each of these steps entail.

Step 1: Designing evaluation plan(s)

In designing an evaluation plan and selecting the evaluation instrument to be used, the manager of an adult education organisation must involve all stakeholders. Evaluation is a collaborative effort. Through engaging others in the design phase, the manager is far more likely to construct an effective, realistic plan and gain the cooperation of the stakeholders.

Step 2: Designing instruments

The type(s) of instruments to be used will depend upon the purpose of the evaluation, the resources available, the timeframe involved, and the availability of existing instruments. The following questions should guide the manager's choice of design and instrument(s): What is really important or valuable to our organisation? What kind of data should we collect? Who will be responsible for these processes? How often will evaluations be done?

Step 3: Collecting data

The formal methods and techniques used in the data-collection phase include the following:

- *Use of archival data*: includes, among others, performance appraisals, organisational knowledge base, annual reports, human resource databases, written materials, brochures, reports, and test results.
- *Interviews*: include face-to-face and/or telephone interviews. A structured or semi-structured interview guide is recommended.
- *Surveys*: include mailed or Internet surveys to the target group(s).
- *Observations*: this could include observations inside or outside the organisation (site visits).

MacPherson (2005) highlights the following areas to consider when determining the data-collection method to be used: the type of information being sought; the resources available to collect data (time, money, and people); values inside and outside the organisation; and attitudes towards evaluation.

At this point we can also mention the use of triangulation in the context of evaluation processes. Triangulation involves the use of multiple methods of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 1994). Triangulation is recommended when conducting evaluations because no single evaluation approach works well for all organisations (Mungania and Hatcher, 2004). Using a mixed approach (qualitative and quantitative methods) to collect data, means that a manager can combine the use of surveys, interviews, focus groups, and observations, for example.

Step 4: Analysing data

Data analysis is the stage where the collected results from surveys, questionnaires, focus groups, interviews and observations are examined closely by the evaluator(s). Quantitative or qualitative data analysis or both may be necessary; however, a further exploration of these techniques is beyond the scope of this chapter.

Step 5: Drawing conclusions and recommendations from the results

In most cases, the findings of an evaluation exercise are presented in the form of a written report. As well as the conclusions and recommendations, the report should also detail the purpose of the evaluation exercise, the types of evaluation techniques used, and the structure of the evaluation process.

Step 6: Disseminating findings

Disseminating the findings of an evaluation exercise can take several forms. The written report can be distributed, of course, but the manager may decide to include more dynamic, interactive means to 'get the message across', such as making a PowerPoint presentation, conducting question-and-answer sessions, using audiovisual equipment, convening a conference (if the number of stakeholders warrants it), and so on. The method(s) used will depend upon the time and resources available, the nature

of the audience, and the evaluator's competence in the different forms of delivery. A combination of dissemination methods often works well. Providing feedback to stakeholders is absolutely essential because failure to do so could render an evaluation to be just another unread report on the shelf!

We suggest an evaluation report that covers the following:

- An *executive summary* that can stand alone from the document, which should be written after completion of the full report.
- The *purpose* of the evaluation that should state why the evaluation was conducted, for example, 'The purpose of the evaluation was to….'
- The *methods* used in which you summarise the steps taken, include a timeline, sampling, instruments used and data analysis.
- A *description of the participants* include who participated, why, and their demographics.
- The *findings*, in which you state the results and use graphics to highlight the results or facts from your data.
- A *discussion* of the implications, where you link the evaluation results to literature or the organisation's background. Highlight the recommendations and implications for adult education organisations.
- A *conclusion*, in which you summarise the report with key findings from the evaluation.

PHASES OF EVALUATION

Evaluation can be categorised into three phases: formative (during the process); summative (after or at the end of the process); and longitudinal (repeated over time) (Hatcher and Mungania, 2004; McLean, 2006). Continuous feedback is produced and circulated through the system. This is important because it allows necessary adjustments to be made before it is too late.

Formative evaluation

Formative evaluation means much more than just 'keeping an eye' on how things are going. It is a deliberate, planned, and methodical approach to ensure that the implementation is going well and according to plan. It is a continuous activity that should not be relegated to the end of the project but one that should occur throughout.

Formative evaluation is different from monitoring. Formative evaluation can be part of a large-scale evaluation of an organisation whereas monitoring can be done internally or by an external agent. Formative evaluation occurs at a predetermined period during the implementation phase. The purpose of a formative evaluation is to:

- Determine the reaction to a product, service, or programme that is being implemented.
- Check the level of understanding of the plan. Discussions with staff will reveal if the plan's details need to be clarified or if further information is necessary.
- Obtain feedback on factors that may be affecting the teaching-learning process (Mungania and Hatcher, 2004) in order to identify aspects that are considered effective or ineffective (Magalhaes and Schiel, 1997).
- Ensure that the plan or design process is progressing as intentioned.
- Ensure that resources are not being misused.
- Ensure that people have the necessary resources at hand.
- Evaluate learners' reaction or learning during the course of a training session.
- Make sure that corrections or changes (if necessary) are instituted.

Summative evaluation

Summative evaluation is usually conducted towards the end or at the end of a course or programme. Summative evaluations usually target multiple stakeholders in order to:

- Determine if objectives were met.
- Make improvements.
- Justify the implementation of a new product, programme or service.
- Help verify whether or not the difficulties experienced during implementation were resolved (Magalhaes and Schiel, 1997).

Longitudinal evaluation

Longitudinal evaluations are long-term and could be repeated over time because there are some issues that demand that time passes to determine the impact or effectiveness of a treatment or programme. For example, a school may seek to find out the impact of a pre-school programme on children, long after their attendance. A university may seek to evaluate the effectiveness of its programmes by evaluating the career paths of its alumnae years after their graduation. An organisation may undertake an employee climate survey every year or two years to determine the opinions of its employees. Such longitudinal evaluations are important since they provide a standard measure for comparing the perceptions of various stakeholders from year to year.

ACTIVITY

Using your programme's logic model design a formative evaluation plan for an adult literacy programme.

EVALUATION MODELS

Good evaluation models are not and should not be static. You should be able to adapt a model to fit your particular situation because different departments, programmes, services or projects will vary in terms of the evaluation approach required. Regardless of the model you use, remember that it is important to triangulate (to use various measures). In the following sections we will look at some of the more commonly used evaluation models, though others exist and may prove useful for your purposes.

Donald Kirkpatrick: four levels of evaluation

Kirkpatrick's (1994) four level evaluation model suggests evaluating at four levels: (a) reaction, (b) learning, (c) behaviour, and (d) results. These evaluations can be performed using qualitative or quantitative methods (Kirkpatrick, 1998). While this model has been used primarily for evaluating training programmes, it can be adapted and applied to determine customers/consumers' reactions to a new product or service being offered.

Level 1: Evaluating reaction

This type of evaluation seeks to determine the initial reactions of participants in a particular service, product or programme.

Level 2: Evaluating learning

This determines whether or not learners have learned or gained cognitive knowledge and skills through a training or educational programme. The key question here is 'What new knowledge was acquired as a result of attending the programme?' (Kirkpatrick, 1998: 155). A measure of how much learning (if any) has taken place can be

obtained by, for example, examining course grades, asking learners or instructors about learning, or evaluating course projects.

Level 3: Evaluating behaviour

Adult education organisations evaluate at this level to assess whether change in behaviour has occurred as a result of training. The key question here is 'How has the programme affected on-the-job performance?' (Kirkpatrick, 1998: 155). Such changes can be evaluated through observing, and interviewing superiors, peers, and subordinates (Belanger and Jordan, 2000).

Level 4: Evaluating results

Adult education organisations evaluate at this level to examine the impact a programme has had. The key question here is 'How has the programme contributed to accomplishing set goals?' (Kirkpatrick, 1998: 155).

Bernthal, among others, criticised this popular model, saying 'it has limited our thinking regarding evaluation and possibly hindered our ability to conduct meaningful evaluation' (Bernthal,1995: 41) because of its focus on the outcomes and not the process. To address this limitation, Mungania and Hatcher (2004) suggested an alternative approach that focuses on both the process and the outcomes.

Mungania-Hatcher (2004) systemic model of evaluating e-learning

This model was developed as a guide for evaluating distance learning; a challenge facing adult education organisations especially as newer technologies are integrated in the teaching and learning environment. Their model focuses on both process and outcomes. It features six factors that should be evaluated, namely: (1) learner, (2) technology, (3) instruction, (4) instructor, (5) institution/organisation, and (5) community. Belanger and Jordan (2000) have similarly advocated for a comprehensive examination of individual, course, and organisational variables. This model integrates the models of Kirkpatrick (1994); Phillip (1997); and Belanger and Jordan (2000).

The uniqueness of this model is the fact that it addresses the entire system (internal and external); addressing the true nature of today's adult education organisations. The multidimensional e-learning evaluation matrix is a flexible guide for evaluators to identify:

- Phases of evaluation (when)
- Potential sources of data (who)
- Variables to evaluate (what).

Doing multiple evaluations and measuring several organisational-, individual-, and training-related variables is recommended (Bernthal, 1995). As you may have realised from the models suggested above, evaluation should be a continuous process undertaken at various stages of organisational growth. Or, in the words of Mungania and Hatcher (204: 1), '… a multidimensional evaluation procedure is what is needed in today's institutions'.

Phillip's model

In addition to the four levels identified by Kirkpatrick, Phillips suggests that the return on investment (ROI) should become a priority issue given the rising demand for adult education organisations to demonstrate that their programmes are both effective and accountable (Phillips, 1997). 'Evaluation strategies must include the impact of programmes measured in terms of organisational change, ultimate outcomes or business results' (Phillips, 1997: 5). In an organisation,

'There must be a comprehensive measurement and evaluation process to capture the contribution of HRD' (Phillips, 1997: 1). Similarly, services and/or products should be evaluated to determine what their impact is on the organisation's bottom line and whether they are meeting the planned goals.

Impact evaluation is related to the issue of ROI, and has been defined as 'the systematic identification of the effects positive or negative, intended or not on individual households, institutions, and the environment caused by a given development activity such as a program or project' (World Bank, 2009). Impact evaluation is gaining popularity with development agencies working in Africa.

This brings us to Social Return on Investment, a measure that is gaining popularity, especially among social ventures and non-governmental organizations, and which is important for you as a manager of an adult education organisation, to be aware of.

Social Return on Investment

Olsen and Lingane note that 'Managers today run their businesses without full information about the impact of their operations on the environment and human well-being, and thus without the ability to optimise these impacts while achieving the financial returns shareholders expect' (2003). While financial ROI is important, it is not the only measure of impact that adult educational institutions should use. Responsible organisations are not only examining their profits but also their social returns. Therefore, adult education organisations should start evaluating their Social Return on Investment (SROI), which is an attempt to measure the social, environmental, and financial impact; also called the 3Ps: people, planet and profit respectively.

It's important to note here that not every service or programme's impact can be measured or assigned a monetary value. Adult education organisations provide a wide range of programmes, which in turn have an equally wide range of outcomes. Such outcomes may be qualitative in nature and should be reported as such. For example, an adult education programme that teaches basic literacy skills has the potential to increase the independence and self-esteem of its beneficiaries. The programme's impact may not necessarily be measurable in terms of its monetary value; but this does not mean that the (qualitative) impact it does deliver should be discounted.

Issues and questions surrounding evaluation

Despite the range of evaluation methods, techniques and approaches available, there are certain common issues and questions that need to be addressed or answered. Various researchers and evaluation professionals such as Bernthal (1995); Fitzpatrick, Sanders and Worthen (2004); Mungania and Hatcher (2004); and Rossi and Freeman (1989), among others, have identified a number of research questions and operational questions that need to be addressed before any evaluation process is implemented. Research questions include:

- What kind of evaluation approach should we use?
- What issues or factors need to be addressed?
- What kinds of variables should be included in evaluation instruments?
- What measurement tools will be used?
- When will the evaluation be conducted?

Operational questions include:

- Who are the stakeholders of this evaluation?

- Who has the power and what are the political issues involved?
- What resources do we have access to and are they sufficient?
- Who are the key stakeholders with whom to collaborate?
- Who are the subjects or participants (the people you will collect data from)?
- Do I have access to the subjects or participants?
- How will the evaluation results be used or applied?
- What ethical constraints are present or might arise? (For example, an evaluator whose own position might be affected by the results of the evaluation exercise may struggle to remain fully objective during the evaluation process. In this situation, the use of an external evaluator who has no personal interest in the outcomes of the evaluation might represent a better appointment.)
- Does the evaluator (or evaluation team) possess the professional and personal qualities needed to undertake a valid and reliable evaluation?
- How have the services, products, or programmes within your organisation been evaluated in the past? (An examination of your organisation's historical records might reveal useful insights or point to the use of particular evaluation techniques.)

The African Development Bank's website has a number of tools and guidelines for conducting evaluations that you may find useful. The website address is listed in the reference section of this chapter.

ATTITUDES AND APPROACHES TOWARDS EVALUATION

Identifying and implementing the correct evaluation methods(s) and technique(s) does not guarantee the success of the evaluation process. Equally important is the fact that the manager must have the right approach or attitude to the evaluation he or she has responsibility for.

For instance, a manager needs to be able to anticipate where and when problems may arise. It is not enough to implement the evaluation and assume that everything will go according to the agreed plan. The evaluation process concerns individuals who will present different responses to the evaluation being undertaken; some people will demonstrate positive behaviour, others will act negatively, and still others may adopt a neutral stance. As Caffarella (2002: 15) notes, 'Careful planning of education and training programs does not guarantee their success, nor does it mean that all tasks will run smoothly and people-oriented problems will not arise.' The manager must be constantly on the lookout for 'people-oriented problems' and find ways of dealing with these problems before they can disrupt or derail the evaluation process.

Closely linked to the issue of anticipation is the need for flexibility. Even with perfect planning and implementation, unanticipated consequences do emerge and a manager must therefore be open to change, in other words, he or she must be flexible. Caffarella (2002: 14) reminds us that the reality of planning, delivering, and evaluating education and training programmes for adults is 'both an organised and haphazard endeavour'. As a manager, you will have to 'think on your feet' as situations change. The plan is your basic road map but you may have to take the occasional detour to reach your destination!

Adult education training programmes are designed, planned, implemented, evaluated and amended by groups or teams of people and not by individuals. Of course, certain individuals may play a more prominent role than others but that does not diminish the value of the contributions made by others. Thus, the need for a teamwork approach to evaluation is essential. One of the major themes of this book is the need for managers and leaders of adult education organisations to adopt a collaborative, inclusive approach to all aspects of adult teaching and learning. A committed, united, well-supported team can achieve far more than any individual can, no matter how skilful, dedicated and professional he or she might be.

THE USE OF TECHNOLOGY IN THE PLANNING PROCESS

Technology is now available that can make the task of planning, implementing and evaluating less intimidating. Let's examine some technologies that could facilitate the PIE process.

Use of computer applications

The use of technology in adult education organisations is growing in popularity, evident in the rising demand for and use of computers, mobile phones, ICT conferences, and so on.

Table 7.1 Applications of technology in the PIE process

Purpose	Applications and examples of technology
Data collection	Websites: Intranet and Internet sites (Note: Intranet is a private computer network where access is restricted to members of a particular organisation or enterprise; the Internet, by contrast, can be accessed by everyone.) Web-based email software: e.g., Google, Hotmail, Yahoo Web surveys linked to Intranet/Internet: e.g., Survey Monkey, Questionmark, Student Voice, and Zoomerang
Project management and communication	Websites: Intranet and Internet sites and Social Networking Sites (Facebook, Twitter, Ning, LinkedIn) Project management tools: e.g., Microsoft Project Word-processing software: e.g., Microsoft Word Database management (e.g., Microsoft Access): used to manage a database of clients or customers, perform mail merge, etc. Worksheets and formulae to keep track of budgets, chart organisational performance, etc.: e.g., Microsoft Excel Web-based email applications: e.g., Gmail, Hotmail, Yahoo (also commercial ones such as Microsoft Outlook) Web-based data-sharing applications: e.g., Microsoft Live
Presenting and disseminating information	Websites: Intranet and Internet sites Presentation software for slide shows: e.g., Microsoft PowerPoint, Flash, Open Office Impress (open source), Captivate Audiovisual media: e.g., Real Player, Windows Media Player, iTunes, Adobe Media Player Web-based learning management systems: e.g., Moodle (open source), Blackboard, Elluminate, Saba, e-College Social Networking Sites and tools

Technology can be of great value in the PIE process. Computer technologies can manage documents, quickly evaluate status, identify critical data, identify problem areas, communicate among stakeholders, process reports, and enhance presentations, among other uses. Let's look at some specific examples of how ICT can benefit adult education organisations.

Websites are perhaps the most obvious example of how ICT has revolutionised the way in which organisations present their products and services to the world. Websites can be used for marketing, educational, administrative, and informative purposes. A large adult education organisation's website, such as that of a college or university, would typically display information on its programmes (range, type, duration, and so on), enrolment procedures, fee scales, certification procedures, mission statement, accommodation facilities, and so on.

In terms of planning, implementation and evaluation, the manager of an adult education organisation can use web-based technologies as research tools, that is, he or she can access, process and utilise information obtained online from any number of appropriate websites. Information can be distributed to other stakeholders via online document-sharing, which is now possible through a variety of Web-based applications, some of which can be downloaded for free.

Table 7.1 lists the main purposes for which ICT may be needed – data collection, project management, and sharing. Against each of these purposes we have described the corresponding types of applications and examples of technology that a manager can use. We must stress that any branded software packages listed are suggested examples and no more than that – we are not recommending that you must use these packages. You should not investigate the many other products that are available.

Learning Content Management Systems

The use of Learning Content Management Systems (LCMS) is becoming increasingly popular. Knowledge Management and e-learning are also key features of many contemporary adult education organisations.

Photo source: Carnegie Corporation of New York (2001 spring).

The incorporation of Web-based technologies for learning purposes, especially e-learning, is a relatively recent development. The primary advantage of these new technologies is that it makes it cheaper and easier for adult education organisations to distribute their services and programmes over distance and for adult learners to access these services and programmes. The main disadvantage is the cost of these new technologies, which for some African adult education organisations may be prohibitive. However, as Mungania (2004) observes, free Web-based applications and royalty-free media continue to emerge.

Some of the unique features of Web-based LCMS include:

- Virtual learning communities (Web-based communities comprised of social networking where people discuss issues of interest to the group) in list servs, chat rooms, discussion groups
- Audiovisual media (for example, video, audio clips and photographs)
- Tracking systems for monitoring participants (for example, learners' grades, college drop-out rates, and

course and programme preferences)
- Knowledge management (KM), that is, the practice of capturing and sharing knowledge
- Design and development tools
- Evaluation tools: Web-based LMS support surveys, test banks, chat rooms, discussion forums, and emails.

Web-based technology does have its weaknesses, however, and these include:

- High cost of software and hardware. This is slowly being addressed, especially through use of open source software
- Abuse of the technology by unauthorised individuals
- Loss of data (if data is not backed up)
- Identity theft by computer hackers
- Limited social interaction when compared to classroom instruction
- Limited accessibility for visually impaired learners

ACTIVITY

- **Use a search engine of your choice to conduct a web search of at least three Web survey tools that your organisation could use for evaluation purposes.**
- **Comment on how technology is used in the PIE process in your organisation.**

SUMMARY

In this chapter, we examined the ways in which the manager of an adult education organisation can plan, implement and evaluate programmes. Various models, planning tools, and evaluation approaches were discussed. We also looked at how technology can be integrated into these PIE processes for data collection and analysis, and the dissemination of results. In keeping with our overall approach towards the management of adult education facilities, we stressed the need for the manager to adopt a collaborative, participative approach when planning, implementing and evaluating programmes. He or she must also be capable of anticipating developments, opportunities and challenges in the external and internal environment, and be flexible enough to adapt to changing circumstances.

KEY POINTS

- Good planning is essential to organisational success.
- A good action plan should be aligned with the vision and mission of the organisation.
- A needs assessment is the first step in the planning process.
- Evaluation is about measuring the impact or contribution made by a programme.
- The purpose of evaluation is not to prove cause and effect or to lay blame.
- We recommend a 'value-driven' approach to evaluation.
- There are various evaluation models that could be adapted to meet the evaluation needs of an adult education organisation.
- Whenever possible, organisations should seek to conduct formative, summative, and longitudinal evaluations.
- Formative evaluation is a deliberate, planned, and methodical method of ensuring that the implementation is going well and according to plan
- Summative evaluation is conducted after or at the end of an initiative, programme or process.
- The type of evaluation performed will depend upon the organisation's resources, the capabilities of the evaluator or evaluation team and the context in which the evaluation will take place.
- Evaluation results need to be dissemi-

nated to all stakeholders.
- Information and computer technology (ICT), including Learning Content Management System (LCMS), has many benefits to offer adult education organisations and their stakeholders.

ACTIVITY

Read the following scenario and then answer the questions that follow.

You are a Programme Officer working with a non-governmental organisation (NGO) that has as its mission the empowerment of women through domestic-violence prevention programmes. Your role is to coordinate programmes for women living in rural areas spread across the country's ten regions. The organisation that has agreed to fund this project has attached an important condition to the award of the grant: an evaluation report must be submitted at the end of the first year of implementation.

Based on the new knowledge you have gained from this chapter; design a plan for evaluating the domestic-violence prevention programme you are in charge of. Some guidelines are given below:

- **Consider using both formative and summative assessment.**
- **Identify the stakeholders who should be involved.**
- **Identify the measurement tools and instruments needed.**
- **Consider the use of ICT.**
- **Investigate different methods of presenting your report.**

FURTHER QUESTIONS

1 How have programmes in your organisation been evaluated in the past?

2 How could you apply the knowledge gained from this chapter to create or modify your organisation's programme evaluation?

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Chapter 8

Time management in an organisation

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Define time and the different types of time.
2. Explain the importance of managing time in an organisation.
3. Explain time management in the African context.
4. Describe time wasters in an organisation.
5. Explain how a manager needs to organise time.
6. Discuss the benefits and limitations of using information and communication technology to manage time.

KEY TERMS

flexitime A system that allows employees to determine their own start and finish times on the condition that they must be at work during certain predefined time periods.

quality time Time spent in the most productive and satisfying way in an organisation.

thinking time Time spent generating ideas and solving problems.

time A moment or the period in which a manager acts or carries out certain activities within the organisation.

time keeping The activity of recording the start and finish times of particular activities. Time keeping also refers to the concept of punctuality.

time management The body of techniques applied by a manager for the effective control and use of time in order to perform identified activities in an efficient, time-efficient manner.

time waster A person who spends work time engaged in unproductive, unnec-

essary, or obstructive activities that prevent or undermine the effective use of resources and the completion of legitimate activities, objectives and goals.

BEFORE YOU START

Discuss the relative importance of time-management in terms of a manager's overall duties and responsibilities. For example, do you think that good time-management skills are more or less important than good employee-motivation skills?

OVERVIEW

Time management involves setting priorities and taking charge of situations so as to utilise time in an economical way. Time management has three important dimensions, namely managing one's own time, managing the organisation's time, and training others to manage their time and organisational time. Without effective time-management skills, a manager will find it extremely difficult to achieve the desired outcomes of the organisation. He or she will also discover that poor time management can create additional (and unwanted) costs, undermine project and programme schedules, create confusion among stakeholders, and devalue the status and reputation of the adult education organisation in which he or she works. In the words of a well-known Nigerian proverb: 'Time destroys all things' (Charlotte and Leslau, 1985: 47).

In this chapter, time is defined and the importance of managing time is explored. Difficulties experienced by an African manager in managing time, time wasters in an organisation, and the 'do's' and 'don'ts'

of the time-management process are also considered. Techniques and guidelines for the effective use of time are presented, and, towards the end of the chapter, we examine the benefits and limitations of using information and communication technology (ICT) to manage time.

DEFINITION, TYPES AND IMPORTANCE OF TIME MANAGEMENT

Time has been defined as 'a moment at which, or stretch of duration in which, things happen' (Thairu, 1999: 282). The purpose of time management is to improve efficiency while carrying out various duties or activities within the organisation. Time management involves planning, organising and coordinating (Sagimo, 2002).

Later on in the chapter we will look at specific ways in which a manager can perform effective time management. However, we can note at this point that in his or her pursuit of effective time management, a manager is mainly concerned with the phenomenon of 'quality time'. Quality time in the context of time management refers to time spent in the most productive and satisfactory manner. It is important to note that a productive use of time does not necessarily mean that tasks and activities must be performed as quickly as possible. Speed of execution may sometimes be a factor but it is not the defining characteristic of quality time. 'Productive' in this context refers to an efficient use of time, which would include factors such as the proper use of resources, minimising time lost to inefficient practices, procedures and time wastage, and avoiding duplication or repetition of tasks and activities.

Effective time management also calls for a manager to set aside 'thinking time', which, as the name suggests, is time spent thinking rather than acting. Thinking time gives a manager the opportunity to generate ideas, solve problems, analyse new developments, reassess work methods, evaluate options, and so on. Time spent in this manner can be extremely productive and should not be considered 'a waste of time'. The manager may not be acting in the physical sense of the word – moving, talking, interacting, doing – but he or she is doing so mentally. Because of this, the thinking time should not be interrupted by having to, for example, listen to queries or complaints, make or receive telephone calls, or write or read reports.

Flexitime is a system that allows employees to determine their own start and finish times on the condition that they must be at work during certain predefined time periods. Coordinated and managed properly, flexitime can be extremely beneficial. The system's greatest strength is that it gives individuals a significant amount of control over how they organise and perform their work or study activities. This sense of autonomy (independence) can act as a powerful motivator for users of the flexitime system, which is often visible in terms of increased employee/learner/facilitator morale and higher productivity. For many adult learners in Africa, the flexitime system is especially welcome since it allows them to organise their studies around important seasonal activities (such as ploughing, planting, weeding, harvesting, and storing) and social activities (such as attending weddings, funerals, and traditional rituals)(Audi and Ayado, 2008).

Some of the advantages of time management include: gaining time; motivating staff and encouraging employee initiative; reducing avoidance of tasks; promoting review of the tasks that have been done; and reducing anxiety.

TIME MANAGEMENT IN AN AFRICAN CONTEXT

In many traditional African societies, the sun is used to estimate time. Time intervals are often gauged by listening to a bird's song or a frog's croak. In some situations, this use of natural sources to measure or estimate time is perfectly adequate; in rural farming communities, for example, the day's activities unfold according to the sun's orbit (as well as other natural indicators such as wind patterns, cloud formations, and so on).

During the rainy season, particularly in Central Africa, the rain is often used as a legitimate excuse for being unable to get to work or a learning centre on time, and for having to leave early (probably because the position of the sun cannot be ascertained accurately). A more significant (and more common) reason for non-attendance, however, is the need for African facilitators, workers and learners to attend competing socio-economic activities, especially those activities connected to farming – ploughing, sowing, weeding, harvesting and storing (Audi and Ayado, 2008).

Within the context of adult education organisations, however, the effect of these time delays – even though they may be perfectly legitimate – is that activities, duties and services will take longer than normal to provide. Though time itself is neither 'fast' nor slow' – 'the moon moves slowly but it crosses the town' (an African proverb cited in Charlotte and Leslau, 1985: 8) – the actual consequence of adhering to an African concept of time might act as a disincentive to workers, facilitators and learners. For example, receiving a service such as paying a token to volunteer facilitators will, if it takes a long time, act as a disincentive to offer services and increase turnover (Audi and Ayado, 2008).

Prudent management of time

The manager ensures that there is prudent (careful) management of time in an organisation. Time stealing needs to be minimised, which means that the manager needs to monitor how much time workers, facilitators and learners spend on the following activities: greeting friends and colleagues; reading newspapers, novels, and magazines; making unnecessary telephone calls; communicating intimately with loved ones; sharing with, or caring for others; browsing the Internet; and attending social functions such as funerals, weddings, circumcision ceremonies, birthday parties, and naming ceremonies. All of these activities, if not managed and controlled effectively, will create serious productivity problems and may, in extreme cases, increase absenteeism.

A manager can minimise time stealing by ensuring that work-related activities are planned in such a way that very little time is left available for newspaper-reading, Internet-browsing, and so on. Legitimate break times will, of course, be included in the planning process, and the manager must make sure that the time allocations he or she draws up are fair and reasonable.

For activities that are tied to deadlines, for example, the submission of an annual report and the need to plan properly is especially important. And, although it is difficult to plan for unexpected activities or events, a manager can minimise the disruption these may cause by leaving sufficient time available to handle such contingencies. For instance, many organisations allocate one morning or afternoon per week for the performance of administrative duties only, which gives managers and workers the opportunity to 'catch' any potential problems visible on the horizon. The manager should also avoid overextending his or her workers, that is, he or she needs to allow enough 'free' time in their work schedules to

be able to at least confront the unexpected or the unforeseen, or even to help provide solutions.

The issue of 'free' time, or 'idle' time as it is also known, is not something that is easily categorised or explained – free and idle are not words that we would readily associate with good management practice! Except that in the context of a work environment, free time and/or idle time is not wasted time, but rather waiting time. Free time may be planned – the half-day spent on administrative duties mentioned above – or unplanned, for example, time spent waiting for the delivery of learning materials. In both scenarios, the spare time arising can be used productively: the manager in the office to clear up outstanding administrative tasks; the manager waiting for learning materials to update learner profiles, review job applications, or draft funding proposals, for example.

TIME WASTERS IN AN ORGANISATION

Time wasters are a drain on organisational resources; they also obstruct or interfere with work activities, reduce productivity, lower morale, devalue the reputation and status of the organisation and their co-workers, and undermine the planned-for achievement of the organisational vision. Some time wasters are easy to identify since they are the type of people who miss appointments, make unnecessarily long telephone calls, engage in excessive social chit-chat (casual conversation), receive frequent visits from friends and family members, and spend hours and hours at their desk doing paperwork that produces nothing of substance.

Hidden time wasters are equally damaging, although their negative impact is the result of extreme negativity rather than any disruptive actions or behaviour. The hidden time waster is deficient in several ways; for example, he or she exhibits a lack of delegation, lack of a time plan, lack of order of priorities in carrying out work, and delaying or postponing action (Sagimo, 2002). There are also time-wasting activities, which are usually the result of poor planning, a lack of expertise or an inefficient use of resources. For example, suppose that an organisation experiences difficulties every time a stock-take is performed. The manager knows that the person responsible for doing the stock-take is a reliable, conscientious employee, that is, he or she is not a time waster. Further investigation may then reveal that the problems are caused by a poorly designed stock-take sheet, improperly stored goods and materials, time constraints (the stock-take actually takes three hours to perform but only two hours have been allocated), and/or poor supervision (the employee, though reliable, is also inexperienced and so needs to be given more guidance).

Communication breakdown and poor information dissemination are also common time wasters. This phenomenon is far too common in Africa and is made worse by inadequate and sometimes non-existent communications tools, such as telephone equipment that does not work, mail that goes undelivered, and too many meetings that signal unidentified responsibilities and waste precious time. Time spent browsing on the Internet is a further unproductive activity when the user is doing this solely for personal pleasure.

Before we leave the subject of time wasters and time wasting, we should note that managers are not themselves entirely blameless in this respect. As we mentioned earlier, it is the managers responsibility to plan work activities in such a way that the opportunities for engaging in time-wasting activities are kept to a minimum. If the manager is unable or unwilling to do this,

then he or she is at least partly responsible for any loss in productivity that arises because of time wasting. However, managers can also encourage time wasting by failing to treat their subordinates with the respect they deserve. This type of manager invariably regards subordinates as his or her inferiors and is unwilling, or refuses, to allow them any control over their work activities. Unfortunately, there are a great many managers in Africa who adopt this attitude; as Thairu (1999: 283) observes, '[their subordinates] regardless of their level, are treated as wards, whose duties and ultimate retention are entirely at the discretion of the boss'.

ORGANISATION OF TIME

A manager must be capable of organising his or her own time schedule as well as those of his or her subordinates. In order to do this, he or she needs to find out how time is spent at work, which can be achieved by recording the time spent on a range of activities over a period of time, for example, a week or a month. Analysing this recorded data will reveal a wealth of useful information; it will also help the manager to prioritise activities more accurately and to work more productively. This analysis also gives the manager the chance to reflect on how well (that is, efficiently) he or she is working by engaging in a self-questioning exercise. Some questions that can be asked are:

- 'Should I have spent five minutes waiting for that reply or should I have come back later?'
- 'How important was the information at that particular time?'
- 'Would it have served the same purpose to have done that later on?'
- 'Should I have told him or her I would ring back, instead of dealing with that inquiry immediately?' (Sagimo, 2002).

Each activity is then given a priority-rating in the manager's overall workload. The same process can be used to plan the workload of other people, for example, facilitators and adult learners. (Remember that time must be allowed for dealing with emergencies, unplanned events, and so on). The successful organisation of time involves the following steps:

- Set specific goals.
- Create a calendar, recording major activities and events.
- Create a weekly schedule of work activities.
- Decide on specific times for each activity.
- Make a 'to do' list each evening for the next day's work.

Time scheduling

Time scheduling is one of the ways in which a manager can time manage. The time schedule itself is an extremely useful reference document, which managers and employees can refer to whenever necessary. The schedule should be placed where it can be easily seen, such as on a staff notice board, by the main entrance/exit doors, or on the outside of the manager's office door. If resources allow, photocopies can be made of the schedule and distributed to workers or to supervisors, team leaders and other managers. The schedule helps to keep everyone focused on what they have to do at work. It also lets the manager monitor work progress since he or she can compare what should be happening, by looking at the schedule, and what is actually happening, by observing what is happening around him or her or by asking for progress updates from team leaders, supervisors, and other

personnel. In time scheduling, the manager needs to:

- *Plan activities, tasks and work sequences systematically*. Planning work in a systematic manner improves the level of control a manager has over work proceedings. If he or she has established in advance what needs to be done, by whom, at what time and for how long, then checking progress and monitoring work activity is made much easier. Conversely, a manager who works in an unsystematic or haphazard manner often has no idea of how the day is progressing, whether he or she needs to take remedial action somewhere, what deadlines are imminent (about to happen), or whether the work targets for the day are likely to be met.
- *Prioritise*. Prioritising involves identifying what activities and tasks need to be performed and then ranking these activities and tasks in descending order of importance (the most important jobs at the top; the least important jobs at the bottom). Being able to prioritise effectively is a skill that takes time to learn. In other words, practice makes perfect! For the new manager, everything seems equally important when he or she starts work and this can sometimes be overwhelming; he or she rushes around trying to satisfy everyone's demands at the same time, which of course is impossible. The more experienced manager is able to judge the relative importance of each task, activity, demand, and so on, and to make an objective assessment of what actually needs to be done first.
- *Set clear goals*. The manager needs to identify what needs to be done, when, how and by whom. Major goals often need to be divided into several lower-level goals that can be achieved in sequence (one at a time). When setting goals, the manager must remain realistic about what he or she and the other employees can accomplish in a given time period, for example, a day or a week. A manager who is a perfectionist has to be careful that he or she does not spend so much time working on one activity that other jobs are left unattended or ignored. The goals set should also be clearly defined so that everyone understands exactly what they have to do. Issuing vague instructions, such as asking people to 'work faster' or 'improve performance', is not helpful. 'Faster' and 'improve' are two words that cannot be measured or assessed objectively – both are relative terms that are open to too many interpretations.

ACTIVITY

Using an adult education organisation in your country that you are familiar with, answer the following questions:

- **Study and describe the existing time schedules.**
- **Establish the current mode and quality of time management.**
- **Articulate problems of the time management style practised.**
- **Suggest ways of solving these problems and ways to achieve effective time management.**

In carrying out the above assignment:

- **Identify priorities, focusing on opportunities rather than problems.**
- **Identify time needs and work needs.**
- **Analyse patterns of resource use, flow of work, job allocations, and work coordination.**
- **Identify any problems relating to the allocation and utilisation of time in that organisation.**

Delegation

A further aspect of time management concerns delegation. A manager can hand over (delegate) work to employees he or she trusts and regards as competent enough to perform the assigned tasks or activities effectively. In doing this, he or she releases time for planning or other tasks that require his or her attention. In delegating work to other people, the manager does not delegate authority or responsibility, that is, he or she remains in control of and accountable for the actions of others. Delegation also provides opportunities for others to develop and participate in management.

Work plans

A daily work plan (see Figure 8.1 below) is a simple, effective time management tool. The work plan is a document that can be completed quickly and easily; it also provides the manager with a great deal of useful information – total time spent on specific activities/tasks; ratio of successful outcomes to unsuccessful outcomes; average completion times for particular task/activities, and so on.

Wall charts and year planners serve a similar purpose to daily work plans except that weeks or months rather than days are used to record work operations. These tools help a manager to ensure that workloads are evenly spread through the year. Wall charts and year planners also mark public holidays, holiday periods, religious festivals and celebrations, and various 'special' days (Workers' Day, Women's Day, etc.), which a manager will need to take into account when planning operations for the year ahead. Calendars and work diaries are further resources that a manager can use for planning purposes.

The time log is a self-assessment tool that tests a manager's ability to manage time. A time log is kept over a specified period of time to collect data on how a manager spends time each day. The time log indicates the priority ranks, start and completion times, and outcomes of tasks and activities (the time log's format is the same as that of the daily work plan). When the manager reviews the completed time log, she or he looks for inefficient or ineffective practices that need to be addressed. According to Thairu (1999: 290), the questions a manager should ask, and provide answers to, are:

- Did I achieve what I had set out for the day? If not, why not?

Name _____ Designation _____
Department _____ Date _____

Time From:	Time To:	Activity	Tasks	Priority Ranking	Outcome	Comments

(Adapted from Thairu, 1999: 288)

Figure 8.1 An example of a daily work plan

- What was the longest uninterrupted period?
- Which interruptions, and by whom, were most costly in terms of time? What was the purpose of the interruption?
- Was there anything I could have done to avoid that category of interruption?
- What can I do to eliminate such interruptions? Delegate?
- How can I reduce the cost of interruptions? Shorten conversations?
- Which activity took longer than necessary, and why?
- How long were the breaks? Were they all well-timed? Were they satisfactory? If not, why not?

In answering these questions, the manager will be able to identify the unproductive tasks and activities that need to be eliminated or reduced. He or she can then take the appropriate corrective action (for example, delegate a set of tasks that consume too much time each day; set time limits on mid-level and lower-level meetings).

The time trap (see Figure 8.2 below) is a daily log that is a quarter-hourly record of what the manager does each day. It is a self-test conducted for a two-week period once every two years. A time trap tests the manager's ability not only to manage but also to control time. The results are compared with the results of the time log exercise and matched with the contents of the daily work plan.

THE DO'S OF TIME MANAGEMENT

This section highlights what a manager may do and may not do in terms of time management. For the 'do's' of time management, Thairu (1999: 292) suggests that the manager can:

- Use a daily work plan to write down all tasks intended for the day, indicating the order of priority, and work through them. Give adequate time to each task or project to ensure that it is successfully completed.
- Arrange to make all telephone calls together. Prior to each call, be clear about the subject matter to avoid ambiguity during the conversation.
- Set and meet deadlines for the accomplishment of tasks.

Name _____ Designation _____
Department _____ Date _____

Time of day	Activity	Tasks	Goals	Priority Ranking	Outcome	Comments

(Adapted from Thairu, 1999: 291)

Figure 8.2 An example of a time trap

- Delegate tasks, not responsibility. Ask someone who is competent to carry out the urgent task. In doing so, clarify reporting lines, define expected results, and set a time scale for results.
- Break major tasks down into small parts and tackle them one at a time.
- Not waste time by leaving the desk if work can be done effectively and faster with technology.
- Ignore the irrelevant and forget the unnecessary so as to devote adequate time to other important matters.
- Discourage casual callers or visitors, because they can be time wasters.
- Unclutter desks to reduce worry and lack of concentration caused by thinking about tasks that are undone.
- Speed-read to cover essential professional or non-professional reading material.
- Save time for jobs that only a manager can do and hire consultants or contract out work when it is cheaper to do so.
- Handle each piece of paper once: act on it or pass it on to someone else.
- Reply to essential mail immediately to allow brevity and avoid delay.
- Employ modern technology to expedite office work. For instance, use dictation equipment (to dictate letters and write speeches), electronic mail, and faxes.
- Send targeted memos only when absolutely necessary to save time.
- Be punctual so as to save time and be a good role model.
- Hold meetings only when it is absolutely necessary to avoid disrupting work and taking up precious time.
- Answer some calls while moderately screening callers to build customer and client relations.
- Evaluate habits by asking why routine tasks are done in a certain way and whether time can be saved by changing the way routine activities are done.
- Identify and use prime working time wisely.
- Learn to do those things that lead to achievement of set goals and say no to those that do not.
- Be flexible but remain in control even if interruptions occur.
- Keep a list of things that need to be done with items in order of priority to avoid performing simple tasks first and not getting important tasks done.
- Identify activities that can be delegated or negotiated and the person to be delegated to.
- Consolidate tasks by doing more than one thing at a time whenever possible, for instance, receiving a phone call and signing a letter at the same time.
- Avoid doing time-consuming routine activities that can be delegated.

THE DON'TS OF TIME MANAGEMENT

The manager should not:

- Let workers, facilitators and learners waste time.
- Be involved in trivial matters that are not concerned with policy and plans.
- Leave tasks unaccomplished until the last minute or until there is a crisis. Difficult or even tedious tasks need to be handled immediately when there is time to deal with them efficiently.
- Leave tasks unfinished because reorienting himself or herself later takes more time.
- Try to do everything himself or herself. Delegating tasks and seeking outside help is sometimes necessary.
- Attend to all telephone calls but instead arrange for their diversion to a competent person.
- Always be available to others. The manager's office door cannot remain

constantly open. Some callers may be time wasters who should be encouraged to use their initiative to consult others in the organisation or find solutions themselves.
- File everything.
- Spend time browsing irrelevant materials on the Internet. This robs the manager of valuable time for doing what is vital for the organisation.

GUIDELINES TO SUCCESSFUL TIME MANAGEMENT

Finding enough time and using it effectively is the key to successful time management. Start by acquiring a useful tool such as a personal diary or an organiser and put it in use. Allocate time every day to organise your activities and forward plan. Divide your activities into categories. Then make a list and rank them in order according to importance and urgency – do what is important and urgent first.

It is useful for a manager to identify how much time he or she needs to complete different types of activities. Activities such as report writing, data analysis, and budget preparation will obviously require significantly more time than that needed to, for example, sign letters, write a brief memo or scan a newsletter. A manager should avoid agreeing to do something that is not vital just because it seems far away. The same amount of effort will be needed whether it is done today, next week or next month. Spending too long on any one activity or task is inadvisable, since this usually means that other tasks and activities are neglected. For example, if you have planned for a one-hour brainstorming session with one of your teams, keep to that time limit. Letting the session run on for longer may produce more results but it just as easily might not, and by using up time that was originally intended for other tasks and activities you risk doing these other jobs less effectively.

In many organisations in Africa, effective time management is prevented by: lack of well defined objectives/policies; lack of clear priorities; lack of planning time skills; constantly changing priorities; tendency to drop everything when an emergency crops up; excessive emotion through attempting to do several things at once; unrealistic deadlines; haste and being impatient (Sagimo, 2002).

TECHNOLOGY AND TIME MANAGEMENT

The importance of information and communication technology (ICT) in advancing adult learning was captured in CONFINTEA VI (2008) preparatory conference in Africa. It was recommended that African governments should develop strategies and partnerships that enhance the use of ICT and media to advance youth and adult learning. Technology, and especially ICT, is vital to the effective execution of managerial functions. The manager is charged with the role of collecting, processing, storing, analysing, presenting and distributing information. This requires the use of comprehensive databases that enables a manager to, for example, establish the current status of the adult learners enrolled into various programmes; check on the status of facilitators; check the financial status of the organisation; and type a letter or email and send it electronically.

The components of information technology (IT) are computers, microelectronics and telecommunications. The use of computers is advantageous because they:

- Are able to perform complex operations with ease
- Possess a vast memory capacity and can store a lot of information

- Are never bored, unhappy or resentful
- Are accurate
- Carry out complex and repetitive operations at high speed.

The typical uses of a computer in an organisational setting include the following: costing; inventory control; purchasing; processing financial data (such as payroll information, creditor and debtor transactions, budget preparation, and financial planning and forecasting); word processing, Internet access, communication, and information-sharing.

Information technology applications can be found in data storage, retrieval, and processing; electronic communication (including via the Internet); and electronic funds transfer (EFT). Integrated software packages allow office workers to perform calculations; access records; write memos, letters and reports; and access relevant databases in one place. Using IT speeds up the storage, retrieval, updating, and transferring of information. IT enables faster and easier drafting and editing of reports and other documents via the use of powerful word-processing software (Cole, 2004).

Management information systems (MIS) can provide a communication link between the organisation and the external environment, apart from allowing managerial functions to be carried out. The MIS could be used for specific purposes that encompass routine information (for example, the enrolment of adult learners); information from which exceptions can be identified; and information that can be used in predicting or forecasting the future. The MIS process converts raw data into meaningful information. Raw data could include the number of adult educators; the amount of fees paid by adult learners; and the numbers of learners enrolled on various programmes, for example. This data only becomes valuable after it has been analysed, summarised, interpreted and converted into a useable form that is ready for use in decision-making.

Cole (2004: 242) identifies the following four types of MIS:

> *Control systems which monitor the organisation's activities and report on them, for example production output, and sales revenue; database systems which process and store information, which can be drawn upon as a kind of organisational memory bank; enquiry systems, based on either internal or external databases, for carrying out investigations into the performance of departments, products lines, and competitors; and decision support systems, providing computer-based facilities for conducting analyses, and simulations among others.*

In an adult education organisation, MIS can be used to show the current status of adult learners, produce enrolment analyses, provide surveys of potential learners, provide wage and salary analyses, identify trends in sickness and absenteeism, produce operating and budget statements, analyse costs and expenditures, and produce turnover reports, among others.

However, the use of information technology in the office has its disadvantages. In terms of their physical health, for example, users may suffer from 'repetitive strain injuries and eye problems' (Cole, 2004: 261). The initial cost of software may be high and additional expense is incurred by having to keep the system up to date. Shared computer networks mean that staff can access information easily, which can create problems if they access information to which they are not entitled. Whether someone does this on purpose or accidentally is not the main issue, what is important is that preventative measures are put in place to prevent unlawful access in the first place.

Cole (2004: 262) recommends the following procedures:

- Identifying the people responsible for data security.
- Ensuring that only authorised persons have access to areas/work stations where personal data are being processed.
- Restricting password access to databases on a 'need-to-know' basis, and increasing levels of access, where necessary, to specified job-holders.
- Training staff in the procedures for handling personal data, including authenticating (confirming) the identity of any person to whom information may be disclosed (revealed).
- Selecting the right staff to work on personal data.
- Establishing a procedure for removing personal data from files, and/or shredding personal data held in manual form.
- Ensuring guidance for staff on the disciplinary rules applicable to the handling of personal data.

Resistance to the use of computers is yet another challenge posed by the use of IT in Africa. This resistance is due to fear of being seen as computer illiterate because an individual cannot use the technology or does not have the typing skills needed for entering data. Speech-recognition devices that allow data to be entered verbally rather than via the keyboard are available, but these devices are expensive and are again likely to meet with resistance.

Telecommuting facilities allow people to work anywhere where they have access to a computer terminal (although access to the Internet is often necessary, too), which is a situation that offers several benefits. Users often save time and money by not having to commute to a specific place of work, for example, their organisation's main administrative offices. Work scheduling is made much more flexible, which benefits both the organisation and the user. The organisation can save considerable sums of money by not having to pay for the rental and maintenance of office premises.

However, telecommuting may lead to workers, facilitators and learners losing the warmth and socialisation they receive from their colleagues in a conventional office environment. Similarly, working in isolation restricts a person's ability to grow and develop through interaction with others. It should also be noted that telecommuting is not as widely available in Africa as it is in other regions of the world bearing in mind the low tele-density rate on the continent.

Computer networks link different terminals and other devices (printers, scanners, photocopiers, and so on), which means that knowledge and information can be readily shared and that the manager can communicate with, inform or direct staff quickly and easily. For more information about the use of the computer in the African context, refer to Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga (2005).

ACTIVITY

Discuss the ways in which the manager of an adult education organisation can use information and communication technology (ICT) to best serve the interests of workers, facilitators and learners.

SUMMARY

Time is a rare and most precious commodity that a manager longs to possess and control. The best way of ensuring maximum gain from the time available is to manage time in the most effective manner possible. There are many ways of achieving this, but the central one is to keep track of how one's time is spent. The chapter has given guidance on

how managers in Africa might spend the time available to them most profitably. These suggestions should empower the managers and the rest of the staff and learners to use their work time to the best possible advantage for themselves and the organisation.

KEY POINTS

- The purpose of time management is to improve efficiency while carrying out various duties or activities within the organisation.
- With more duties to perform and more staff to control, the manager needs to plan and organise time more effectively.
- In Africa, workers, facilitators and learners lack adequate time for attending to the classes due to other competing socio-economic activities.
- A manager needs to identify time wasters and avoid them because they interrupt workflow.
- Communication breakdown and poor information dissemination are common time wasters.
- A manager must prioritise tasks and activities, which requires careful advance planning.
- Management information systems (MIS) can provide a communication link between the organisation and the external environment, apart from allowing managerial functions to be carried out.
- Telecommuting facilities provides flexibility in scheduling work, and cost savings to users and the organisation.
- Resistance to the use of computers is a challenge posed by the use of IT in Africa.

FURTHER QUESTIONS

1. Are you assuming responsibility for managing your most valuable commodity, time?
2. Do you avoid a noisy disruptive atmosphere when carrying out managerial activities?
3. Is Internet-browsing a serious problem in your work environment? What solutions can you think of?
4. What MIS are you familiar with? How effective are they?

SUGGESTED READINGS

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Chapter 9

Financial management

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Explain the status of public funding of adult education organisations in Africa.
2. Articulate the financial management accountability requirements.
3. Highlight the role of a manager in financial management.
4. Explain the budget preparation process.
5. Identify the common mistakes made in financial management.
6. Explore innovative ways of raising funds.

KEY TERMS

accountability Being held to account through enforcement of standards and giving an account by being answerable.

auditing The investigation of the financial records by an auditor with the aim of ascertaining the objectivity and accuracy of the transactions.

balanced budget A statement of revenue and expenditure where the two are equal.

budget A statement that consists of the revenue and expenditure estimates for a certain period of time.

financial management The process of monitoring how the activities chosen are being undertaken, when and with what resources, whether they are delivering the desired results, and whether to make new choices.

financing The provision of money for an adult education organisation's activities at the time it is required.

BEFORE YOU START

The operating environment for adult education organisations in Africa has changed over the years. These organisations now find themselves having to compete with other organisations for financial resources, where previously they enjoyed protection. Funders, including governments, now require adult education organisations to provide evidence of how the use of funds has benefited or will benefit stakeholders. The funders have more say in funds allocation and therefore want these organisations to be transparent and accountable in managing finances. The number of financial scandals that have been uncovered has eroded (worn away) the general public's trust of and confidence in these organisations, which is why funders now demand greater accountability. Several challenges that face these organisations in Africa include the changing political environment, additional government regulations, and increased expectations regarding the management, governance and operation of adult education organisations.

1. **Using your country as an example, reflect on the financial challenges facing an adult education organisation with which you are familiar.**
2. **Discuss the various ways in which adult education organisations try to secure funding.**

OVERVIEW

This chapter deals with financial management in adult education organisations. It is acknowledged that these organisations are among the financially marginalised educational organisations in Africa (Afrik, 2000). The reasons for this poor financial state will be highlighted. Financial management requirements and the role of the manager will also be articulated. This is followed by a brief explanation of the budgeting process, and common mistakes made by managers. The chapter ends with an exploration of innovative ways of raising funds together with their strengths and weaknesses.

The Swahili saying '*haba na haba, hujaza kibaba*' (Healey, 2005: 9), literally meaning,

'little and little fills the measure', guides the chapter. In other words, if a manager puts in place a sound financial management system, the little financial resources received from various sources will be able to run the organisation. Therefore the manager needs to prioritise carefully.

STRATEGIC FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

Managers of adult education organisations in Africa have limited financial resources available to them. Because of this, a manager needs to practice sound financial management in order to maximise the benefits derived from these resources. This requires that he or she complies with legal and regulatory requirements set out by donors and the government. Some of these requirements include operating a budget that is approved by the Board of Directors, ensuring that accurate financial records are kept, ensuring that the financial resources are used prudently (carefully and sensibly) in furtherance of the set goals, and conducting periodic reviews to ascertain compliance or non-compliance so as to take appropriate action.

Financial reports that accurately reflect the financial activities of the organisation need to be written and maintained on a regular basis. These reports contain annually audited financial statements. Furthermore, an annual report needs to be prepared. This report contains a statement of the organisation's purpose, a financial statement, description of the goals, overall programme activities, results achieved within the period, and information about the current Board of Directors. Written financial policies are a requirement in these organisations. The policies touch on purchasing procedures, investment, current assets, and internal control procedures.

The manager ensures that the combined fundraising and administration costs are kept to the minimum necessary to meet the objectives and needs of the organisation. Most donors insist that at least 65 per cent of the total costs need to be spent on programme activities and services.

The overall role of the manager is to ensure the following:

- Financial planning and budgeting such that financial resources are used for the intended purpose and accounted for. The manager ensures that tenders, orders and procurement for materials are in accordance with prescribed financial procedures.
- Financial transactions are properly approved, monitored and supervised.
- Implementation of the financial plan in a thorough, accurate manner.
- Formulating and executing fundraising strategies.
- Recording all financial transactions in the proper manner and maintaining up-to-date, accurate and transparent paper and electronic records of these transactions (payment vouchers, receipts, books of account, petty cash slips, and so on).
- Monitoring, reviewing, supervising and controlling the organisation's financial resources so as to facilitate credit transactions, evaluate assets and liabilities, avoid unnecessary expenses and misappropriation of funds, and plan ahead.
- Financial reporting of all the transactions within an organisation.
- Auditing of financial records to determine whether they are accurate and are made according to the prescribed accounting procedures, and in compliance with legal provisions and government policy. Identify any problems that need to be rectified. This helps to uncover misuse and embezzlement of funds (Michigan Non-profit Association, 2005).

- Ensuring that the Board of Directors is fully informed about the organisation's financial position.
- Requesting the government to afford tax breaks to companies donating money to the organisation.

The budget preparation process

The budget preparation process starts with the review of the current and previous budgets so that the manager can determine which areas show a surplus and which show a shortage. The next stage involves identifying all of the activities and facilities that are needed for the next financial year – the budget items – which will then have to be costed and, hopefully, funded. The budget items include staff requirements at the national and local levels, proposed services such as training facilities, resources, centres, correspondence, transportation, and other relevant programmes. Once the activities are identified, an estimation of the amount of financial resources needed to implement and run the organisation for the next financial year is done. The range of activities just described explains why some commentators refer to the manager as a 'resource allocator' (Blunt and Jones, 1992). The budget is presented to senior management for discussion and approval. Budget implementation then follows, which involves raising, receiving, and distributing funds, and accounting for them.

The following self-assessment tool is adapted from the *NGO Code of Good Practice* manual and is used here as an example of a financial management checklist for financial planning and budget system assessment. The answers are on a Likert scale, scored as Yes (Y), Insufficient, in preparation or being considered (I), No (N), or Not relevant to the work (NR). From this checklist, a manager is able to identify the strengths and weaknesses of his or her organisation's financial management systems, and take appropriate corrective action where necessary.

Table 9.1 Checklist for financial planning and budget system assessment

The budget	**Assessment**			
	Yes	I	N	NR
1. Does your organisation have a comprehensive annual budget, which includes sources and uses of funds for all aspects of operations, as well as grant and contract agreements with funders?				
2. Are all grant or contract budget proposals reviewed by fiscal staff before submission to funders?				
3. Does the board committee have a detailed understanding of the annual budget and play a significant role in directing the use of unrestricted funds?				
4. Does the full board formally authorise the annual budget and revisions to the budget?				
5. Does the organisation have a capital budget for major maintenance and replacement of facilities and equipment?				
6. Does the fiscal staff regularly compare budgeted income and expenditure with actual income and expenditure and take action where necessary?				

(Adapted from NGO Code of Good Practice, 2008)

ACTIVITY

Identify the activities that need costing in your organisation and discuss how budgeting for these activities is done.

Transparency and accountability requirements

An adult education organisation acts as an intermediary between donors and beneficiaries. It therefore serves the public and should conduct its activities in a way that is accountable and transparent to every stakeholder. Financial information needs to be openly conveyed to the stakeholders and be readily accessible to the public. The manager thus has an ethical obligation to ensure proper handling of funds to carry out the activities. When donors disburse funds to these organisations, they require that the money is going to be used properly and that there will be proper accountability of the funds. A legal obligation on the part of the organisation to use the funds in accordance with the terms and condition of the grant is created. The organisation must comply with the grant's provisions and conditions. The manager, apart from assuming full financial responsibility for the use of the funds, also becomes accountable for meeting donor requirements regarding financial management, internal control, auditing, and reporting.

For accountability purposes, the issues to be observed by the manager are:

- Making sure that annual financial reports; including income and expenditure statements, balance sheet, and functional expenses allocation, are produced.
- Openly communicating with other organisations to share and gather financial information on lessons learned and best practices.
- Making information regarding fees and services readily available to the public and donors alike.
- Encouraging workers to note and report on financial irregularities.
- Complying with all legal and other required reporting procedures regarding their performance.
- Responsibly using financial resources for the sole purpose of serving the organisation's goals.

Table 9.2 is an example of a self-assessment tool that the manager can use to assess the budget execution process. The abbreviations and their meanings are identical to the ones used in Table 9.1.

Financial management requirements and standards

A manager has an obligation to act in a responsible manner while managing financial resources. In doing so, all the legal financial requirements need to be adhered to. Sound accounting principles that ensure fiscal responsibility and trust need to be complied with. Because the manager is responsible for the effective and efficient use of funds, he or she should regularly monitor how funds are being used. If monitoring reveals inefficient or ineffective use of funds, he or she needs to take corrective action.

To meet the financial management requirements and standards, a manager ensures the following:

- An annual review by the board and its approval of the annual budget.
- The benchmarks of the target ranges of 65–80 per cent of expenditures for programmes, and 20–35 per cent for administration, fundraising and evaluation need to be adhered to (Michigan Non-profit Association, 2005).
- Generation of accurate financial records

Table 9.2 Checklist for action needed for budget execution

The budget execution	Assessment			
	Y	I	N	NR
1. Does the organisation have written policies and procedures for fiscal operations including procedures for processing payroll, purchases, accounts payable, accounts received, etc?				
2. Do processing activities match written policies and procedures?				
3. Is the concept of separation of duties implemented to the greatest extent within the limitations of the size of the organisation staff?				
3.a Does your organisation ensure that authorisation functions for purchasing, signing cheques, adjusting accounts, and extending credit are not performed by individuals who also perform recording or cash handling functions?				
3.b Does your organisation ensure that review and verification functions are not performed by individuals who also prepare cheques, record cheques, receive funds, prepare bank deposits, and/or record receipts?				
4. Are payroll policies and procedures clearly documented and consistently followed for:				
4.a written authorisation required for all new hires and pay rate changes?				
4.b monthly attendance sheets used to record attendance of all employees?				
4.c policies regarding overtime, vacation time, sick leave, holiday pay, and other leaves with or without pay written clearly?				
4.d all fringe benefit plans and statutory obligations documented and in compliance with the laws of the land?				
4.e statutory forms of all employees kept by employer?				
5. Do written purchasing policies clearly identify the purchasing authority of each staff position, and establish appropriate financial limits for purchasing authority at each level?				
6. Are there procedures for review of and authorisation to pay invoices?				
7. Are written policies and procedures for charging and collecting fees followed consistently and reviewed regularly?				
8. Are cash handling policies and procedures well-documented and tested periodically to ensure:				
8.a all cheques are restrictively endorsed upon receipt and receipts are given for cash transactions and donors/clients informed when cash is received?				
8.b a mail log is maintained by the person responsible for opening the mail?				
8.c logs are maintained by the person responsible for handling cash and cash counts are initialled by those holding or receiving cash?				
8.d all unused cheque stock is carefully secured?				
8.e bank reconciliation is performed by someone who neither makes bank deposits nor prepares cheques?				

(Adapted from NGO Code of Good Practice, 2008)

and reports, which include the comparison of actual to budgeted revenue and expenditure, including identification of variances and their accompanying explanation. The reports should be forwarded to the board members for review and discussion on a regular basis.
- Plan for a balanced budget, and, if a deficit occurs, inform the board of this and participate fully in determining a plan to restore the budget to a balanced state.
- Subjecting the financial statement to external annual audit by a Certified Public Accountant (CPA), unless exempted by law. Financial audits should be approved by the organisation's board and certified by the manager.
- That the auditor meets separately with the board, with management staff, and with the board audit committee that has responsibility for approving the financial report.
- Specific financial duties are kept separate in order to avoid a possible conflict of interests. For example, the audit committee should not have members who also sit on the finance committee. (Note: in organisations with few staff this may not always be possible since some employees may be required to perform two or more functions, which may well include having to engage in auditing and financial management duties. In this scenario, the organisation must use other means to prevent a conflict of interests from arising.)
- Establish and maintain financial reserves that are equal to three to six months of operating expenses (see, for example, Michigan Non-Profit Association, 2005).
- Verification and certification of all proposals and financial reports before they are submitted to ensure that they are accurate, complete and correctly formatted.
- A review of the financial checklist(s) from donor(s) to verify the existence of appropriate policies, procedures and reporting mechanisms and compliance with legal financial obligations.
- A system is put in place that allows individuals to report actual or suspected acts of financial misconduct without fear of reprisal (revenge).
- Consider bequests, planned gifts and pledges when determining the annual budget only after they have been received.
- A clear understanding of how to read and interpret financial statements

There are several methods for implementing financial management systems. In situations where the adult education organisation seeks funding, which is the case for the overwhelming majority of African adult education organisations, the donor prescribes the method to be used. Failure to implement the prescribed method can result in funding being terminated or withheld.

A manager adheres to the financial management standards that are commonly applied in Africa by observing the following:

- Putting in place accounting structures that provide accurate and complete information about all financial transactions in the organisation.
- Making sure that expenditure records are maintained for each activity according to the cost categories on the approved budget.
- Ensuring that personnel activity reports are maintained to account for all compensated time; including time spent on other activities for every employee whose salary is charged, in whole or in part, to a grant that is larger than a certain amount as specified by the donor.
- Ensuring that accounting records for the organisation are maintained on a current basis and balanced monthly.

- Ensuring that records are supported by source documentation such as cancelled cheques, invoices, contracts, travel reports, donor letters, in-kind contribution reports and personnel activity reports (National Endowment for Arts, 1997).
- Comparing actual expenditures with budgeted amounts and taking action where there are variances.
- Ensuring that records are preserved for three years following submission of the final financial status report.
- Determining how reasonable and allowable costs are, including how to allocate those costs. This ensures that the applicable cost principles and the terms and conditions of the grant awarded are followed.
- Ensuring that requests for advance payment is limited to immediate cash needs and does not exceed the organisation's anticipated expenditures over a stipulated time period.
- Accounting for in-kind or non-cash con-

Table 9.3 Checklist for action needed for the assessment of a recording system

The recording system	**Assessment**			
	Y	**I**	**N**	**NR**
1. Is there a complete written chart of accounts that provides appropriate account titles and numbers for assets, liabilities, net assets, revenues and expenses?				
1.a Does the chart of accounts distinguish funding sources and/or distinct funds to be tracked?				
1.b Does it utilise the line item categories as shown in the comprehensive annual budget and those for individual contracts or grants?				
2. Are accounting policies and recording procedures clearly documented in the written fiscal policies and procedures?				
3. Is appropriate computer software and hardware utilised to perform recording functions?				
4. Are appropriate electronic and physical security procedures utilised to protect the integrity of computerised accounting records?				
5. Are all accounting records backed up daily?				
6. Are back-up media stored in a secure area away from computer equipment and accounting data stored off-site at least monthly?				
7. Are detailed records of client fees and/or grants and contracts receivable maintained and reconciled to the general ledger balances?				
8. Are all contributions recorded in the accounting records?				
9. If more detailed records on contributions are maintained by staff responsible for fund development, are the fund development and accounting records of contributions reconciled monthly?				
10. Are all general ledger balance sheet accounts reconciled at least quarterly? Are all cash, payroll liabilities, and accounts receivable control accounts reconciled monthly?				

(Adapted from NGO Code of Good Practice, 2008)

tributions that are not required to be recorded in the general ledger, through the use of a memorandum ledger.
- Following donor cost principles to value contributions such as property, space or services that are donated to the organisation.

Table 9.3 is an example of a self-assessment tool that the manager can use to assess the recording system. The abbreviations and their meanings are identical to the ones used in Tables 9.1 and 9.2.

Internal control standards

The manager ensures that properties of the organisation are safeguarded whether cash or other assets, and are used solely for authorised purposes. To this end, the manager assigns the duties to the staff in such a way that no one person handles all aspects of a transaction from beginning to the end. However, for a small organisation, this separation of duties might not be feasible, but carefully planning the assignment should inject an element of control into the system. Some control measures that can be exercised by a manager are as follows:

- Ensuring that cash receipts are recorded and banked immediately on a daily basis.
- Ensuring that the person who has authority to sign the cheques is not the one responsible for placing employees on the payroll and establishing wage rates and salaries.
- Entrusting a petty cash fund used for all payments other than those made by cheque to a single custodian.
- Issuing cheques to suppliers only in payment of approved invoices, and supporting documents that are then cancelled.
- Ensuring records related to a physical asset are not kept by the person who is responsible for the physical custody of that asset.
- Ensuring that reconciliation of bank accounts is done monthly by someone other than the person who signs the cheques.

Audit standards

The manager is expected to maintain financial records in such a way that will allow audit to take place at any time. Records must be readily accessible for audit at any time. Failure to provide the auditor with reliable documentation could lead to audit questions about expenditures and prompt funders to demand a refund of monies awarded. Governments and donors have regulations concerning audits for both government and non-governmental organisations. The audit regulation requirements are based on specific amounts of money involved. The manager must be aware of these thresholds, which change from time to time depending on the changing requirements of the funders.

The manager needs to ensure that:

- Audits are performed by independent accounting firms, although government auditors or government-mandated ones can also conduct audits.
- Costs for audits are borne by the adult education organisation but may be allowable as charges to project grant. These audit costs may be considered either direct costs or indirect costs as determined by the cost principles that are followed in that organisation.
- Audits are conducted in accordance with the regulations and requirements of the government.
- Organisations that receive a certain amount of money below a given threshold may not be required to have an audit for that year due to the high costs

of auditing. Instead they may be selected for audits by government auditors or accounting firms under contract to the government or any other relevant body that may pay for the costs of the audit.
- Costs for audits or other reviews sponsored by government authorities may not be chargeable to the organisation.

Table 9.4 is an example of a self-assessment tool that the manager can use to monitor and assess internal control and audit standards. The abbreviations and their meanings are identical to the ones used in the previous tables.

Reporting standards for donors

The requirements for reporting are usually spelled out in the documents from the donors and/or governments. These are documents that contain general terms and

Table 9.4 Checklist for action needed to monitor and assess internal controls and audit standards.

Monitoring and assessment	Assessment			
	Y	I	N	NR
1. Do the executive director and the programme managers review the monthly financial statements carefully?				
2. Does the fiscal manager highlight unusual items and identify potential problems in notes to the financial statements, which are shared with the executive director and board committee or full board?				
3. Does the board committee or the full board review the financial statements carefully on a quarterly basis?				
4. Does the board or a board committee select an independent auditor to conduct an annual audit or review?				
5. Does the board or a board committee review the auditor's report, including any management letters, and report on internal controls and compliance with governmental law and regulations?				
6. Does the board or board committee receive accurate reports that show whether:				
6.a the use of the organisation's resources is consistent with the organisation's mission and priorities?				
6.b the organisation is solvent, i.e., has assets in excess of its liabilities?				
6.c the organisation has adequate cash and other liquid assets to meet its current obligations and assure its continuing ability to pay its employees, taxing authorities, and vendors on time?				
6.d the organisation is observing and documenting its observance of all restrictions imposed by funders and donors?				
7. The board/executive director/CEO are aware of the government's requirements for maintaining tax exempt status and continually evaluate the organisation's activities, use of funds, record keeping, and reporting to the government to assure compliance with all requirements?				

(Adapted from NGO Code of Good Practice, 2008)

conditions for grants to the organisation. The reporting requirements are also usually included in the grant award packages that are furnished to the organisation. It should be noted that a failure to submit reports on a timely basis may result in delayed payments and/or denial of eligibility for future grants from not just the granting organisation, but also from other donors who might consider the organisation's management as dishonest and untrustworthy. In addition to the basic reporting requirements, those organisations that are required to have had an audit should submit the audit reports within a stipulated time annually.

Table 9.5 is an example of a financial management checklist for reporting system assessment. The abbreviations and their meanings are identical to the ones used in the previous tables.

Illustration of financial reports requirements

The following is a description of the financial reports requirements for South Africa's REFLECT network. Read the passage carefully and answer the questions that follow.

> All monthly financial reports are supposed to be completed by the 14th of the month following. Financial reports are reviewed by the National Coordinator and the Finance Officer monthly as soon as practicable thereafter, and approved by the Board of Directors (BOD) quarterly. Copies of the monthly management accounts, trial balance, general ledgers, journals and working papers must be filed. If the Treasurer or any other BOD member wishes to view these, they request to do so in advance in writing (including by email, fax or letter) to the National Coordinator, and a mutually convenient time is arranged between the parties.
>
> The Finance Officer prepares a variance report (a comparison of actual income and expenditure with budgeted income and expenditure), for each

Table 9.5 Checklist for action needed to support reporting

Reporting	Assessment			
	Y	I	N	NR
1. Are monthly financial statements available no later than the end of the following month (e.g., April 30th statements are available no later than May 31st)?				
2. In organisations with multiple programmes, are statements of revenue and expenditure of each distinct programme/funding source developed as follows:				
2.a prepared monthly?				
2.b including fiscal (year to date) activity?				
2.c provide a comparison to the year to date or annual budget by line item?				
3. Is the excess (deficit) of support and revenue over expenses (net income) reconciled to the change in fund balance between the beginning and ending of the accounting period?				

(Adapted from NGO Code of Good Practice, 2008)

funder, and consolidates, with figures for the current month and year to date. The report is submitted to the National Coordinator monthly for review. The Finance Officer reviews variance reports with the different programme or project managers on a monthly basis. The Finance Officer maintains an accounting system which lists the debtors and creditors outstanding, on a monthly basis and submits them to the National Coordinator for review.

The Finance Officer prepares for the National Coordinator, a cash flow forecast monthly, showing the past month and the following months. This is submitted quarterly to the BOD for approval. The report identifies the location of all closing bank balances and the rate of interest being earned. A balance sheet is attached to the cash flow forecast.

Annual audited financial statements are prepared within 90 (ninety) days of the financial year end, with the cooperation of all the parties. Within 30 (thirty) days thereafter the statements are reviewed and approved by the Board of Directors. The Treasurer arranges for an audit committee meeting at which the auditors present a written report of their findings.

Requests for other financial reports by funders are to be complied with and are the responsibility of the National Coordinator, with assistance from the Finance Officer. All funders are expected to receive a half yearly and annual financial and narrative report, unless otherwise determined by the funder. A schedule with report due dates and requirements is maintained by the Finance Officer.

(Adapted from South Africa's REFLECT network Policy and Procedures Manual, 2008)

ACTIVITY

Discuss the applicability of the financial reports requirements for South Africa's REFLECT network to the organisation where you work or study.

COMMON MISTAKES MADE IN FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

We can now turn our attention to the various ways in which adult education organisations fail to meet the financial management requirements and standards discussed above. Common mistakes include:

- *Inadequate documentations*: personnel costs charged to grant projects, for example, are not supported by adequate documentation (for instance, personnel activity reports showing the actual activity of each employee whose compensation is charged, in whole or in part, to projects supported by the donor are not maintained).
- *Lack of independent audit required by the relevant authority*: either because this was not performed, or if it was performed, it did not meet the required standards.
- *Lack of supporting evidence*: for example, non-cash contributions of goods and services charged to the organisation's activities are not supported by documentation that is adequate for establishing the value of the contributions.
- *Reported costs do not agree with the accounting records*: usually because the financial reports were not prepared directly from the general ledger or subsidiary ledgers or from worksheets reconciled to the accounts.
- *Inadequate internal financial controls*: due to the absence of these controls or the inadequacy of controls that are present (for example, controls for the proper segregation of financial duties to prevent a conflict of interests, or for the comparison of actual expenditure with budgeted expenditure, are absent or inadequate).
- *Borrowing of funds in violation of fund restrictions and/or the organisation's regulations and requirements.*

- *Reasons for allocating funds to the indirect costs of the organisation not supported by adequate documentation.*
- *Government-supported cash reserve accounts, where applicable, are not reimbursed within the time allowed.*
- *Late submission of reports far beyond the time allowed.*
- *Unwarranted inclusion of certain costs in the budget*: such costs vary from donor to donor but largely include the following: fund-raising cost; lobbying costs; bad debts; contingencies; fines and penalties resulting from violation of, or failure to comply with, donor and central or local government laws and regulations; contributions and donations by the organisation to other organisations; certain depreciation or use allowances on buildings and equipment purchased with donor funds or contributed to meet statutory matching requirements; entertainment costs; interest on amount borrowed; certain items or equipment of high value; and foreign travel not identified in the grant application. (see also, Kariuki, 1999; National Endowment for the Arts, 1997; South Africa REFLECT Network, 2008; Michigan Non-profit Association, 2005; IIZ/DVV, 2007)

ACTIVITY

The following ten questions are concerned with different aspects of sound financial management. Answer the questions in your actual or assumed position as manager of an adult education organisation. For any questions that you cannot answer 'Yes' to, explain why this is so and say what you are doing or are planning to do to improve that aspect of financial management.

- **Does your organisation have a comprehensive annual budget that includes sources and uses of funds for all aspects of operations, as well as grant and contract agreements with funders?**
- **Does the board committee have a detailed understanding of the annual budget, play a significant role in directing the use of unrestricted funds, and formally authorise the annual budget and revisions to the budget?**
- **Does the organisation have written policies and procedures for fiscal operations including procedures for processing payroll, purchases, accounts payable, accounts receivable, and so on?**
- **Is the concept of separation of duties implemented at the organisation to the greatest extent possible within the limitations of the size of the organisation staff?**
- **Does the organisation have a complete written chart of accounts that provides appropriate account titles and numbers for assets, liabilities, net assets, revenues and expenditures?**
- **Are all accounting records for the organisation backed up regularly; are back-up media stored in a secure area away from computer equipment and accounting data stored off-site at least monthly?**
- **Are all general ledger balance sheet accounts for the organisation reconciled at least quarterly; are all cash, payroll liabilities, and accounts receivable control accounts reconciled monthly?**
- **In organisations with multiple programmes, are statements of revenue and expenditure of each distinct programme/funding source developed to include monthly preparation, fiscal (year to date) activity and a comparison to year to date or annual budget by line item?**
- **Does the fiscal manager highlight unusual items and identify potential problems in notes to the financial statements, which are shared with the executive director and board committee or full board?**

- **Does the board or board committee review the auditor's report, including any management letters, and report on internal controls and compliance with governmental laws and regulations?**

(Adapted from NGO Code of Good Practice, 2008)

PUBLIC FINANCING OF ADULT EDUCATION ORGANISATIONS

Most governments in Africa allocate meagre financial resources annually to adult education organisations. Adult education is, according to Afrik (2000), the poorest partner in education in terms of the allocation of financial resources. Subsequently, very little funds are available for the management of these organisations. The Fifth CONFINTEA and the Mid-term Conference argued for a minimum of 3 per cent of the education budget to be channelled to adult learning. Despite this argument, a survey in 2005 by the Action Aid and Global Campaign for Education (GCE) discovered that even this small amount was rarely achieved; only Namibia had tried to allocate close to 3 per cent of its education budget to adult education (Archer, 2006).

Adult education organisations continue to be inadequately financed in comparison to other sectors of the economy and to other areas of the education system. As an example of where underfunding occurs, we need look no further than those adult education organisations engaged in literacy programmes. As Archer (2006: 6) maintains, 'in recent years it has become all too invisible as people have refused to make this sound investment. Funds have been channelled into primary education but very little has gone into adult literacy even though there are strong returns and the investment seems to make good financial sense'.

The need to fund adult education organisations is crucial when we consider that many African adults who are now parents had no opportunity to go to school when they were young. For these adults to understand the value of education for their own children, it is important that governments invest in their learning.

Adult learners have diverse needs and it is the manager's responsibility to facilitate the provision and financing of activities that meet these needs.

Moreover, there are emerging challenges that need more sophisticated skills and knowledge to deal with. Some of these challenges relate to HIV infections, AIDS-related deaths, and taking care of the increasing number of orphans (Mondoh, 2004; EFA News, 2003; Walters and Watters, 2000). The deep-rooted cultural, religious, ethnic, gender, class and behavioural attitudes that encourage the spread of the disease need to be addressed through adult education or non-formal education packaged as preventive education. Poverty coupled with hunger, landlessness, high mortality and morbidity rates, insecurity, mismanagement of resources through corruption, and environmental degradation, are some of the other challenges. Adult education organisations are perfectly placed to help meet these challenges but they cannot do so unless funding is increased.

The apparent lack of interest on the part of African governments in the financing of adult education organisations can be attributed to the following reasons:

- *Lack of clarity over the constituent parts, the purpose and the importance of adult education that makes it difficult to advocate for funding:* for example, a term like 'non-formal education', if used in Community Based Adult Education (CBAE) programmes, may be misconceived to mean low-quality, unprofessional and/

or unorganised education, yet these programmes are of high quality and professionally run (Lovegrove, 2003).

- *The absence of a government policy on adult education:* a problem made worse by ministerial indifference to the issue of adult education. Ministers and senior government members are generally reluctant to allocate funds to adult education unless persuaded otherwise.
- *Adult education is not considered a profession:* it is instead thought of as something performed by a body of willing and unpaid volunteers. In this case, no financial provision for full-time appointments or career progression is usually made.
- *Adult learners should bear the cost of their education*: this rationale is based on the assumption that adult learners can only properly appreciate the facilities offered to them if they have to pay for them, and that because they are the ones who will benefit directly from the learning process, charging them for this (process) is not unreasonable (Merriam and Cunningham, 1990). Also, some donors are not usually convinced of the value of adult education since its impact in the community is difficult to measure (Lovegrove, 2003).
- *Inadequate and improper financial records kept by the organisation*: leading to the belief that money is misused, mismanaged or misappropriated. In fact, in most African countries, figures on the organisations' activities and programmes' costs are difficult to obtain or are absent (Oxenham *et al.*, 2002; Buchert, 2003).

Innovative ways of raising funds

Fundraising provides an important source of financial support for the activities of adult education organisations. The manager must ensure that the fundraising is conducted according to the highest ethical standards with regard to the solicitation, acceptance, recording, reporting, and use of funds. The fundraising activities must be maintained truthfully, accurately, and responsibly. Fundraising costs are limited to a reasonable proportion of the organisation's overall expenditure, and regularly tested for cost-effectiveness. An organisation's fundraising policies need to be consistent with its mission, compatible with its organisational capacity and respectful of the interests of actual and potential donors (Michigan Non-profit Association, 2005). The manager ensures responsible use of funds for designated purposes; he or she also makes provision for and maintains open, transparent communication channels with donors and other stakeholders, government included.

With regard to fundraising practices, the manager ensures:

- *Accurate and truthful fundraising activities that are well organised.*
- *Discreet management of donor relationships:* the manager needs to achieve a balance between publicly recognising financial contributions and maintaining donor confidentiality when needed. For example, a manager should never share or trade a donor's identity with others unless permitted to by the donor.
- *Government requirements on returns are adhered to, for public disclosure and are accessible to allow inspection of documents at any time in the organisation's offices or on the internet*: however, if it is determined that an organisation may be subjected to a harassment campaign, copies of the documents do not have to be provided.
- *Written, mandatory document retention and periodic destruction policies are adhered to*: this includes guidelines for handling electronic files and voicemail, back-up procedures, archiving of documents, and regular checks of the reliability of the system.

- *The organisation complies with local and national laws and regulations concerning fundraising practices*: the manager assumes overall responsibility for raising sufficient funds to meet the organisation's budgeted activities. This responsibility includes the need to secure a licence for fundraising.
- *Delivery of clear, accurate, and honest information about the organisation*: this includes a disclosure of the organisation's fundraising licence number, the activities involved, and the intended use of funds. (Note that the organisation has a legal and ethical obligation to spend funds responsibly and to ensure that funds are dispensed according to the wishes and requirements of those who contributed.)
- *Regular communication with donors regarding the organisation's activities.*
- *Maintaining the public's trust in the organisation by seeking only the funds the organisation needs to achieve its objectives.*
- *Policies that govern the receipt, disposal and management of funds (including, gifts and grants) are in place and are being closely adhered to.*
- *Adequate management and supervision of fundraising activities in case they are conducted by contractual service providers.*

(Michigan Non-profit Association, 2005)

FUNDING METHODS AND THEIR SUB-FORMS

In the following section, we will explore the funding methods that adult education organisations in Africa and individual adult learners can explore. Because there is no distinction between those methods suitable for organisations and those for individuals, the following general observations can be understood as referring to both the organisation-as-learner and the individual learner himself or herself. However, bursaries, scholarships, fees, loans and cost-sharing methods clearly relate more directly to the funding of individual learners.

Government grants

This method is commonly used to finance adult education organisations in cases where most potential adult learners cannot afford to pay due to low income and their poverty level (Ozigi, 1977). A budget showing the estimated amount required to implement the organisation's activities is prepared and forwarded to the ministry responsible for funding. In Senegal, Togo, Madagascar, Mauritius, Benin and Cape Verde, government grants are used to fund various vocational training activities. In Mauritius, for example, small scale businesses and micro-enterprises receive training benefits from the levy grant scheme (Ziderman, 2003). In Kenya, adult education organisations receive funds from the Constituent Development Fund (CDF) that are channelled into HIV/AIDS awareness, poverty reduction, and health and nutritional education programmes.

The value of government grants varies from country to country depending on the government's priorities. Omolewa (2000), for example, notes that Tanzania, Ethiopia and Ghana (under Nkrumah), put a priority, among other education programmes, on adult education, unlike other African countries. Generally speaking, however, these grants are not large enough to meet the competing needs of adult education organisations. High levels of poverty; poor performance in the agriculture and manufacturing sectors of the economy; balance of payment problems; the high level of public indebtedness; and the possibility of receiving development assistance, constrain the government's ability to fund these organisations. In addition, increased debt

financing drains funds that would otherwise have been used to provide adult education.

Subsidies

According to Oxenham *et al.* (2002), subsidies are financed by all taxpayers and benefit only adult learners that are enrolled in subsidised organisations. The method places resources in the hands of adult education providers. The idea is to reduce problems that may prevent an adult learner from learning, and also to act as an incentive for the providers to respond to the learners' needs. Those organisations that provide courses that are vital and yet have low demand may be subsidised. In this respect, courses that target the poor, especially women, and those that facilitate self-employment are subsidised.

Subsidisation may take the form of vouchers, or entitlement (which is a combination of vouchers and a loan). The voucher scheme could be government-, private-, and/or company-sponsored. The government authorises a consulting firm, non-governmental organisation (NGO), or an informal sector association to allocate the voucher to the learner who then uses it to pay for training provided by a selected training provider. The voucher represents a monetary sum that the adult learner uses to join a programme of their own choice. She or he negotiates what to learn and with whom (Oxenham *et al.*, 2002). The voucher is then cashed by the adult education organisation.

One challenge with the use of subsidies is that it is not possible to discriminate between those organisations that target the poor and those that target the rich, so long as the learners are enrolled in the organisations that are subsidised. To reduce the consequences of this problem, Oxenham *et al.* (2002) argue that the proportion of subsidy needs to vary from group to group and from time to time depending on the degree of need. In addition, those organisations that have literacy and numeracy components and tend to attract the poorest people to their activities and programmes need more subsidies.

Kenya, Ghana, Mauritius and Somalia are some of the sub-Saharan African (SSA) economies that operate voucher schemes. The objective of the voucher scheme in Kenya is to widen the pool of training providers who can cater for the needs of the *jua kali* (informal) sector. The scheme is run by a privately managed Project Coordination Office (PCO) attached to the relevant ministry, so as to protect funds from government control. This is because if the government controls the funds, it may use the money to accomplish political rather than the envisaged objectives, or divert it to non-core areas. Hence a strong representation of the stakeholders is paramount for proper financial management. However, payment delays and outright corruption may be challenges to address. The scheme is also subject to conditions set by donors.

In Ghana, the voucher scheme failed and was replaced by direct recruitment of trainees by trade associations and training institutions. The failure was caused by lack of private allocation agencies and approved training providers in certain areas, which in the words of Ziderman (2003: 160) 'denied voucher holders the main benefit of the voucher scheme, consumer choice'.

In Somali, the Somali Educational Incentive for Girls and Young Men, funded by The African Educational Trust, enables disadvantaged girls and ex-militia young men who never benefited from normal schooling to attend afternoon or evening lessons.

According to Ayot and Briggs (1992), Ziderman (2003) and the World Bank (2003), the advantages of the voucher scheme are:

- Attainment of improved efficiency by injecting competition in the provision

of adult education through offering opportunities to learners to join those organisations that offer relevant and high quality learning programmes.
- Cost-effective in providing training because funding is based on the demand for the organisation's programmes.
- Equitable because the beneficiaries are those who cannot themselves afford the costs involved.
- Offers high quality learning because providers have to compete for government authorisation to offer education, which in turn makes their programmes competitive.
- Offers a choice for adult learners due to the availability and diversity of providers.
- Lightening the administrative burden and easing the cash flow problems because the boards are established that redeem vouchers for payment.

The disadvantages of the voucher scheme are:

- Lack of relevant information for use by adult learners, which leads to poor choice of programmes.
- Beneficiaries lack serious commitment to the activities of the organisation because payment comes from elsewhere.
- Organisations with poorly attended programmes attract insufficient funds since funding levels depend on the number of learners enrolled on a programme (more learners equals more money and vice versa).
- The scheme does 'not lighten the financing burden falling on the funding body (usually the government); training remains subsidised, and cost recovery is not an integral part of the scheme (though it may be present)' (Ziderman, 2003: 157).
- The scheme is not sustainable because funds may be misused especially where there is no proper accounting system; no proper marketing strategy; strong government control; the governing agency's role is advisory in nature; and poor stakeholders' representation.

Payroll taxes

Payroll taxes are often used to fund adult education organisations, especially in the area of occupational training. The government levies a payroll tax on employers. The local authority, or the central government or its appointed agencies, conduct training using the funds collected through the levy. Alternatively, the employers themselves manage the funds collected from the levy. They then provide training to their employees and avail information to the government showing that they have done so. This system that focuses on in-service training serves to encourage training investment by the employers. The payroll taxes diversify funding and reduce the financial burden placed on the government. The revenue generated from the taxes provides an additional and a more stable source of funding than government allocations.

Using payroll taxes as a method of funding adult education programmes has several shortcomings. In Tanzania, for example, a payroll tax of 2 per cent is levied. The money is used to fund the activities of the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA), public training centres, and the national trades training programme. The VETA trains and disburses funds at the same time. It is therefore a provider, financier, and overseer of the national training system. This creates conflicts of interest. As Ziderman (2003: 67) notes:

> *VETA's triple roles as provider, financier, and overseer of the national training system have led to an internal conflict of interests in its activities. The VETA-owned, largely supply driven training centres, pro-*

viding mainly pre-employment courses for the formal sector, dominate the activities of the regional structures; they receive the bulk of disbursement, which are not made on the basis of objective allocation criteria . . . [T]he protected status given by VETA to its own training centres is grossly distorting the training markets by offering training at its centres at highly subsidised rates, making it difficult for private providers to compete. This prevents moves to open the field competitively to private providers and impedes the development of open, demand-driven, and low-cost regional training markets.

Other shortcomings of the payroll taxes method include:

- Distorting the training markets by making it difficult for private adult education organisations to compete with the public ones, which are protected by the government that subsidises training.
- Impeding the development of open and demand-driven adult education activities and programmes (see above quote).
- Creating large, self-perpetuating bureaucracies especially when training is done by the government or its appointed agencies (Blunt, Jones and Richards, 1993).
- Organisations using the funds on other activities and then requesting a tax rebate after reporting that the funds have been used to educate their employees.
- Increasing the cost of labour unnecessarily so that the organisations can receive maximum financial gain from the scheme.
- Encouraging organisations to provide adult education and training internally even when it is not required at all (Ziderman, 2003).

Bursary and scholarship schemes

The government and other donors may provide bursaries to the organisation, which are then given to the adult learners who cannot themselves afford to pay the fees. Bursaries may be sourced from foreign donors, community-based organisations (CBOs), family-based organisations (FBOs), church-based organisations (CBOs), non-governmental organisations (NGOs), and government-based organisations (GBOs), or even from local governments.

A scholarship scheme for supporting a specific category of adult learners can also be established. The scholarships could be sourced from foreign donors, individuals, government, and/or private companies. Scholarships are given to organisations for undertaking courses such as HIV/AIDS awareness, disaster preparedness and management, women's economic empowerment, poverty eradication, nutrition, community leadership, insecurity and proliferation of small arms, food storage and processing, and appropriate farming techniques, among others. This is in recognition of the fact that acquiring knowledge and skills in these areas is pertinent to the survival and development of the African people.

Most adult learners do not qualify as potential beneficiaries of government bursary or scholarship schemes due to the age factor (Manthoto, Braimoh and Adeola, 2000). Furthermore, the procedure for determining the needy may be inaccurate and/or blighted by corruption. Organisations that do not have learners who require bursaries may receive them (the bursaries) either by giving false information or through outright corruption, thereby depriving genuinely in-need individuals from receiving support. Hence the bursary scheme may be inequitable for the purpose of funding adult education organisations.

International donor organisations

Because national governments in Africa do not commit enough resources to adult education organisation, international donors are usually called upon to try and close the resource gaps. The quest for donor funds was enhanced by the Dakar Framework for Action in 2000, where donors committed themselves to support any country with a viable plan that would be used to achieve education for all by 2015 (Archer, 2006).

Donors fund adult education organisations that run programmes on adult literacy, community development, training, economic empowerment, HIV/AIDS education, information communication technology (ICT) for marginalised people, and education for job creation (Lovegrove, 2003).

In Zimbabwe and Tanzania, for example, the German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ) has been involved in financing organisations that deal with Traditional Apprenticeship Programmes and Pilot Training Programmes for the informal sector respectively (Ziderman, 2003). The two programmes aim at providing skills to enable those who complete their education to become self-employed. In Madagascar, donor-funded projects target the needs of the informal sector and small firms with high potential for growth. In Côte d'Ivoire, donor funding has been used to support training programmes for informal sector and apprenticeship training, including in-service training.

Donors may form partnerships with other organisations, individuals, business and industry through which resources are channelled to support adult education programmes. According to Lauglo (2001), the main reasons advocated for seeking donor funds through partnerships are that:

- Funds and resources can be more easily mobilised via a partnership arrangement than through the separate efforts of the provider's own funding sources. For example, the Namibian government partners with NGOs to carry out literacy programmes, while in Senegal, teaching services for the literacy programme are outsourced to NGOs and CBOs. This has created rapid growth in adult basic education in these two countries.
- Great benefits are derived from partnerships forged between CBOs and NGOs that have a lot of experience at a grassroots level. For example, in Uganda, the Literacy and Adult Basic Education (LABE) programme is provided with the help of partners who train trainers and instructors (Lauglo, 2001).
- Partners provide feedback to the government and policy-makers because they share common interests.
- Partnership encourages local support for the adult education activities.
- Partnership makes it possible for adult education organisations to incorporate local conditions and this introduces variety and flexibility in the programmes.

For a partnership to be effective, the manager should pursue innovative courses and projects relevant to the local setting and within the donor priorities and conditionality (Leach, 1995). The programmes that are popular in this respect are adult functional literacy, distance learning, evening programmes, open learning, short specialised courses, and school-based learning programmes (Nafukho and Wawire, 2004).

Agencies dealing in similar adult learning activities may establish a coordinating agency to help them fulfil their individual missions. Some of the partners that fund adult education in Africa include the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the World Bank, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the United Nations Inter-

national Children's Fund (UNICEF), Funds in Trust, the Canadian Agency for International Development (CIDA), the Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association (IIZ/DVV), the Islamic Call Bank, and the African Development Bank (ADB), among others (Afrik, 2000).

Stringent conditions should be met before a donor funds an organisation. For example, the organisation's activities must be multi-year with specific achievable, measurable outcomes; be built on long-term partnerships with credible local partners; demonstrate the added value of a regional or sub-regional dimension; have clear capacity-building dimensions for in-country partners; and link national- and regional-level activities to global impacts (Lovegrove, 2003).

Donors also require a project proposal to be submitted at the very beginning of the funding process. In most cases, however, a donor prepares a project plan for the organisation's manager to complete. For example, the REFLECT grant application project plan contains the following sections: project plan; organisational details; bank account details; organisational profile and capacity; problem statement; objectives and target groups; implementation schedule; projected results; budget estimates; preparatory and follow-up processes; sustainability; and declaration. The proposal forms the basis upon which a decision about funding is made. Once the project proposal is accepted, the donor disburses financial resources to the government, or to its agencies, or through partnerships, or directly to the organisation. Where resources are channelled directly or in partnership, the government has a coordinating role to ensure that funds, resources and any efforts from donors are directed to priority areas. For sustainability of donor funding, the manager builds relationships with important people in donor organisations, holds regular meetings with donors, and builds credibility through organising successful events that are witnessed by donor representatives.

Funding of an adult education organisation by donors, though vital, faces the following challenges:

- A donor is likely to choose to fund its own priority area(s) not necessarily those of the recipient or host country even though the official policy is to support the country's own priorities (Leach, 1995). For example, UNICEF did not support vocational skills training in Uganda due to the high cost of providing the same (Grov, 1999).
- The sudden withdrawal of donor funding as a result of a strained donor-government relationship, misappropriation of funds, corruption, wrong priority, or lack of goodwill on the part of the stakeholders. For example, in Swaziland, USAID withdrew funding for the Educational Policy Management and Technology (EPMT) programme. However, UNICEF, when it took over the project, emphasised education for the girl-child (Brock-Utne, 2000).
- Stakeholders may resist the project if they have not been involved right from its inception, since they may consider their exclusion to demonstrate a lack of goodwill. For example, Swaziland's EPMT project suffered such a fate because the introduction of continuous assessment was made without consulting Swaziland's National Teachers Association (SNAT), which felt that the programme had been imposed on them.
- The programme's content and learning materials may be intentionally or unintentionally modelled on western concepts of education as a condition for funding, which is irrelevant in the African context. Using western theories

of adult education defeats the purpose of adult education in Africa, which seeks to equip adult learners with the life-long skills that will help them to secure a paid job or to set up their own business (become successfully self-employed). This then defeats the purpose of adult education which includes attaining life-long skills, being self-employed or finding a paid job. For example, in Swaziland's EPMT project, textbooks were written with the nuclear family in mind, which is a western phenomenon, and not the extended family, which for African people is a far more important reality (Okkelmo, 1999).

- Poor coordination of donors may encourage competition between agencies, duplicate efforts and place high demand on the management and coordination capacities of recipient governments and organisations.
- Donors may not provide all the funds required by an organisation and yet success depends on the level of funding.
- A large portion of donor funds finds its way back to the country of origin in the form of salaries and allowances for expatriates who accompany the donations.
- Local human resource capacity is not taken into consideration because foreign experts are brought in to execute the project(s). For example, in Swaziland's EPMT project, foreign experts from the US were hired. Furthermore, the local professionals received their academic training at US universities, which created problems when they returned home to work and discovered that their overseas training had not prepared them for the realities of life back home.
- Donor-funded projects are in most cases unsustainable due to, among other failings, poor management; corruption; misappropriation of funds; lack of political will on the part of the government; nepotism; harsh donor conditionality that it is difficult to comply with; and tribalism (Leach, 1995).
- A donor may decide not to pay for certain organisational activities despite the fact that these activities are vital to the smooth operation of the organisation. For example, the donor might not provide the funds needed to pay staff salaries, attend conferences, settle public utilities accounts, arrange educational exchanges, or participate in regional or sub-regional adult education events (NEA, 1997; Lovegrove, 2003).
- Unequal composition of partnerships, powers and opportunities, where the powerful partner dictates what should be done. We can cite ADEA as an example of a partnership where donors have been represented in meetings by staff in the lower cadres, consultants or agencies, while top government officials represent the African countries (Brock-Utne, 2000).
- One of the partners can easily dictate conditions, while the other is an implementer.
- Organisation activities lose their integrity because they are driven by foreign interests.

The case study that follows is a story of a failed adult education provider. Read it and reflect on it in terms of the remedial measures that could and should have been put in place to save the situation. As you will notice, some of the reasons for failure have already been discussed in this chapter.

CASE STUDY: THE AFRICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LITERACY AND ADULT EDUCATION

The African Association for Literacy and Adult Education (AALAE) was created in 1984, following the merger of the Afro-Lit Society and the African Adult Education Association. Its headquarters was in Nairobi, Kenya. The creation 'marked the beginning of a unified African literacy and adult education movement embracing all linguistic sub-regions' (Ekundayo, 1998: 113). In 1986, the AALAE held its first programming and development of the needs assessment survey conference in Nairobi, for 22 Anglophone and Francophone countries. The aim was to popularise the Association and its mission and at the same time look for funding for the Association's programmes for the first three years. In 1987, the first general assembly of the AALAE was held in Nairobi, to adopt the first three-year programme and to elect the Association's first executive council. In 1994, a participatory evaluation throughout Africa was commissioned to mark its tenth anniversary.

In 1995, the AALAE was in a financial crisis. Following persistent reports of mismanagement at the secretariat, the donors commissioned an international firm of auditors, Coopers and Lybrand, to carry out an investigative audit. The donors included the German Adult Education Association (II/DVV), the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA), and the Norwegian Agency for Development Co-operation (NORAD). The audit report revealed serious acts of corruption and mismanagement by the secretariat. Following this revelation, the donors pulled out of the AALAE and the secretariat was subsequently closed (Ekundayo, 1998: 111–116).

INDIVIDUAL FINANCING OF ADULT EDUCATION ORGANISATIONS

Cost-sharing schemes

The cost-sharing instruments include income-contingent loan repayment scheme, loan scheme, human capital contracts, and graduate taxes (Nafukho and Verma, 2001; World Bank, 2003). In these schemes, learners contribute towards learning and teaching resources, physical facilities and other amenities. The government, on the other hand, provides funds for management, administration, professional services, technical support services, paying educators and providing textbooks and equipment. In Africa, however, only the income-contingent repayment scheme and loan scheme have been used to fund these organisations. The cost-sharing schemes are efficient if the learner makes the best choices according to the available information and puts more effort into the learning. However, the schemes may make it quite difficult for those who cannot pay to pursue adult learning.

The income-contingent loan repayment scheme

The income-contingent loan repayment scheme is run by the government. The learner pays according to the level of their income until the amount borrowed is repaid or until the maximum agreeable repayment period is reached. The repayment of the loan is made through the tax collection agency and the amount repaid depends on the income of the beneficiary at that time.

The success of the scheme is attained, first, when adult learners themselves are involved in its design. The wide acceptability of this scheme by learners in Namibia,

for example, was attributed to fact that both learners and institutional welfare officers were involved in its design (World Bank, 2003). Second, the collection mechanism put in place must be efficient so as to keep the collection costs per beneficiary low. Namibia, for example, collects income that is repaid by the learner through the national social security system since its tax collection mechanism is believed to be less efficient (World Bank, 2003).

The main merits of the income-contingent loan repayment scheme are that it:

- Satisfies the fairness element since the learner with low income during the repayment period pays less than the value of the loan
- Increases access to adult education for learners from low income and poverty stricken backgrounds
- Reduces risk to individuals because the amount is deducted as a compulsory payment by using an efficient collection mechanism
- Reduces default rate because once the beneficiary starts earning income she or he starts paying through the recognised compulsory scheme
- Encourages equity since those who cannot pay can afford to get education through the schem
- Enhances incentives for pursuing adult learning since payment is delayed until one has income
- Increases resources available to expand provision of adult education.

The shortcomings of the income-contingent loan repayment scheme include:

- Attracting little funding from the private sector due to delayed payment hence requiring the government to increase its funding level to the organisation
- Reflecting only partially the expected value of adult education because it is not considered as vocational/technical education that offers high returns
- Requiring a developed tax collection system or other efficient collection system that can gather information on learners' incomes.

CASE STUDY: NAMIBIA'S INCOME-CONTINGENT LOAN REPAYMENT SCHEME

The following is a case study on Namibia's income-contingent loan repayment scheme.

Namibia finances higher education through an income-contingent loan repayment scheme. It uses the social security system, rather than the tax collection agency, to collect payments from learners. The system consists of two types of loans; one that covers tuition and one that covers living expenses. The first type of loan is universally available and provides $700 in financing. The second type of loan is offered only to some borrowers, who receive $1 000. These amounts can be renewed each year as the learner progresses. In addition to the loan, the package can include a grant. For loans available to all learners, a discount of 10 per cent is given to those who pay their fees when commencing their courses. In general, the amount available for loans depends on the government's budget. Repayments are income-contingent and can cost as much as 10 per cent of a postgraduate salary, with repayments starting when the learner reaches a minimum weekly income of about $17 a week. The loan carries an interest of 1 to 2 per cent above the inflation rate, and there is no upper limit to the repayment period.

Namibia's scheme was designed in 1996 and established shortly thereafter. Little is known about its outcome, but two important points can be made. First, contrary to expectations, income-contingent loans were widely accepted by learners. Their acceptance is attributed to the fact that both learners and institutional students' welfare officers were closely involved in the design of the programme (World Bank, 2003: 87).

Lessons that can be learned from this case study are that adult learners should be involved in the activities of an adult education organisation and that efficient collection mechanisms should be embraced by the authorities. This implies that participatory decision-making processes in the organisation need to be encouraged.

The loan scheme

Loans can be given to the poor and other deserving adult learners. The use of loans induces private contributions and shifts the cost burden from taxpayers to the consumers of adult education (Padmanabhan, 1984). The learner can borrow from central or local government, or from any other institution that is willing to lend. In accepting the implementation of the loan scheme, the government is guided by the need to improve equity and access to adult education. The loan scheme is meant to benefit the needy adult learner who cannot afford direct fee payments from her or his own resources while at the same time reducing the burden of financing on national and local government, NGOs, CBOs, and donors.

The main merits of the loan scheme are that it:

- Shifts the burden of financing from parents, sponsors or guardians to beneficiaries themselves
- Allows a greater number of learners to receive education
- Pays for the learner's education hence she or he takes the learning more seriously
- Enables a learner to pursue education that would have otherwise been out of reach due to poverty
- Converts repaid loan monies into new loans for other needy learners
- Offers security to the commercial banks and boards set up for the disbursement and collection of monies since these bodies can stipulate the rules that control the lending-repayment process. For example, in Kenya, the Higher Education Loans Board (HELB) is charged with the responsibility of disbursing and collecting repaid funds from loanees.
- The courses and training offered are relevant and of high quality because they focus on the adult learners' need to increase their earning potential and so repay their loans.

Financing adult learners through the loan scheme has the following demerits:

- High repayment default rate especially when graduates do not get well paid jobs.
- The repayment period may be shorter given the age of learners especially for those pursuing lifelong skills and literacy for better livelihoods.
- Increases the administrative cost per learner because he or she takes fewer courses and hence borrows less funds and yet takes a long period to complete the course, which ultimately delays the commencement of the repayment period (World Bank, 2003; Ayot and Briggs, 1992).
- Benefits those who have enough assets to serve as collateral and yet they are the ones who least need financial support.
- Stresses the beneficiary where the terms of repayment do not adjust to the ability-

to-pay principle.
- May be faced with poor or inefficient collection mechanism thereby depriving the government of funds that would have maintained a higher revolving loan level.

Fees

A fee is paid by individual learners themselves, parents/guardians, or employers. It may be levied on programmes and activities that are in the nature of recreational, vocational, personal enrichment, professional development or up-grading, refresher and technical. The manager should be able to win the learner's confidence so that the learner can pay fees. Each organisation or the government should decide which programmes should be free, which ones should be offered at a token fee and which ones should be self-supporting (Coles, 1977).

The payment of fees for study purposes is a highly contentious issue given the high levels of poverty and low per capita incomes that exist in Africa. Some adult education programmes aim at equipping specific target groups with the tools and survival skills necessary for maintaining their livelihood. Fee payment is inappropriate in this case. Examples of these programmes include HIV/AIDS awareness, agricultural extension education, literacy, and health and nutritional education. These programmes are vital to the well-being of the community and contribute to economic development. Hence fees payment discourages or even completely shuts out a great number of learners. We can also note that for parents or guardians living in poverty and who are responsible for a great many dependents, the payment of study fees is simply not possible. The method therefore makes access to adult education inequitable and skewed in favour of those who can afford to pay.

The possibility of an adult education organisation raising funds through direct fees payment diminishes as the economy declines and poverty worsens. The HIV/AIDS menace and internal conflicts, coupled with insecurity, are other challenges. The method may also be plagued by a high repayment default rate and inadequate funding, which would delay the implementation of programmes.

Other sources of funds that are exploited by adult education organisations in Africa include: income-generating activities, business and industry, community, NGOs, CBOs, and endowment and human capital contracts. We do not have the space available in this book to discuss these issues properly. However, we urge you to think about these funding windows and the circumstances in which they can be applied.

ACTIVITY

- **Explain the funding models adopted by your own organisation.**
- **Identify the strengths and weaknesses of these models.**
- **Discuss how you obtained funding as a student and the positive and the negative outcomes of your experience.**

SUMMARY

The manager should assume full responsibility for the use of funds, be accountable and transparent, and meet the donor financial requirements that we discussed in this chapter. The manager should follow well-established financial management, internal control, audit, monitoring, and reporting standards. To achieve financial sustainability, African governments should mobilise local voluntary contributions to augment government budgetary allocations, establish long-term consortiums with international donors, and seek to persuade potential inter-

national lenders of the benefits to be gained from funding adult education programmes in Africa. We also noted that attracting funding from the private sector is made difficult by problems of relevancy, assessment of future earnings, and the large number of providers involved, which makes coordination problematic. The chapter ended with a discussion of the various options for financing adult education organisations and adult learners. These options include government allocations, international donors, bursary and scholarship schemes, cost-sharing schemes, and fees.

KEY POINTS

- The manager needs to achieve a balance between publicly recognising financial contributions and maintaining donor confidentiality when needed.
- Government requirements on returns should be adhered to, for public disclosure and are accessible to allow inspection of documents at any time.
- Maintaining the public's trust in the organisation by seeking only the funds the organisation needs to achieve its objectives is critical.
- Policies that govern the receipt, disposal and management of funds should be in place and strictly adhered to.

FURTHER QUESTIONS

1. Explain the principles that govern proper management of funds.
2. Discuss the merits and demerits of using the voucher scheme (subsidies) to finance adult education organisations. Provide as many examples as possible.
3. Explain the importance of auditing the financial accounts of an adult education organisation.
4. Explain the common mistakes made by managers in financial management.

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Chapter 10

The challenges and opportunities of managing adult education organisations

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Differentiate between a challenge and an opportunity as they relate to the management of adult education organisations.
2. Evaluate the main challenges that face managers of adult education organisations.
3. Analyse the opportunities and challenges facing adult education organisations based on your own knowledge and experiences.

KEY TERMS

challenge A situation that arises that poses uncertainty and difficulty to the manager of a specific adult education organisation.

limitation A circumstance, restriction or condition that obstructs or delays the accomplishment of a set goal.

opportunity The notion that problems that managers of adult education organisations face should be used as learning avenues, provided that the manager adapts a creative and innovative approach to problem solving.

BEFORE YOU START

Think about some of the challenges you have faced at work and/or your place of study. How did you address these challenges? What caused the challenges? Did the challenges revolve around one or two main issues? If so, what were these issues? Did you manage to turn any of these challenges into opportunities? If so, how did you do this?

OVERVIEW

Adult education organisations in Africa, and their managers, face many challenges. Indeed, much of this book's focus has been on the nature of these challenges and how managers can find ways of dealing with them. The fast-paced, ever-changing environment in which these organisations operate means that, today, the adult education manager must be prepared to engage with a series of technological, economic, social and cultural developments that are rapidly refiguring the way in which people deliver, receive and perceive education.
In this final chapter we examine the main challenges that adult education managers need to address, drawing together some of previous nine chapters' observations to produce, we hope, a satisfying conclusion. We will also consider ways in which a manager can turn these challenges into viable opportunities, again referencing some of the previous chapters' suggestions and observations.

The authors firmly believe that efforts to deal with changes, challenges and opportunities can produce positive results. For

this to happen, however, Africa needs adult education managers who embrace diversity, commit to personal and organisational development, encourage participation at all levels, accept the challenges of globalisation, and incorporate the use of information and communication technology wherever possible. It is these managers that will make an invaluable contribution to the well-being and progress of their organisations, facilitators, workers and learners.

MANAGING CHANGE IN THE CONTEXT OF ADULT EDUCATION ORGANISATIONS

In Africa, as in other parts of the world, the scale and severity of problems that continue to afflict societies and communities may seem as great as ever. Poverty, crime, the abuse of women and children, disease, starvation, and human rights violations are among the worst of these problems. Governments, aid agencies, community organisations, faith organisations, non-governmental organisations, and others do what they can to relieve the suffering but it is difficult to remain optimistic when the sheer force of these problems threatens to overwhelm all relief efforts made and planned. The managers of adult education organisations often feel the same way. Their organisations often lack the funds, capacity, and trained staff to cope with the rising demand for adult education across the length and breadth of the continent.

Rising to these challenges, therefore, requires a huge effort. It means that the managers and leaders of organisations involved in relief and development, including adult education organisations, must reject the possibility of defeat and renew their firm commitment to the aims and objectives of their particular organisation. The Swahili proverb - *Penye nia ipo njia* ('Where there is a will there is a way') best captures how challenges facing managers of adult education should be viewed and handled. Challenges should not be viewed as obstacles that cannot be overcome, instead, they should be thought of as important components of the management process that stretch managers beyond their current levels of thought, knowledge, skills, attitudes, and expertise. What motivates them in their complex management work should be an internal dynamism that is willing to learn, adjust and adapt to changing conditions and which constantly seeks out solutions to the challenges and problems that frequently arise.

Some specific challenges that managers of adult education organisations in Africa confront in their work include:

- Politics and the need for exemplary leaders
- Corruption and how it promotes inequity in society
- Health issues
- Application of African indigenous management styles
- Managing of diverse and complex institutions
- Financing of adult education organisations
- Managing rapid societal change
- Globalisation
- Use of information and communication technology (ICT)
- Valuing the customers and other stakeholders.

Challenge 1: Politics and the need for exemplary leaders

Politics affects everyone in society. Daniel Arap Moi, Kenya's second president (1978–2002) used to sum up the importance of politics in Kenyan society with four Swahili

words '*Siasa mbaya maisha mbaya*' ('Bad politics bad life'). Regarding the importance of politics and its impact on society, it is noted, '. . . politics constitutes a serious threat to individual and organisational effectiveness. Viewed from the political frame, politics is simply the realistic process of making decisions and allocating resources in a context of scarcity and divergent interests. This view puts politics at the heart of decision-making' (Bolman and Deal, 2003: 181).

Although a great many positive steps have been taken to promote democracy in a number of African countries such as South Africa, Nigeria, Botswana, Zambia, Ghana, Tanzania, Malawi, and Kenya, politics in one form or another continues to affect the way in which adult education organisations operate. While reduced political instability and civil unrest has improved the livelihoods of millions of Africans in many countries, these positive developments should be accompanied with the political will to invest in adult education and lifelong learning given the fact that these countries are continuously in transition (Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga, 2005). Nafukho *et al.* (2005) further note that adult learners and adult learning institutions in Africa are still a neglected lot as governments continue to focus on education for the youth.

Managers of adult education organisations are thus tasked with convincing national government of the need to, and value of, investing resources in the education of adults. To do this, they need to develop clear adult education policies that focus on workforce development and community development. Government ministers need to be reassured that adult learners can contribute greatly to the social and economic development of their local communities, and to society at large. Lobbying, supported by sound evidence-based research, needs to be on the agenda of all managers of adult education organisations.

The organisational politics of adult education facilities also demands the attention of the managers of these facilities. As we have explored in earlier chapters (notably Chapters 1 and 6), the competing demands of a number of stakeholder groups (learners, staff, teaching faculty, government (local, provincial, national), community organisations, and so on) mean that the manager of an adult educational organisation has to find ways of best representing the interests of these different constituencies – much as a politician has to cater to the needs of his or her local electoral constituency. Consensus-building, dialogue, metalogue, negotiation and joint decision-making are various strategies that the manager can use as he or she seeks to locate and implement appropriate solutions to the myriad demands of his or her stakeholder groups. Lobbying is needed here, too, since the manager may have to persuade one or more local interest groups to lend its support to a new initiative, process or programme.

These tasks require managers to be willing and prepared to learn, unlearn, and relearn (Toffler, 1970) if they wish to deal with the changes taking place in their organisations and communities, and in society at large.

Challenge 2: Corruption and how it promotes inequity in society

Corruption is a major constraint on all development efforts in Africa. Several theories have been posited as to why this is so, one being that corruption arises from the clash or conflict between traditional values and the imported norms that accompany modernisation and socio-political development (Mbaku, 1994). Tied to this theory is the notion that corruption is a social vice

that is an unavoidable outcome of modernisation and development (Alam, 1989, Mbaku, 1994). Nye (1967) proposes that corruption involves behaviour that deviates from the set rules and regulations that govern work ethics.

In more general terms, corruption has been defined as '… a general term covering the misuse of authority as a result of considerations of personal gain, which need not be monetary' (Bayley, 1966:720). To this definition we can add the comments of Leff (1964: 8) that corruption at national level includes, 'bribery to obtain foreign exchange, import, export, investment or production licenses or to avoid paying taxes', and Friedrich (1990: 15) who observes that, '[people] engage in corruption when they are granted power by society to perform certain public duties but, as a result of the expectation of a personal reward or gain (be it monetary or otherwise), undertake actions that reduce the welfare of society or damage the public interest'.

The phrase 'misuse of authority' is critical to an understanding of how corruption continues to undermine the development of many African countries. It is safe to say that in nearly all cases of corruption that are discovered, the figure or figures at the centre occupy positions of power and authority within the political and/or business sector. Put more bluntly: high-ranking politicians and businessmen are usually the ones to blame. As a result, corruption has been a major obstacle to the development process in Africa and one of the major causes of poverty and suffering among many people (Mbaku, 1994, Murunga and Nasong'o, 2006).

We do not have the space here to consider all incidences of corrupt political officialdom in Africa, but the following brief examination of Kenya's recent political development and Botswana's proactive anti-corruption measures offer a useful ilustration of how things can go wrong and what action can be taken to redress the situation.

In 2002, Mwai Kibaki was elected President of Kenya on the back of a campaign based on the eradication of corruption. Kibaki's success at the polls saw Kenya ranked as the world's most optimistic country in the same year. The mood of optimism did not last long; in 2006, just three years later, the Kibaki government was critically undermined by allegations of corruption made against several cabinet ministers. As Murunga and Nasong'o (2006: 1–2) note, 'enthusiasm was replaced by disappointment and despair over the performance of the new regime, which within a short period of two years had lost both national popularity and goodwill'.

The finance minister resigned as a result of the corruption accusations, the ministers for energy and education stepped aside to allow fair and thorough investigations, while the minister in the office of the president in charge of internal security was fired by President Kibaki.

In Botswana, the key term associated with corruption eradication is 'zero-tolerance'. The country has an anti-corruption organisation that educates people on the dangers of corruption to society, investigates all corruption cases, initiates prosecutions, and seeks appropriate punishment for those found guilty of corruption.

While corruption in Africa exists at national level, managers of adult education organisations face the challenge of eradicating corruption at institutional level. Corruption of this nature may involve the mismanagement or misappropriation of financial resources, and the admission of students based on nepotism and social connections instead of merit. In previous chapters, we talked about the need for the leaders and managers of these organisations to act ethically in the execution of their duties. Acting ethically necessarily includes

a 'zero-acceptance' of any corrupt behaviour by any member of the organisation (including, of course, the leader and the manager themselves) and the encouragement and development of a similar attitude in the organisations' facilitators, workers and learners.

Challenge 3: Health issues

Illness, poor health, disease, malnutrition and starvation are among the critical health issues that a great number of African countries have to contend with. Addressing these issues is one of the main responsibilities of adult education organisations and their managers and leaders. The education of people on the subject of health is as vital to their well-being and advancement as the dissemination of basic literacy and numeracy skills. This is why managers of adult education organisations invest a considerable amount of time and effort into finding ways of incorporating and promoting health-related activities, tasks and courses into their programmes. Adult learners can attend programmes on HIV/AIDS awareness issues; anti-malaria procedures; trauma counselling; rape counselling; the dangers of foetal alcohol syndrome (FAS); baby and child healthcare; correct breastfeeding techniques; and nutrition and diet, among many others.

It is important that the manager of an adult education organisation tries to incorporate as many different types of people as possible in these programmes. For instance, the attendance of community leaders, youth group representatives, and local civic and/or political leaders would raise the profile of these various courses and extend the target group of people exposed to the positive messages of healthy living that the educators wish to promote.

Of all the health issues that adult education organisations are involved with HIV/AIDS is the most prominent. The pandemic has devastated many countries in Africa and continues to do so today. Managers of adult education organisations can use their resources to inform as many people as possible of the dangers posed by the disease. Teaching strategies vary, though one of the most effective is the ABC method, used with success in Uganda, Kenya and Botswana, for example. Here, A stands for Abstinence or delaying first sex, B means Being safer by remaining faithful to one partner or by reducing the number of sexual partners, and C means Correct and Consistent use of condoms for sexually active young people, couples in which one partner is HIV-positive, sex workers and their clients, and anyone engaging in sexual activity with partners who may have been at risk of HIV exposure (Office of the U.S. Global Aids Coordinator, 2005).

Challenge 4: Application of African indigenous management styles

The Swahili proverb – '*Mkosa mila ni mtumwa*' *(*'One who does not value his or her culture is lost forever'*)* is relevant to the issue of continually learning from one's own cultures and indigenous knowledge systems. For example, Hoppers *(*2002*)* has commended South Africa's drive for the development, promotion and protection of indigenous knowledge systems. Adult learning curricula should be diversified enough to include the African indigenous knowledge systems; similarly, adult learning organisations have a key role to play in the promotion of these systems.

Africa has a long and rich heritage of indigenous knowledge systems (IKS) from which the rest of the world has benefited, borrowed from immensely, or appropriated (Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga, 2005).

On the other hand, however, the use of IKS within its continent of origin is rel-

egated to the margins, having been replaced by western models and theories of teaching and learning that are often ill-suited to the cultural systems, modes of thought and ideologies of the African people.

Researchers here and abroad have repeatedly pointed out the fundamental difference between traditional knowledge systems and modern western management knowledge systems (Hoppers, 2002) and yet these other forms of knowledge delivery and acquisition remain predominant in our educational institutions.

The managers of adult education organisations need to reclaim the indigenous values that have so much to offer the African adult learner and incorporate them into their educational curricula. These values include not only the pan-African concept of *ubuntu*, which places cooperation and consensus at the centre of all relationships, but also more specific management styles as Management By Walking Around (MBWA), which has been implemented with success in several educational facilities.

Challenge 5: Managing of diverse and complex institutions

A major challenge that the manager of an adult education organisation has is how to innovatively harness the differences among people, institutions, curricula, and organisations for the benefit of his or her facility and its various stakeholder groups.

In earlier chapters we put forward several ways in which this challenge could be met. In fact, we went further by suggesting that diversity and complexity should be seen as positive attributes rather than challenges or 'problems', and that managers should seek to incorporate this diversity in their educational programmes and projects.

Managing diversity and complexity should therefore not be taken to mean controlling or suppressing the differences that exist between and among people, or seeking to impose some sort of 'standard practice' of teaching and learning on facilitators, workers and learners. We prefer to think of managing as a dynamic, innovative process of unifying the disparate talents, skills and abilities of a wide range of people for the benefit and development of each and every individual and of the organisation.

Challenge 6: Financing of adult education organisations

The challenge to reform the financing of the education sector has arisen in virtually every part of the world. And even in the education sector itself, the main challenge is how to allocate financial resources to various levels of formal education (basic, primary, secondary, tertiary), and non-formal education (Alfred and Nafukho, in press). Given the economic changes and restructuring of educational organisations taking place in Africa, managers of adult education organisations find themselves in difficult economic situations.

For example, they have to look for alternative means of raising funds to run their institutions. The market model of financing education institutions (where the supply of educational programmes is determined by the demand for the programmes) that is being implemented in several African countries, including Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania, Zambia, Senegal, Zimbabwe, Malawi and Nigeria, may have to be adapted by the managers of adult education organisations in other African countries. The market model of financing education shifts power to the student and to the units that produce and sell the educational products or services (Nafukho, 2004).

Managers of adult education organisations may need to view the financial difficulties that they face as a great

opportunity with excellent prospects for improvement that could be turned around to involve the community in the financing and consumption of adult education programmes. It may also require people in the community to partner with adult education organisations to promote the goals of adult education and lifelong learning. As noted by Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga (2005: 161), managers of adult education should use some or all of the following suggested strategies to raise funds for their institutions:

- Encouraging the private sector to support adult education via direct contributions to adult education organisations and/or indirectly by giving financial support to employees who desire further training.
- Introducing entrepreneurial activities in all adult learning institutions. The revenue generated can then be used to fund various adult learning programmes. The cooperative societies in Kenya operated by employees in government and non-government organisations have been very successful in lending money to adult learners for the purpose of paying for the costs of their education. Such a model could be developed in other African countries.
- Promoting private, voluntary giving by wealthy members of society.
- Involving alumni associations in the financing of their former places of study.
- Increasing the use of volunteers in the provision of educational programmes. In most African countries, the retirement age is 55. At this age many people are often in their prime; they have a wealth of experience and accumulated skills and abilities that can be put to very good use in, for example, community learning centres and adult literacy centres. The use of volunteers is also a practical way of helping financially constrained educational organisations meet their goals.

The manager's involvement in his or her organisation's finances goes beyond the search for and securing of funds, however. As we discussed in the previous chapter, he or she is also charged with the prudent (careful) management of the organisation's finances. In this capacity, the manager is under a legal and ethical duty to ensure that all financial transactions are transacted, recorded and monitored in a transparent, responsible manner. In many larger educational establishments, the appointment of qualified accountants and other similarly qualified professionals is recommended due to the scale and complexity of the issues involved.

Challenge 7: Managing rapid societal change

The social demand for education in Africa has been on the rise. Here, the term social demand refers to 'the popular aggregate demand for education. It is the sum-total of individual demand for education at a given place and time under the prevailing socio-economic and political conditions' (Mutua and Namaswa, 1992: 35). In Africa, the societal expectations and demands with regard to the importance of a productive workforce are constantly shifting. The effect of this upon adult education organisations can be seen in the increasing numbers of Africans participating in educational programmes and committing themselves to the process of lifelong learning. Adult education organisations are also being challenged to provide guidance and practical help to communities on issues such as HIV/AIDS awareness and prevention, voter education and literacy, basic hygiene, nutrition, basic (and advanced) computer skills, prevention of abuse, crime-prevention techniques, anti-corruption measures, vocational skills, and so on.

The managers of adult education organisations need to respond to these demands

as creatively, purposefully and professionally as possible. They need, for example, to invest heavily in staff development since the needs of adult learners can only be met by individuals with the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to relate to, interact with and help develop adult learners. They also need to provide more educational opportunities for more people, as well as more courses and programmes that are relevant to learners' needs.

To achieve this, managers need to work collaboratively with a wide range of stakeholders, including government departments, municipal leaders, donors, and community organisations, among many others, since it is only by way of a combined effort that pools the skills, experiences and resources of all stakeholders that rapid societal change can be turned to the advantage of everyone concerned, but most particularly the adult learners.

Challenge 8: Globalisation

Globalisation is a multidimensional process through which the world is increasingly interconnected by networks of interdependence at individual, institutional, regional, sub-regional, national and international levels. In the education sector especially, globalisation has led to major structural and institutional transformations.

As Indabawa and Mpofu (2006: 142) note, 'A careful look at the features of globalisation reveals that already major social, economic and political changes are occurring across the world with considerable implications for cultures, education and training.'

It is now a reality that the management of adult education organisations is being influenced by external forces that can be attributed to the effect of globalisation. For example, managers of these facilities are challenged to be entrepreneurial, and to structure their operations using business models and incorporating business methods. In the global market, all organisations (including adult education organisations) have the potential to attract a great many more consumers, clients and/or users than they did previously. However, the same situation inevitably means that organisations also have the potential to attract many more competitors. And it is the raised level of competition between and among providers of adult education services that demands a 'businesslike' response and approach from the managers of these institutions.

E-learning and distance learning are two very good examples of how globalisation has shaped the recent development of adult education. Both of these learning techniques are extremely user-friendly in that they offer a high level of flexibility and mobility. An e-learner or a distance learner can, at least theoretically, study anywhere and at any time. He or she can also mould the programme content to fit in with other work, study or social commitments, instead of being required to attend classes on specific days at certain times.

Again, we wish to stress the opportunities that globalisation presents to managers of adult education organisations. Although the increased level of competition from other service providers will admittedly test a manager's ability and resolve to promote the cause of his or her own organisation, it also raises the possibility of genuinely innovative and desirable new initiatives being generated. Competition, in other words, can bring forward ideas and strategies that a non-competitive environment could not, simply because in the latter situation there is no need to think creatively or imaginatively.

Challenge 9: Use of information and communication technology

The use of information and communication technology (ICT) in all areas of life is a definitive characteristic of life in the early twenty-first century. As Indabawa and Mpofu (2006: 142) succinctly observe, 'Almost everybody needs to acquire the newer skills of Information and Communication Technologies, especially the use of computers and the Internet in business, popular entertainment, administration, law enforcement and education.'

In the case of the management of adult education organisations in Africa, the use of ICT is closely tied to globalisation. One of the main forces driving globalisation is the use of information and communication technology: 'ICT is. . . the infrastructure that brings together people, in different places and time zones, with multimedia tools for data, information, communication and knowledge management in order to expand the range of human capabilities' (Beebe, Kouakou, Oyeyinka and Rao, 2004: 1).

The major challenge facing managers of adult education is how to make good on the promise of using ICT to efficiently and effectively manage adult education. In Africa, it has been argued by Nwuke (2004) that ICT provides a feasible option for addressing major adult education goals such as increasing educational access, addressing economic equity, and improving quality of life. In addition, capacity constraints, internal efficiency of adult education organisations, quality excellence, and educational outreach can all be impacted positively through the use of ICT. Botswana, Nigeria and Egypt have included the acquisition and use of ICT in their education plans.

Managers of adult education organisations in Africa should be aware of how ICT is being used to promote e-health as a strategy to reduce the high cost of health services. By e-health, we mean the clinical, management, surveillance, education and knowledge access issues of healthcare (Mandil, 2004). Mandil points out that the Internet is by far the largest source of health information in the world. The best example of health telesurveillance is the one that addresses the problem of river blindness in West Africa via the Onchocerciasis Control Programme (OCP). The same researcher also notes that, today, nearly 20 African countries have operational or experimental telemedicine projects, which include the use of teleradiology in Mozambique, telepathology in South Africa, telecancerology in Tunisia, and teleconsultation in Egypt. Adult education managers in Africa are challenged to use ICT to combine telemedicine and teleeducation to promote awareness of and knowledge about important health issues.

Since the majority of adult education programmes in Africa are community-based, adult education managers can innovatively use ICT to promote community learning centres. Jensen (2004) discusses examples of successful community learning centres in Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria and Senegal that have used ICT to develop Internet facilities for their adult learners. The use of mobile phones for learning purposes should also be explored. For instance, Hughes and Lonie (2007), point out that in March 2007, Kenya's largest mobile company Safaricom launched M-PESA, a money transfer service for people unable to open a bank account. ('Pesa' is a Swahili word for 'money' while 'M' stands for mobile, hence the choice of 'M-PESA' for the new service.)

Challenge 10: Valuing the customers and other stakeholders

Given the systemic changes taking place in adult and workplace learning, managers of

adult education are challenged to undergo a paradigm shift and learn to respond to their customers (students) and key stakeholders, the funders or partners in the field of adult learning. The managers are being called upon to implement a market-driven approach to the management of their institutions. This calls for creativity and innovativeness and the willingness to learn and apply basic marketing techniques to the planning, curricular design and implementation of programmes.

Marketing, as applied to adult education organisations, is a concept that allows managers as decision makers to think systematically and sequentially about the vision, mission and goals of their organisations, the services offered, the markets currently served, and the extent to which these same markets and possibly new ones may respond to them now and in the future (Ihlanfeldt, 1980, Nafukho and Burnett, 2002).

However, managers need to realise that unlike purely economic products or services, education is a special and complex commodity, which therefore means that economic and marketing principles need to be applied with caution. Put slightly differently: there is always some difficulty when it comes to quantifying intangible services such as education.

But it would be wrong to suggest that marketing and the market-driven approach has no relevance to the provision of adult education services. As Rothwell and Kasanas (2003) correctly note, the significance of the market driven approach to managers of adult education organisations lies in the fact that adult education programmes should be provided based on the current and future perceived needs of the stakeholders in the communities served by these organisations.

The manager thus has the responsibility of ensuring the relevance and desirability of his or her organisation's programmes to community stakeholders. In soliciting the opinions and suggestions (and criticisms if necessary) of stakeholders, the adult education manager is engaging with people in much the same way that a marketing manager would do when he or she conducts market surveys, focus group meetings, field tests, and so on, to gauge the reaction of customers to existing or proposed products and/or services.

ACTIVITY

Suppose you are the manager of a small adult education organisation located in an economically poor community. Identify ways of marketing your services to local stakeholders and explain how you would go about implementing your marketing strategy.

SUMMARY

In this final chapter, we have briefly summarised some of the main challenges that face adult learning organisations in Africa today. In doing so, we have suggested that the best way of approaching these challenges is to view them as opportunities that the creative, innovative manager can exploit to the advantage of the organisation and its stakeholders. What may at first appear threatening or problematic to the manager of an adult education organisation – the changing structure of educational programmes (classroom-based to remote learning, for example); the speed at which modern technology changes; the need to compete in an 'open market' with other service providers – may turn out to be extremely beneficial to the organisation and its workers, facilitators and adult learners. However, positive change is only possible if the manager himself or herself commits to

the process of personal and organisational development. Development, in this context, can take many forms, but it always includes the adoption of a participative, collaborative management style and approach; an adherence to the principle of 'leader as servant'; the innovative use of information and communications technology; the implementation of legally and ethically sound financial management practices; an incorporation of African traditional values in adult education programmes and projects; and a genuine desire to improve the well-being and development of the many millions of Africans engaged in or seeking to further their education and to commit to the process of lifelong learning.

KEY POINTS

- Challenges stretch managers beyond their current levels of thought, knowledge, skills, attitudes and expertise.
- Managers of adult education have a responsibility to educate their learners on health issues.
- Africa's indigenous knowledge systems (IKS) should be integrated into the management of adult education organisations.
- Managers should embrace the diverse talents, skills and abilities of a range of stakeholders (learners, facilitators, workers, institutions, and so on).
- Financial management and fund raising are two important aspects of an adult education manager's work.
- There is a rising social demand for adult education.
- Globalisation affects the structure, content and delivery of adult education programmes, which places a new set of responsibilities on the managers of adult education organisations.
- The widespread use of information and communication technology (ICT) in all areas of life means that ICT programmes and training should be made available to adult learners.
- Managers should allocate the resources in their organisations fairly.
- Managers have a duty to combat institutional corruption.
- Business practices and techniques can be used to promote the services of adult education organisations and to identify and respond to changes in demand among stakeholders.

ACTIVITY

Arrange interviews with at least two managers of adult education organisations in your community. The purpose of the interviews is to find out how the managers deal with the challenges they face in their provision of learning programmes to adult learners. You can construct your own list of questions and/or you can use the ones listed below:

- **How difficult is it to attract funding for your organisation? What fund-raising strategies do you use?**
- **How do you market your services to the local community?**
- **What other people or organisations (formal and informal) are involved in the design of your adult education programmes?**
- **What is the drop-out rate in your organisation? How do you address this problem?**
- **Do you use ICT in your organisation? What types do you use?**
- **How do you deal with employee, volunteer and student grievances and complaints?**

- **How successfully has your organisation managed to incorporate traditional African values into its teaching and learning programmes?**
- **What training is needed to become a manager of an adult education organisation?**
- **What do you consider to be the most rewarding and the most unpleasant or challenging aspects of your job?**

Compile a report based on the findings of your interviews. In the report, identify and comment on similarities and differences between the answers given. Conclude your report with an assessment of the challenges affecting the managers of adult education organisations.

FURTHER QUESTIONS

1. In your opinion, and based on your work experiences up to now, how serious is the problem of corruption in adult education organisations?
2. Are there some challenges that cannot be turned into opportunities? If so, what are they and what strategies would you use to diminish their negative impact?

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Management of Adult Education Organisations in Africa is premised upon the notion that Adult Education is now considered a mainstream academic discipline in several African countries and its importance in today's knowledge and 'ideas' economies is growing steadily. Sound leadership and management is a prerequisite to the successful operation of adult education organisations. The book relies on African perspectives of managerial leadership to illustrate the urgent need to recognise the important role played by management in the provision of adult education.

The ten chapters in this book focus on the following:

- Management and diversity;
- Leadership in adult education organisations;
- Management approaches in Africa;
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- Organisational development and change;
- Ubuntu embedded leadership and organisational learning;
- Planning, implementation and evaluation;
- Time management in an organisation;
- Financial management; and
- The challenges and opportunities of managing adult education organisations.

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