

3.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

As gathered from the respondents, the following are the constraints of the River Basin Authorities in developing their host communities:-

Inadequate funding and untimely release of budgetary allocations from government to enable the authorities to meet its commitments to its customers is fundamental problems of the River Basin Authorities.

The privatization and commercialization Decree No. 28 of 1988 has affected the RBRDAs. The RBDAs as they are cannot be commercially viable. Government has to inject funds to complete ongoing viable capital projects before the organizations can then be commercially viable.

Vast farmlands with potentials for viable irrigation development / crop production are left lying waste because of lack of funds for maintenance, high inflation, inadequate project staff, and ageing of plants and machinery that are very expensive to maintain.

Staff retrenchment coupled with removal of materials left the immovable assets such as buildings and irrigation structures to the mercy of thieves, vandals and bush fire.

It was also discovered that the Upper Benue Basin has developed its host communities more than the Lower Benue Basin in infrastructural facilities. The data on table three augment this position.

However, in the area of land clearing and preparation, the Lower Benue Basin has achieved more than the Upper Benue Basin. The information on table four of the paper collaborate this position.

4.1 CONCLUSION

The survival of the Lower and Upper Benue River Basin Authorities, just like the other River Basins in the nation entirely depend on the commitment of the states and the National Government. The creation as well as proliferation of rural development programmes/project by successive government in the nation explains why little or no attention is given to the River Basins to effectively discharge their responsibility of developing the rural areas of Nigeria.

4.2 SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

The Federal Government should assist and as well support the Lower and Upper Benue River Basin Authorities to partake actively in agricultural activities since the RBRDAs are quite close to rural farmers. To achieve this;

- ✓ Funds should be timely and adequately disbursed for the activities of the River Basins Authorities;
- ✓ More renovation works should be done to project buildings, irrigation facilities, maintenance of machines and farmlands;
- ✓ More qualified personnel be enlisted into the services of the organization; and
- ✓ The rural / host communities should also support and protect the facilities / equipments of the organizations in their domains.

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Appendix A

Table 1. Operations of the RBRDAs

Revenue /expenditure Profile (N million)	1988 (1)	1989 (2)	1990(3)	% change between	
				Land 2	2 and 3
Total allocation	83.0	241.4	121.8	31.9%	-49.9%
Actual disbursement	123.0	210.3	60.8	71.0%	-71.1%
Land development (*000ha)					
(a) Land Preparation	70.4	73.8	72.1	4.8%	2.3%
(b) Land under Irrigation	51.3	67.9	69.2	32.6%	1.9%
Infrastructural facilities provided					
(a) Dams	28	16	12	-42.9%	25.0%
(b) Boreholes (Number)	480	462	428	-3.8%	-7.4%
(c) Roads (Km)	3,604	99	68	-97.3%	-30.3%

Source: CBN Annual report and Statement of Accounts for the year ended 31/12/90. (page76).

An Analysis on Increasingly Global Manifestation of Education: A Study of Views of Faculty and Scholars of HEIS of Pakistan

Dr. Munazza Ambreen

Assistant Professor, Faculty of Education, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad, PAKISTAN

Saima Iram

M.Phil(student), Faculty of Education, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad, PAKISTAN

Abstract

Globalization has created the need for global citizens that have a keen awareness of the political, economic, social, and environmental concerns of our time (Bonk 2009). Rapid advancements in technology have made for profound paradigm shifts in almost every arena especially in education. The notion of global citizenship can take place as a result of both global education and the globalization of education in developing an international curriculum standard (Spring 2009). Purposes of this study were: (i). to investigate the demands of education as a business in response to globalization. (ii). to highlight the role of civil society and international organizations in the expansion of global education. (iii). to find the role of global pedagogy and curriculum in the globalization of education and global citizenship. The study was delimited to Allama Iqbal Open University Islamabad. Population of the study was consisting of teachers and students. 05 teachers of department of teacher education and 50 students of PhD were taken as a sample. The mixed method approach was used for this study. A questionnaire was used as research tool for the both population. Collected data were analyzed through SPSS by running frequencies, mean score, percentage and standard deviation. The main findings of the study revealed that global education through a business perspective, both for-profit and not-for-profit affects at the individual, local community, national government, and international organization level. With the help of new technologies, we see increased interaction between these realms, fostering new partnerships, initiatives, and standards. The clear advantage to involve organizations is that learners can experience new and better types of communication and interaction. The role of global pedagogy and curriculum is largely accepted goal for global education to help students develop an understanding of the interdependence. It was recommended that schools and institutions of higher education should work to provide students with increasingly global perspectives while teaching those highly desirable 21st century skills.

Keywords: Globalization, global education, expansion, pedagogy

1- INTRODUCTION

Implications of globalization for the process of development are fundamental. It has changed the status of relations between states, so the need for the global citizens that have an intense sense of political, economic, and social conditions of the world, has created (Robertson, et al, 2007). To understand the implications of changes as a result of education in development, it is necessary to understand the process of globalization first. These changes involve different claims in terms of skills and knowledge.

Interdependence among nations in the world is the main theme of globalization which develops reflective identifications with the world community and clarifies attitudes toward other nations (Banks, 2003). Impact of global happenings on the local and international community is the reality of the world, so students must be able to place global happenings in proper context.

A holistic and inter-disciplinary approach in which students become able to learn those skills that are fit with a new range of challenges is a challenge for education systems. The role of the civil society and international organizations is now larger in the advocacy and development of global education (Labi, 2009). Organizations such as the World Bank and the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) are providing funds and their expertise with the developing nations.

In this paper, an attempt has been made to analyze the global manifestation of education through particular lenses such as the role of civil society and international organizations and global pedagogy and curriculum in the globalization of education.

2- REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this era of globalization and technological revolution, the development of human capital can only be enhanced through education. Education is the only source which provides opportunities to citizens for better living and links it with an individual's well-being (Battle & Lewis, 2002). The acquisition of knowledge and skills can only be ensured through education. It also enables individuals to increase their productivity, improve their quality of life and enhance the economic growth of a country (Saxton, 2000).

2.1 Globalization and Global Education:

Cogburn (2000) describes globalization as “the enormous structural changes occurring in the processes of production and distribution in the global economy”. The magic word “Globalization” identifies and expresses change in every field such as economy, politics, social policies and culture (Santos in Dale and Robertson 2004: 149). Thomas Friedman, the New York Times columnist and author of the *The Lexus and the Olive Tree* (2000), explored many contradictions in the more scientific literature. According to him “Globalisation is everything and its opposite”. It can be amazingly authorize and amazingly coercive, democratizes opportunity and democratizes panic, leaves you behind faster and faster and catches you up faster and faster, enables us to reach into the world as never before and enables the world to reach into each of us as never before (p. 406).

The process of globalisation has changed the role of education in development, as it is generally argued that knowledge and skills become more important for economic development due to the competition between countries in knowledge-based goods and services. Education and skills determine that what kind of knowledge can be transferred and what kind of technologies can be absorbed in the society (Amsden, 2002). In 1981, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) described global education as "efforts to cultivate in young people a perspective of the world which emphasized the interconnections among cultures, species, and the planet." The purpose for engaging in those efforts was “to develop in youth the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to live effectively in a world possessing limited natural resources and characterized by ethnic diversity, cultural pluralism, and increasing interdependence.” So it can be assumed that global education is an activity to guide and prepare individuals for global responsibility and communal global responsibility and make them learn the ethic of a world citizen which in turn develop fairness and respect of human rights.

Global education is a broad concept and the teacher who accepts this broad concept, faces so many challenges regarding practices and materials so a sound, realistic pedagogy must be used to plan instruction that claims to serve the goals of global education. By considering researches on global education, a list has been found that comprised of some of the components of global education.

- Multiculturalism, diversity, and culturally responsive teaching
- Teaching universality and common core ideals
- Teaching with themes like war, poverty, or human rights
- Standards-based teaching and assessment
- Humanities-based instruction that is cross-cultural
- International studies with a social science orientation
- Expansion of foreign language studies
- Bilingual education
- Pedagogy for social justice
- Integration of service learning and study abroad opportunities
- World perspective studies as a way to understand local issues
- Local issues studies as a way to understand the world

2.2 Global Education as Business

To meet the growing demands of education, global education as a business focused mostly on the response of the private sector and higher education. In a globalized world, it is necessary that technology is welcomed by every country, as the essence of global education is not about who is running the classroom rather what students are learning within it (Silva, 2008). There must be collaboration between businesses, schools, and governments as they all play fundamental roles in prevailing over regional skills gaps. But it is observed that they rarely engage with each other in meaningful ways. Connecting education to employment is actually a major aim of global education that requires standards and curricula that align with labor market needs. For this companies should connect specific job needs to changes in policy and partner with educators. Relevant curricula can extend access far beyond isolated workforce development programs.

2.3 Role of Civil Society and International Organizations

Effective cooperation between government, civil society and international organization is needed to assure the best and most effective global education possible. For this it is essential that organizations involved are well aware of all the necessary components of this partnership. This will build up confidence of these parties in providing their resources appropriately and prevent overlapping in allocation of resources. For the development of global education, it needs systematic funding which is not possible for the single party so a systematic and a well organized funding is required to achieve effective objectives of global education. For achieving this global agenda, it demands planned cooperation between different parties.

Different international organizations and civil society are playing their significant role in enhancing global education. The role of these different organizations is as follow:

- World Bank

Developing world is facing inimitable economic, political, and social challenges nowadays. Educational institutions of these developing countries are trying to produce a competitive global workforce. International organizations such as the World Bank are providing financial assistance to the institutions of different countries in this regard (The World Bank Group, 2010) by providing scholarships to study abroad and for research work as well. World Bank is also supporting primary, secondary, and information communication technology (ICT) financially.

- The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

The World Economic Forum and UNESCO's program Education for All by 2015 (EFA) cooperate with other multinational firms to connect and help to achieve its goal of bringing education to all. Different projects have been launched for students to share their research work with other countries in the field of science (Draxler, 2008).

- Educational International

EI works for the improvement in status of teachers and those who work in education around the world. This organization also advocates for the welfare of students by providing funds and exchange of recourse persons and materials (Draxler, 2008). This organization also provides opportunities for teachers to visit different institutions of the world to get to know about the educational culture of these institutions and develop an interaction with them which is the main aim of global education.

- Global LAB: Learning Across Borders

The main goal of Global Learning Across Borders is to provide students and educators with cultural captivation. Its services include providing opportunities of cultural engagement such as globalization, sustainable expansion, knowledge customs, harmony and divergence studies, and literary, visual and performing arts. For this purpose conferences and seminars are conducted to share each other's views.

- Women's Global Education Project

The main theme of the Women's Global Education, Founded in 2002, that regardless of gender or economic status, everyone is entitled to an education. Women's Global is working to empower women and girls by providing them access to education and training programs to build better lives and foster equitable communities (Women's Global, n.d.). They are also providing scholarships for girls to attend school which is the global education system's biggest challenge.

2.4 Global Pedagogy and Curriculum

The officially and ideologically selected knowledge is usually reflected by curriculum which is also a vehicle for change and it also reflects social change (Apple, 1982; Paechter, 2000, p.5). Social transformation might be realized by implementation of proper curriculum (Young, 1971). Global education and its aims is a challenge for today's teacher as selection of best practices and appropriate materials to enlarge students' perspectives is a very important process.

Curriculum and pedagogy for global education involves understanding a range of learning outcomes in the global perspective, learning processes, educational and psychological theories, and more important collaboration rather than individualism and utilises advances in media and technology (eg. social software) to enhance educational outcomes and experiences. Students' academic success must be a main aim of a sound and a realistic pedagogy and curriculum but its concern must be central to the evaluation of materials and programs designed to serve global education. It should provide resources related to both content information and teaching strategies, incorporate questions related to character and ethical behaviour, accommodate the diverse ability levels of students who will be involved and encourage students to consider the perspectives of others (Jorgensen, 2000; Lebler, 2004).

2.5 Teacher Training

Teacher training institutions may include multicultural content to diversify the training as a pilot project in some institutions. However it should be available in all teacher training institutions in future. Theme of Global education should be included in-service training and staff development programmes as well.

2.6 Implementations of strategies of globalization

Strategies to promote well being and cooperation at educational institutions can be implemented. Diversified language skills should also be developed at early age which is one dimension of global education. Instruction of different languages will promote interest in different cultures and consequently interaction between different cultures will also be promoted.

Research in the field of global education and globalization of education is not very extensive; it is essential to investigate the manifestation of globalization of education as this field is indispensable with regards to curricula and pedagogies and the quality of learning materials. As solid foundation is needed for the development of global education, it requires a future oriented approach and it needs to be a long-term, organized,

diverse, interdisciplinary and source-critical attempt.

3. THE STUDY

The main purpose of the study is to investigate the demands of education as a business in response to globalization, to highlight the role of civil society and international organizations in the expansion of global education, to find the role of global pedagogy and curriculum in the globalization of education and global citizenship.

3.1 Methodology

The study was descriptive, therefore survey method was considered appropriate for the study. Public sector universities of Pakistan were taken as population of the study while 05 faculty member and 50 PhD students from these universities were taken as sample through random sampling technique. In this survey, a questionnaire was developed on five point (Likert) to know the opinion of teachers and students. In the questionnaire items were developed to investigate the demands of global education as business, to highlight the role of civil society and organization and to find the role of global pedagogy and curriculum were included. A numerical value was assigned to every option in the following way: Strongly agree =1, Agree=2, Uncertain=3, Disagree=4, strongly disagree=5. The finalized research tool was administered personally on the respective sample of Faculty of education in their classes and respective sample of students for the collection of data. Collected data were analyzed through percentage, mean score and t value. Responses of 05 out Of 05 teachers and 50 PhD students were interpreted and presented in percentage.

3.2 Survey Results and Discussion

The following section presents data analysis and results of the study.

Table 1.1 *Descriptive results of Global Education as business*

Global education as business				
		Percentage	Mean	SD
1. Fosters economic competitiveness	Teacher	60%	3.6	1.14
	Students	88%	4.2	.66
2. Ensures equity and respect for all cultures	Teacher	60%	3.8	.83
	Students	80%	4.1	.86
3. Ensures open economic opportunity to all	Teacher	80%	4.2	.83
	Students	84%	4.1	.80
4. Encompasses a wide range of modalities from face-to-face instruction to distance learning (through a range of technologies including e-learning)	Teacher	80%	4.0	.70
	Students	92%	4.3	.61

Majority of teachers and students viewed that the demand of education as a business in response to globalization is increasing day by day. They agreed that it fosters economic competitiveness, ensures equity and respect for all cultures and ensures open economic opportunity to all. 60%of teachers are agreed with the statements with mean score of 3.6 while 80% (Mean=4.20) students showed their positive attitude towards the statement that global education as business fosters economic competitiveness, similarly 60% of teachers (M= 3.8) and 80% of students viewed agree with that global education that it ensures equity and respect for all cultures. Another aspect of global education is that it ensures open economic opportunity to all which is accepted by 80% (M=4.2) and 84% of students with mean score of 4.1 while 80% of teachers with mean score 4.0 and 92% of students with mean score of 4.3 of students were agreed that global education encompasses a wide range of modalities from face-to-face instruction to distance learning (through a range of technologies including e-learning) (Amsden, 2002).

Table 1.2 *Descriptive Results of role of Civil Society and International Organizations: (World Bank, Education International, Women’s Global Education Project)*

Civil Society and International Organizations: (World Bank, Education International, Women’s Global Education Project)					
			Percentage	Mean	SD
5.	Increase the quality of teaching and research in universities through funding	Teachers	80%	4.2	.83
		Students	94%	4.3	.59
6.	Develop competencies for workforce success to expand educational opportunities using technology	Teachers	80%	4.0	1.2
		Students	88%	4.2	.75
7.	Advocate global issues such as education, human rights, and poverty reduction	Teachers	60%	3.6	1.14
		Students	88%	4.1	.95

As it examined that global education requires the commitment and collaboration of different organizations for its promotion; it also requires funding to increase the quality of education, this research revealed evidence that teachers and students showed positive attitude about the statements that civil society and international organizations like (World Bank, Education International, and Women’s Global Education Project) play their role to increase the quality of teaching and research in universities through funding. They also contribute to develop competencies for workforce success to expand educational opportunities using technology and advocate global issues such as education, human rights, and poverty reduction. 80% (Mean =4.20) of teachers and 94% (Mean=4.3) of students were of the view that civil society and international organization increase the quality of teaching and research in universities through funding. 80% (mean=4.0) of teachers and 88% (4.2) were of the view that civil society and international organizations play a positive role in developing competencies for workforce success to expand educational opportunities using technology while more number 88% (M=4.1) of the students as compared to teachers 60% (Mean=3.6) were agreed to the statement that civil society and international organizations advocate global issues such as education, human rights, and poverty reduction.

Table 1.3 *Descriptive results of role of Global pedagogy and curriculum in the globalization of education*

Global pedagogy and curriculum in -the globalization of education					
			Percentage	Mean	SD
08.	Fosters opportunities for students to study abroad	Teachers	80%	4.2	.83
		Students	92%	4.2	.72
09.	Encourages faculty and student exchanges	Teachers	60%	3.8	1.3
		Students	90%	4.2	.87
10	Increases international student recruitment efforts, and exporting or importing programs	Teachers	80%	4.2	.83
		Students	84%	4.1	.90
11.	Increases the exposure of traditional learners to international experiences	Teachers	60%	3.6	1.14
		Students	84%	4.2	.93

Global education contents must be included in curricula at all levels as it will help students to make them adjust in other cultures when they get opportunity to study or work abroad. Both respondents (80% of teachers and 92% of students) were agreed that global pedagogy and curriculum in the globalization of education fosters opportunities for students to study abroad, 60% of teachers and 90% of students were of the view that encourages faculty and student exchanges, 80%, teachers Mean=4.2 and students 84%, Mean=4.1 were agreed that it increases international student recruitment efforts, and exporting or importing programs, increases the exposure of traditional learners to international experiences. While 60%, Mean=3.6 of teachers and 84%, Mean=4.2 were agreed that global pedagogy and curriculum in the globalization of education increases the

exposure of traditional learners to international experiences.

Table 1.4 Mean differences in views of teachers and students regarding global manifestations of Education

Group Statistics							
Dimensions			Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Global Education as Business			Student	50	4.2	.38	.05
			Teacher	5	3.9	.37	.16
Civil society and International Organizations			Student	50	4.2	.41	.05
			Teacher	5	3.7	.36	.16
Global Pedagogy and Curriculum			Student	50	4.2	.44	.06
			Teacher	5	3.9	.44	.20

Table 1.4 showed $t = 1.762$ at $p < .08$ that there was no significance difference between the views of students and teachers that global education as business fosters economic competitiveness, ensures equity and ensures open economic opportunities while there found a positive significant difference between teachers and students about the role of civil society and international organizations with $t = 2.665$ at $p > .01$ and no significant difference was found between teachers and students about the role of global pedagogy and curriculum in the globalization of education with $t = 1.591$, $p > .117$.

Independent Samples Test t-test for Equality of Means							
	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Global education as business	1.762	53	.084	.31500	.17879	-.04362	.67362
	1.770	4.846	.139	.31500	.17793	-.14678	.77678
Civil society and international organisations	2.665	53	.010	.51333	.19259	.12705	.89962
	2.959	5.088	.031	.51333	.17348	.06970	.95697
Global pedagogy and curriculum	1.591	53	.117	.33500	.21051	-.08724	.75724
	1.596	4.843	.173	.33500	.20984	-.20971	.87971

3.3 Conclusion and Implications

In recent decades, the demand of the education of globalization and globalization of education has increased so much and it has become means and ends itself. The study respondents believed that globalization has fostered economic competitiveness among the people. Global education and education for globalization develop respect for all cultures while mutual dependency and responsiveness have become the parts of globalization. New solutions and new challenges in learning through new technologies have emerged in the education structures which are addressing issues of education, poverty and human rights simultaneously. Global education is motivating students to share their own ideas and creating opportunities to exchange programs to get to know different cultures. Peace education, respect of human value and human rights, cooperation and tolerance can also be promoted through joint projects, problem-solving and democratic decision-making (Saxton, 2000). So it can be concluded that internationalism should be an object of teaching and learning.

Study results confirmed that global pedagogy and curriculum is the demand of our new world, it creates opportunities for students to gain global experiences and create a fascinating transformation of education systems. It is also observed that school curricula should define the role of global education in different subjects. International themes can also be inculcated through the work of the Youth Parliament and school clubs to increase the rate of cooperation among students. While blending of public and private, national and international organizations such as World Bank, Education International, and Women's Global Education Project foster new partnerships in improving the standards around the world. This mutual partnership can play its role to bring about changes in higher education system and in bringing different countries close to each other.

On the basis of the present study and especially students' views, it is critical that as teachers, educators and mentors, we need to prepare students for a world where borders between continents are blurred, where companies will be formed over the Internet and where learning about other cultures in classrooms will be as ubiquitous as learning to read.

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Improvisation in Costume Design: The Production of *Androcles and the Lion*

Albert Dennis

Senior Research Assistant, Department of Theatre and Film Studies, University of Cape Coast

Madinatu Bello

Assistant Lecturer, Department of Theatre and Film Studies, University of Cape Coast

Abstract

Costuming a period play such as George Bernard Shaw's *Androcles and the Lion* is associated with diverse challenges of which identifying and employing materials needed to build similar costumes for use is a major challenge to the costumier. The purpose of this study was, therefore, to identify 'non – conventional' to build costumes for the staging of the play, *Androcles and the Lion*, written in 1912, set in ancient Roman civilization but presented on the contemporary Ghanaian stage. The play was written with both Greek and Roman characters. Library resources, archives, the internet as well as interviews conducted organized, constituted primary and secondary data collected on the kind of costumes used and the materials that they were made of during the ancient Greek and the Roman civilization. Based on the data collected, other alternative materials found in Ghana were identified and used to improvise the Greek and the Roman costumes suitable for use on the contemporary Ghanaian stage.

Keywords: Improvisation, Costume, Theatre,

Introduction

A distinctive phenomenon which has in the twenty first century gained root and also served as a motivating force to reckon with in life is "improvisation". The concept of improvisation has attracted attention both locally and internationally and in many quarters such as the industry, academia and public life. In academia, the need for improvisation in the Performing Arts is even more imperative. This is because artists are mostly enthused about this phenomenon for the reason that it is a conduit to creativity. This emanates from the fact that creativity is central to the work of art.

According to Carter (2000:181), the term improvisation "invokes associations with such related notions as spontaneity, extemporization and the absence of deliberation. On the other level, the term brings to mind words like creation, invention or organization". Carter's enlightenment, on the one hand, brings to the fore the spontaneous approach in which people are compelled to react. This is evident in situations where actors act without a scripted play as a reference, thus acting on the spur of the moment. On the other hand, improvisation could also imply creating a new item to serve a particular need for the individual, society or the community at large. Contemplating on the concept of improvisation, Santi and Illetterati (2010:7) note that:

Improvisation can be considered a collective, creative phenomenon, an individual skilled performance, an emerging act within a rooted practice, or as a set of generative techniques.... At the same time, when speaking of improvisation, we appear to be dealing with something whose features, examples and roles are well known as they appear in the different fields of life-experience.

From the emerging viewpoints we get to understand that improvisation is a creative phenomenon which requires the skills of an individual to be able to achieve a goal. Thus, the creativity of an individual is a fundamental requirement to the success of an artwork. Carter (2000:181) agrees with Santi and Illetterati (2010) as he states that "improvisation draws upon intuitive recourses of the mind and the body (or person) and often leads to creative actions in some field of human endeavour". Another idea worth noting from Santi and Illetterati's definition of improvisation is the fact that improvisation incorporates some of the characteristics of the original item. Although the newly created item will not be like the original, it has some resemblance to it, which the society can easily identify with. By this, the departing point of the new item from its original is marginal, as the artist takes his inspiration from that source.

Agreeing with Santi and Illetterati on this view, Solomon (1986:225-226) notes that "improvisation incorporates some of that elusive quality of 'originality'". For instance, some recent works and programmes in the area of Performing Arts studies portray some elusive qualities of the original form and structure of some traditional African performative art forms such as "ananse" stories and traditional dance forms. This has led to the coinage of such term as contemporary African dance and theatre which have even assumed classroom instruction in the Ghanaian setup.

According to the *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English* (sixth edition, 2000:653), to improvise is "to make or do something using whatever is available; usually you do not have what you need".

The question as to why people improvise is highly associated with the above definition. From the above, it is obvious that the absence of a number of items causes majority of people to improvise. This may arise due to advancement in technology which has led to the absence of the said items. In addition, this definition points clearly to the fact that the availability of resources, to a larger extent, determines what one can employ to achieve his goal in improvisation. It is worth noting that resources vary from one community to the other, thus, various communities have different kinds of resources which they can employ to achieve their intent. It is obvious from the foregoing that what can be used in improvisation vary from community to community and even within the same community. This stems from the fact that a particular resource can serve various functions only if one can identify the alternative uses to which that resource can be put. What might be considered dreadful and inefficient may be considered functional to another person for his practical use.

The foregoing indicates that improvisation focuses on how a creative work is achieved based on an existing one. Costume design, as one aspect of the visual elements in theatrical performances is no exception as it is one area where improvisation thrives. In all theatrical performances, costumes play unique role in the advancement of the dramatic action and its importance cannot be downplayed, hence the need for their proper interpretation on stage for audiences to make meaning out of them. This is because through the use of costumes, one can establish the historical period, the social and economic environment of characters and their gender in a production. It is very important to note that costumiers do not only consider the aesthetic function of costumes on actors. The intended role that the actor plays, the period in which the play is set and the suitability of the costumes to the actor are also crucial to the costumier as he selects his costumes. It is against this background that Ingham and Covey (1992:45) in *Costume Designer's Handbook* espouse that "no one has to deal more with actor tension than the costume designer". Thus, the duties of a costumier in realizing the visual quality of a performance cannot be overemphasized because the actor does not act solely to portray his emotion but his emotions are catalyzed by the costumes he is given by the costumier. It is in this vein that Gillette (2000:396) postulates that "the costume designers' job entails the manipulation of the design of each character's clothing to project some specific information about the character". In so doing costumiers employ various materials in designing their costumes. In the traditional sense, these materials range from conventional fabrics to haberdashery among others. However, the use of other non-conventional materials in the creation of costumes has become apparent due to the high cost associated with the purchasing of the original materials. Not only does this condition influence costume improvisation, but also the absence of traditionally required costumes due to technological advancement also drives costumiers to improvise. Besides, the variations in climatic conditions also propel costumiers to improvise for the reason that an item for a costume might be comfortably used at a particular temperature level. To this end, a number of non-conventional materials ranging from industrial products such as polystyrenes to household substances are now employed in costume designing.

Improvisation in costuming has been in existence, especially in the advanced countries where costume precursors like Oliver Messel used drinking straws to produce Maori's skirts for actors in the film, "The Seekers" (retrieved from www.van.ac.uk/materials on 15th October, 2011). Additionally, another sense of improvisation in costuming is also explicit in the production of masks using vacuum formed plastics (retrieved from www.studiocreations.com on 20th October, 2011). Furthermore, improvisation is also evident when an armour was constructed using craft foam. This was done because of insufficient funds for the building of the costumes for the production, hence the need to improvise. The stylistic representation of the improvised armour really resonated with the looks of the original armour (retrieved from www.squidoo.com on 1st November, 2011). The use of paper to construct costumes has also been experimented by some costumiers, especially in the developed world, but for its damage rate after washing, its usage in the theatre is limited.

It is against these practical backgrounds that the researcher seeks to identify and employ materials which are available in the Ghanaian community to construct costumes for the actors in Bernard Shaw's *Androcles and the Lion*, written in 1912 and set in ancient Rome but presented on the contemporary Ghanaian stage without compromising durability. The play is written with ancient Greek and Roman characters such as soldiers, gladiators, and lions among others. In costuming the play in question, some costumiers have over the time, resorted to different ways possible to achieve their aim. Notable among them is the painting of faces of actors to represent a lion without necessarily providing a lion's mask.

The role costumes play in Ghana whether on stage or on screen in achieving the spectacle of any production cannot be overemphasized. This is because through the use of appropriate costumes, audiences are able to derive meaning from the message that is being communicated to them. However, in recent times it cannot be said that costumiers for both screen and stage productions do not face challenges in their pursuit to achieve their intent. One great challenge staring them in the face has to do with the reproduction of costumes for period plays for the modern stage. Providing materials for costuming purposes for a period play in this contemporary Ghanaian era has a number of challenges. The fact remains that the kind of materials used in the production of ancient costumes are, to a larger extent, not in existence due to technological advancement, taste and fashion. Additionally, the non-availability of a particular kind of motif in a fabric also hinders the costumier's intent

when he wants to produce costumes for a particular period play. This is because the meanings derived from such motifs are crucial to the advancement of the message the actor sends across to the audience.

In instances where the original materials for such costumes are available, it is not advisable to use them on the contemporary Ghanaian stage due to the changes in climatic patterns. This is because the climate of every country whether cool or hot, determines what is to be worn at a particular time. In instances where they are available, they are very expensive and cannot be purchased by costumiers. To this end, most costumiers especially in Ghana resort to borrowing costumes for productions and this limits their creative ability.

Costume design is an art and, as such, a costumier is expected to be more creative and his creative ability can operate within improvisation in order to solve pertinent problems regarding costumes for period plays such as *Androcles and the Lion*. The process of creativity is essential to the work of designers.

History of Greek and Roman Costumes

Tracing the history of costume from the biblical unknown to the known civilizations of Mesopotamia, Egypt, Greek, Roman among others, one needs to know that geographical, political, trade, weather and cultural conditions affected and determined the costumes of each civilization. Climatic conditions determined the style of costume and also the natural resources determined the initial materials used for costumes in each civilization. Interestingly, the length of the draped loin cloth served as a means of identifying the status of the wearer. The rich and dignified people draped loin cloth which extended beyond their knee. The poor and less privileged in society, however, draped theirs to their knee level. The style of draping varied from one civilization to the other and this resulted in different names for costumes of almost the same (Barton, 1963).

The Greek Costumes

According to the Encyclopedia Britannica (2003), Greece is a country that is located at the South Eastern end of Europe and it is in the southern most country of the Balkan Peninsula. It is a land characterized by mountains and sea with an area of Fifty Thousand Nine Hundred and Forty Nine (50, 949) square kilometers. The people of Greece believed in a pantheon of gods which they held in high esteem. Basically, developments in ancient Greece took three folds; the Archaic, the classical and the Hellenistic era. According to Michell, (1940) the main occupation of the Greeks was agriculture. They reared animals and grew crops which they depended on for their survival. To Wilson and Goldfarb (2002) a number of significant achievements were made in the areas of politics, philosophy, science, and the arts, including theatre. Tortora and Eubank (1982), in writing about the contributions made by early Greece in terms of academic achievements to the development of Performing Arts, espouse that Greece produced eminent philosophers like Socrates, Plato, Aristotle and tragic dramatists like Aeschylus, Sophocles and Euripides who wrote drama which dealt with the nature and faith of man. Additionally, the ideas, philosophies and writings left behind by the Greeks and the resultant archaeological findings from old ruins and statuette have formed a good source of evidence for the study of Greek costume.

Discussing the type of fabric used in constructing Greek costumes, Wilcox (1958:11) notes that woolen and to some extent, silk were the main fabrics used in costume construction. However, woolen fabrics were chiefly employed and made in a variety of texture capable of falling in soft folds when used. The woolen fabric was used to construct costumes to retain the body temperature due to the cold climate of the region. The abundance of the woolen fiber in the Greek community was credited to the high rearing of sheep in the community, of which the fleece, which is the raw material, was obtained. In order to distinguish the status of the wearer, Anderson and Anderson (1999:267), note that “the wealthy in the society dyed and bleached the woolen fabrics and decorated it with embroidered borders...before using it to construct their costumes.”

Among the costumes of ancient Greece is the ‘chiton’. The chiton, according to Wilcox (1958:11) is an outer garment constructed from two pieces of rectangular woolen fabric sewn partway up the sides and fastened on each shoulder with a pin called the fibulus. The arms of the wearer emerged from the sides. There were variations in the wearing of the chitons and these were achieved by belting the chiton at the waist with a girdle and manipulating folds over it or wearing it without the girdle. Basically, there are two main types of chitons. These are the ionic and doric chitons. The ionic chiton according to Barton (1961:51) is wider in size as compared to the doric chiton which is smaller. Further to this, the Doric chiton which is the early garment of the Greeks has a fibulus securing the fabric at each shoulder with an over- fold emerging from the neckline at the front of the wearer called the ‘peplos’. The ionic chiton, however, has several fibula securing the fabrics at each of the shoulders of the wearer without an over fold or peplos. In addition to the chitons, himations were also worn by both sexes. The himation is also a kind of an outer garment which is worn by both sexes. It is a rectangular piece of fabric which is bigger in size as compared to the chlamys, Anderson and Anderson (1999:265). The himation can be draped alone for men or draped over the chiton at the shoulder leaving the right shoulder bare for both sex. The large size of fabric required in draping this costume prevented the poor from using it as they could not afford to acquire it due to the cost involved. To this end, the wearing of the himation

became the costumes for the rich in the society. Unlike the chiton and the chlamy, the himation was not fastened with a fibulus, but rather, it was held in place by the way the body was carried.

In his book, *The Concise History of Costume and Fashion*, Laver (1969:30) identifies the 'chlamy' as another type of costume used during the ancient Greek period. The chlamy is a cloak made from a smaller rectangular loin cloth, thrown around the shoulders and fastened with a fibulus. It was mostly worn as a short military cloak by young horsemen, foot-soldiers and travelers and served as a form of protection against the cold weather.

The period was characterized by wars, as the Greeks fought in many battles. Barton (1963: 55) observes that, "warriors in early centuries fought naked save for the chlamys and a helmet, but later they dressed in chiton and equipped themselves with helmet made from metal". Tortora and Eubank, (1982:50) add that some protective devices used include breast plates made from metal, wide metal belts, shin guards and shields.

In order to decorate their costumes to look more appealing, Wilcox (1958:12) observes that the Greeks introduced pleats into their female costumes. This was achieved by wetting the fabric with thin starch, twisting it carefully, and then laid it in the sun to dry. This technique was chiefly done by the wealthy women in the society. Both men and women used perfumes, and applied oils in their hair and body. Men wore beards and had their hair cut short. Women used gold and silver hair pins and tiaras to hold their hair. Flowers and ribbons were also used to hold the hair. Women dyed their hair and wore veils. Plaiting and crimping of female hair were also in existence. Other popular styles included the tying of the hair with a fabric scarf.

Discussing costume accessories used during the period under review, Barton (1961:62) and Wilcox (1958:12-13) identify the parasol as an umbrella used to protect the Greeks against the sun's rays and fans were used to cool themselves. Men and women wore sandals made from leather which was held on the foot by leather straps. The buskin, a type of foot wear was worn up to the middle of the calf and laced in front. According to Anderson and Anderson (1999:268), a unique custom characterizing the wearing of foot wears was to remove it upon reaching the house. Sandals were worn outdoors, and boots worn for hunting. No footwear was worn indoor.

According to Anderson and Anderson, (1999), Wilcox (1958:13) and Houston (2003:78), bands, necklace, bracelets, and earrings formed part of their ornaments. However, Barton (1961:62) asserts that although these constituted their ornaments, Greek men and women did not deck themselves with such an abundance of ornaments.

The Roman Costumes

As noted by Wilson and Goldfarb (1991, 2002), Barton (1963:73), as ancient Greece declined in power and importance, another civilization began to emerge in Europe. It was located on the Italian peninsula, and its centre was the city of Rome, from which it took its name. Since wars were peculiar distinctive features of this era, that is, the third century, B.C., Rome engaged in a lengthy conflict referred to as the Punic wars and finally emerged victorious. In 146 B.C., the Romans conquered the Greeks and took over all their possession. The indigenes of Greece then served as slaves to the Romans. The Roman civilization was characterized with the establishment of Universities, and practical achievements seen in the areas of law, engineering and military conquest.

Tortora and Eubank (1982:59-60) remark that Rome became a wealthy, complex society as a result of their victory in the wars they participated in. However, the strain of the war on the society, economy and the resulting social strife led to civil war and to the appointment of a dictator for life, Julius Caesar. Following Caesar's assassination in 44B.C, Augustus, his grandnephew and adopted son, after a long debate among his siblings, became the first Roman emperor. Wilson and Goldfarb (1999:207) assert that religion was also of extreme importance to the Romans, and they worshiped gods comparable to the Greeks.

Concerning art, the Roman art in general had an air of Greek influence. This was because the Romans took on the Greek culture when they conquered them. Payne (1965: 96) puts this clearer that "the role of Romans in the area of arts was more of borrower and adapter than of a creator". In the introduction of *The World of Roman Costumes*, Bonfante (2001: 4) unravels how the Romans attach much significance to their costumes as:

[d]ress for a Roman often, if not primarily, signified rank, status, office, or authority. .

. . The dress worn by the participants in an official scene had legal connotations. . . .

The hierarchic, symbolic use of dress as a uniform or costume is part of Rome's legacy to Western civilization.

Despite theses, there were similarities between Greek and Roman costumes. The Romans like the Greeks also used woolen fabric to construct their costumes and to some extent silk. However, due to the expensive nature of the silk fabric it was mainly used by the rich in the society, (Wilcox, 1958). As noted by Barton (1963:79), the tunic or tunica was the males' outer garment and was the corresponding type of the Greek chiton. It consisted of two pieces of fabric joined together at the sides and also at the top, leaving space for the head at the top and spaces for the arms at the sides. The "Augustus clavus" was then attached to the front view of the tunica for citizens. The "Augustus clavus" was a band about one and half inches wide, of purple colour and

this signified the high status of the wearer. The colour purple was used to identify the high status of the wearer.

Tracing the origin of the word purple, Wilcox (1958:19) notes that it is the Latin “purpura”, the name of a shellfish which yielded the famous Tyrian dye . Augustus Caesar then employed this colour as a distinct hue for royals and from that time to date, the colour purple is still associated with royalty.

With the tunic, the Roman citizens draped the toga. It was similar to the Greek himation. Unlike the himation which could be draped either over the chiton or without the chiton, the toga was always draped over the tunic. According to Anderson and Anderson, (1999:267), Payne (1965:96), Barton (1963:75), the most important male garment was the “toga”. It was a garment worn over the tunic by male citizens only and it distinguished Roman male citizens from everybody in the world. It was an outer garment with a rectangular or semi circular shape draped over the tunic. It was draped thus: one end laid against the chest, then carried over the left shoulder, around the back and brought under the right arm to the front. According to Wilcox, (1958:18-19), the draping of the toga became an art with its straight- hanging folds as this gave dignity to the wearer. Barton (1963:78) shares in Wilcox’s postulation when she adds that “a toga worn too loose, or carelessly draped, was a reproach to the wearer”. The ability of the woolen fabric to fold over easily coupled with the artistic manner in which the toga was draped created folds in them known as sinus (Totora and Eubank, 1982:61). The sinus served as a kind of pocket where paper scrolls were kept by the philosophers. The ordinary citizen according to Wilcox (1958:18) wore a plain toga while magistrates and other dignified people wore the purple bordered toga. It is in the light of how the toga is revered that Payne (1965:96) refers to it as ‘the most Roman of Roman garment’.

Another kind of costume notable in the Roman era was the stola. It was the female outer costume for the Romans and was adopted from the Greek chiton. It was a straight robe reaching to the feet of the wearer. It could hang straight on the wearer or was bloused over a belt or a girdle and had sleeves attached to them. The palla, a draped shawl, is another type of costume worn by women during the early Roman civilization. This was also the counterpart of the Greek himation. Similarly, the palla was draped over the stola as the himation was draped over the chiton during the Greek civilization, Totora and Eubank (1982:64).

Hair was worn short and in the case of women, in public it was usual for the head to be veiled. In view of this, the women used their palla to cover their head. As time progressed, head bands and tiaras made from gold and silver were attached to the hair. Rings were worn by both sexes; the women used bracelets, anklets, necklaces and ear-rings, (Laver 1969).

According to Laver (1969:40), “at first, the Romans wore beard, but from the second century B.C they began to be clean-shaven, and this became the universal custom under the Empire”.

Since one of the great enterprises of the early Romans was war, military costumes were important to the maintenance of their clothing culture. Notable among these were the helmets and shin guards which were made from metal, tunics and cloak made from woolen fabrics; armour, crossed sandals and baldric made from animal leather. Barton (1963:-80-82) indicates that the length of the soldiers’ tunics were shorter in length. Intuitively, this could be attributed to the fact that its short length will propel them to run faster as more of their work depended on brisk movements. The armour was then worn over the tunic to protect the wearer. The baldric was also worn across the chest of the soldiers as they kept their metallic swords in them. The military officers wore the paludamentum, a large cloak over their amour. This was to distinguish them from the ordinary soldiers as they wore smaller cloaks. On their feet, soldiers and civilians wore cross sandals made from thick animal leather. In some instances, the straps of the leather was laced on the shin of the wearer similar to the Greeks

Improvisation of Materials for Costumes for the Production of *Androcles and the Lion*

In this paper, we will discuss four main characters and describe materials used to improvise their costumes.

Gladiators

Ancient Roman gladiators were well built men who fought even to the point of death to entertain Caesar and spectators. These harmful and terrifying gladiators were cherished and respected in the society. As part of their original costumes, they wore helmets and shin guards made from metal. Their foot wear was a pair of crossed sandals made from animal leather and also covered their nudity with woolen fabric, (retrieved from <https://www.google.com.gh/search?biw=1024&bih=629&tbm=isch&btnG=&q=GLADIATORS> on 25th August, 2011). By improvising materials to create similar costumes which look like the original, gourd (calabash), straw board and paper were used to build the helmet while straw board, foam and papers were used to build the shin guards. To make these items have that metallic look, they were sprayed with bronze paint. Their improvised foot wear was made using discarded car tyres which had cross straps similar to the Romans. Their nudity was covered using red polyester fabric. The red colour revealed their aggressive and dangerous nature. In order to make these gladiators look very sweaty, shear butter was smeared on their bodies.



Fig. 1, Actors playing the role of gladiators in improvised costumes



From a painting on the parapet of the amphitheatre at Pompeii.

Fig. 2, Pictorial format of ancient gladiators retrieved from <https://www.google.com.gh/search?biw=1024&bih=629&tbm=isch&btnG=&q=GLADIATORS>

Lion

The lion was an animal which lived in the forest and later became a friend to Androcles. Their friendship came about when Androcles, a lover of animals removed a thorn from its right paw in the forest. Because the lion is a wild animal that lived in the forest, and can not be brought to the stage, there was the need to improvise materials to build its costumes. By that, polyester fabric, foam, metal gauze and raffia skirts were employed to create its costume.



Fig. 3 Actor in Improved costume of a lion



Fig.4 Pictorial format of a lion, retrieved from <https://www.google.com.gh/search?q=lion&source=lnms&tbm=isch&sa=X&ei>

Androcles

Androcles, a small, thin, ridiculous little Greek tailor and believed to be a sorcerer, was a man of thirty five years who loved animals. He was a humble man who did not want to betray his Christian faith and wanted to die as a martyr. As husband of Magaera, they both lived in economic hardship which compelled them to sell all their belongings.

As has been discussed earlier, some ancient Greek men wore chitons similar to tunics and leather sandals with its straps laced on the wearer's shin as foot wear. Androcles improvised costumes were a short brown chiton girdled at the waist. This was made from polyester fabric instead of wool. His humility was revealed with the brown colour of his costume. To improvise for his sandals, he was given a pair of black rubber slippers and attached cords to them. These cords were laced on his shin similar to the Greeks. To make the actor assume the age of thirty five, mustache and beard were fixed on his face. This was because the actor was twenty years old

with a young looking face.



Fig. 5 Androcles in Improved costume



Fig.6 Pictorial format of a chiton. Retrieved from

<https://www.google.com.gh/search?q=lion&source=lnms&tbm=isch&sa=X&ei#q=chiton&tbm=isch>

Megaera

Megaera, a pampered slattern, well-fed Greek woman in the prime of her life was the wife of Androcles. She was impatient and rude to Androcles and expected him to spend more time with her than animals.

Greek females wore costumes such as ionic and doric chitons and palla which was used to cover the hair. These costumes were made from woolen fabric. As they did not walk barefoot, they had footwear which was a pair of crossed sandals made from animal leather. Megaera's improvised costumes which looked similar to the original were the light-brown doric chiton and a cream palla. These were constructed using the polyester fabric. Her improvised footwear was a pair of black rubber slippers with cords attached and laced on her shin similar to the Greeks



Fig. 7 Magera in improvised costumes



Fig 8 Pictorial format of Doric chiton by Barton, 1963

Major Findings

- Some materials available in Ghana, such as gourd (calabash), metal gauze, papers, strawboard, foam, raffia among others can be employed to construct costumes for the play under review and other plays for the Ghanaian stage. Such non conventional materials are of equal aesthetic value as compared to the original materials used in building them.
- Knowledge of various fiber behaviours of materials helped in choosing what was appropriate to create the

three dimensional form (sewn costumes) of Greek and Roman costumes from its two dimensions (pictorial view).

- To achieve excellent results, different materials have to be practiced with when improvising materials for costume construction.
- All the costumes built are in good shape and can be re-used in any subsequent productions. However, durability of these costumes is dependent on proper storage and maintenance by actors and costumiers alike.
- The research also revealed that there are some similarities in Ancient Greek and Roman costumes and that of Ghanaian costumes.

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The role of Non-State Actors in the Implementation of Social Protection Policies and Programme in Uganda

Julius Okello

Department of Social Development, Faculty of Humanities, University of Cape Town – South Africa

Abstract:

Drawing from the quantitative and qualitative data collected from the two districts of Uganda, the paper examines the extent to which social protection initiatives in particular the formal and informal policies, regulations and accountability mechanisms of selected social protection interventions influences the demand, design and implementation of programs and consequently the degree of effectiveness it has in addressing gendered vulnerability to poverty. The findings indicate that social protection has become an important strategy for reducing household vulnerability to poverty. Social protection is not only provided by the state but also non-state actors of various categories are increasingly playing a significant role in addressing the different aspects of vulnerability employing different strategies or approaches. The study has shown that governance of non-state actors (NSAs), in particular formal and informal policies and regulations as well as the accountability mechanisms have significant implications for effective delivery of social protection services in particular ensuring that vulnerable poor needs, interest, concerns and priorities are addressed. Therefore, this study explores key ideas needed in the current debate on the development and implementation of social protection policies and programmes against household gendered vulnerability to poverty in Uganda and proposes the development of innovative development policies and programmes that strengthens the pro-poor implementation of social protection along with more comprehensive schemes on poverty reduction.

Keywords: Social Protection, Poverty, Household Vulnerability to Poverty, State, Non-State Actors

Introduction

Addressing vulnerabilities among low income sections of the community is one of the overarching goals of most nations. One of the notions that drive this agenda is the widely held view that all citizens deserve a decent life, one in which they are able to afford basic necessities of life. Besides, high levels of vulnerability and inequality are a setback to economic and social development. It is partly due to these arguments that nations and development partners are now increasingly designing clear and effective strategies for promoting the implementation of social protection policies and programmes. Several definitions and conceptualisation of social protection abound. The World Bank in its 2001 paper on developing a social protection strategy for Africa defines social protection as ‘interventions that assist poor individuals, households and communities to reduce their vulnerability by managing risks better’ (p 4). In the first National Development Plan (NDP, 2010/11 - 2014/15), similar conceptualisation of social protection is adopted where social protection is presented as “a collective system for managing risks faced by vulnerable individual household members” (Government of Uganda (GoU), 2012) (GoU, 2012). DfID takes a broader perspective. Social protection is defined as ‘public actions carried out by the state or privately – that: a) enable people to deal more effectively with risk and their vulnerability to crises and changes in circumstances (such as unemployment or old age); and b) help tackle extreme and chronic poverty’ (Dfid, 2006:1). Other African countries take a similar broad perspective. Benin for instance, in its poverty reduction strategy paper of 2003, states “social protection comprises all systems and measures that provide social assistance and various social services to the different social and professional groups” (Republic of Benin, 2002).

Background

The Ugandan government through the Public Private Partnership policy recognises the important role of non-state social protection actors in accelerating the country’s development process. The Constitution guarantees the right to engage in peaceful activities to influence the policies of government through civic organisations and guarantees the independence of nongovernmental organisations which protect and promote human rights (Objective V (ii)) (Republic of Uganda, 1995). The NGO Statute 1989 and 2006 NGO Amendment Act illustrates government legal commitment to the development of the non state actors’ role in development (Republic of Uganda, 1989). The National Development Plan (NDP) recognizes and stresses non-state social protection actor’s involvement in its implementation and ensuring its success (The Republic of Uganda, 2010). The government has also developed a National NGO policy (2010), which recognizes the role of non-state social protection actor’s in improving the quality of life of Ugandans especially in the sectors of education, health, water and sanitation, environmental management, infrastructure development, humanitarian and relief support that greatly supplements government efforts. The policy also recognizes the role of non-state actor’s in policy development and championing participatory development (Ministry of Internal Affairs, 2010). The Integration of

gender in all these initiatives is a central objective for the Ugandan government, as guided by the National Gender policy (see the, Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development [MoGLSD], 2007). Reducing vulnerability and poverty are key concerns of the gender policy. Non State Actors (NSAs) implement Social protection interventions either in partnership with government or get financial support from development partners (donors).

Social protection is a major intervention area for non state actors (NGOs and Community- Based Organisations) especially in empowering and meeting the needs of marginalised people (MoGLSD, 2007). Available literature on civil society in Uganda indicates that a number of Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) have been involved in supporting the poor focusing on building local skills and knowledge, economic empowerment, promotion of human rights to deal with social exclusion; establishing minority group-specific social services, relief and humanitarian service; Adult literacy education; education support; confidence building and peace building to reduce conflicts with neighbouring communities among others (Lwanga-Ntale et al, 2008). The CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation (CIVICUS) study group notes that CSOs are significantly more effective than the state in meeting the needs of the marginalised. The community members indicated that voluntary organisations provide better services to vulnerable groups than the state (CPRC et al., 2009).

While the NSA sector has expanded in Uganda, majority of these organizations have a narrow social base and thin in national geographical coverage (Makubuya et al, 2002). Most of the leading NSAs are urban-based concentrated Kampala (the Capital city of Uganda) with a token presence in the rural countryside (Ibid). The middle class plays a prominent role in these organizations or at least those most visible in the public arena. Thus several CSOs in the country are characterized as elitist establishments with majority of the NSAs dependent on external donor funding where the interests of donors often determine their objectives and priorities and as such they may be described as nomadic in their pursuits (Ibid)¹. Thus they are open to change of government and others of being donor ‘puppets’ which also affects their accountability. There are reported tensions between staff and senior managers due to limited staff involvement in decision making processes isolation of staff; weaknesses in governance associated with lack of capacity among governing body to take on responsibilities (board members); limited organizational and professional skills among members; low pay (Mukasa, 2006); weak staff career development (Ahmad, 2002; Vilain, 2006); limited financial and management expertise, limited institutional capacity, low levels of self-sustainability, isolation/lack of inter-organizational communication and/or coordination, lack of understanding of the broader social or economic context (Malena, 1995).

The study design and methodological approach

The paper reviewed the secondary and primary data collected from the two districts of Uganda (Katakwi and Kyegegwa), purposively selected to represent the two broad tribal and ethnic cultural groupings – the Nilo-Hamites (Katakwi) and Bantu (Kyegegwa). Katakwi and Kyegegwa districts represent the North Eastern and Western Uganda respectively. The two districts offered this study the best options for comparison between various aspects such as rural-urban and cultural differences. Other criteria for selection of the districts included poverty and vulnerability status and presence of both state and non state social protection actors. The study adopted a cross sectional design employing both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection for the primary data. The secondary data was obtained through an in-depth desk review and content analysis of relevant published and gray material (unpublished studies), policy and programme documents, regulations and laws of the selected non state actors. The review of global and national studies on social protection and governance of non state actor’s provision of social protection provided conceptual and theoretical discourses on gender and social protection initiatives with respect to issues of governance, vulnerability and poverty in Africa and Uganda.

Analysis and Discussion of the Findings

In seeking to understand how NSAs providing SP services have contributed towards resolution of problems related to adequacy, effectiveness and targeting of specific aspects with regard to gender and vulnerability to poverty, the study dwelt on the following parameters: laws, policies and regulations; and accountability. Policies, laws and regulations are key governance mechanisms that facilitate the operation of organisation. It is envisaged that policies, laws and regulations influence the design and implementation of programs and consequently the level/degree of effectiveness in addressing gender and vulnerability to poverty. In the absence of clear policies and enabling laws and regulations, NSAs can fail to full incorporate the unique but vital features of a given society in the design and implementation of initiatives. Similarly, the need for effective accountability to various stakeholders tends to rise to bar for any NSA to deliver services effectively, transparently with tangible results. The channel of accountability works through involvement of all relevant stakeholders that leads to better

¹ The DIFD Report (page 23)

understanding of what needs to be done, how to do it and feedback messages that recursive refinement of the delivery system. It is argued that good accountability mechanisms are better equipped to address gender differences and other specific concerns of the communities. They do so by way of reporting and gathering new ideas to tailor the initiatives to specific local conditions for greater efficiency and effectiveness.

Governing Laws, Policies and Guidelines of NSAs

The findings provide support to the argument that formal and informal policies, laws and regulations of entities involved in SP initiatives influence the effectiveness in terms of reducing gender specific difference and vulnerability to poverty. A review of information within the NSAs and the environment around them revealed that policies were both formal and informal. An in-depth analysis revealed that all the NSAs whether informal or formal had some governing policies and regulations written and unwritten. An important explanation for presence of policies and regulations was embedded within the broader government requirement for registration of NSAs. The NGO Board demands that all NSAs should have a constitution which articulates the governing laws, policies or guidelines before it can be registered and licensed (Ministry of Internal Affairs, 2010). The rules and regulations provide a framework for internal governance, budgeting and financial reporting, and annual work plans indicating the services and activities carried out (progress) and what is planned.

In the case of Kyegegwa district, further explanation for the widespread presence of laws, policies and regulations is found in the fact that a local NGOs (PAPRO) facilitated the process of developing a constitution by training members and developing a common design that each NSA could easily adopt and adapt. Nevertheless, it was observed that most policies and regulations (about 70%) were informal (not written) though members were familiar with their implementation. Though 30% of the NSAs indicated that they had written policies, only 11% were able to present copies to the research team. In Katakwi district, 95% of the NSAs had a constitution and the remaining 5% had by-laws. Claims of having written constitutions could not be verified except for 26% of the entities who were able to present a copy to the research team. Review of the available constitutions, indicated several similarities in terms of provisions and procedures relating to various aspects of belonging and benefiting for the SP initiatives. For example, there were similarities in conditions for membership, initial and regular contributions, fines and penalties imposed for certain breaches, sharing out of benefits, and guidelines for seeking assistance from the Social Fund in case of bereavement or major illness. Others include administration and governance procedures, frequency of meetings, to review progress and making of operation decisions, guidelines for general meeting and election of leaders.

The constitutions provide the vision, mission, and reason for establishment of the NSA; name and location; geographical coverage of the organization; aims and objectives and activities to be implemented to achieve the objectives. The constitutions further articulate the organizational structure, membership recruitment, composition and termination; elections of committees; duties of the different office bearers in the management of the organization as well as implementation of programmes/activities. They also provide for accountability mechanisms such as reporting and feedback mechanisms; financial accountability; standing orders and by-laws, language of communication as well as procedures for dissolution of the organization when need arises. The community based organisations which did not have written constitutions had rules or by-laws that are agreed upon in the meetings to guide their operations such as payment of fines, irregular attendance, and failure to pay loans among others. Respect for each other cut across most NSAs at the community level. Other rules and regulations provided for extending benefits such as loans to non-members who had to be guaranteed by members.

Analysis of Gender responsiveness of NSA Policies and Programs

Of particular interest to the study was the extent to which gender has been integrated in the policies and regulations. Gender insensitive policies have implications on the programming in terms of targeting as well as the organizations ability to address women's/girls and men's/boys interests, concerns and priorities. While majority of the NSA officials (66.7%) indicated considering gender in their policies, the analysis of the constitutions and other policy documents indicated that they did not reflect gender aspects. The documents did not depict awareness of gender concepts and their implications on life experiences and outcomes for girls and boys, men and women in the community. Beyond the documents, officials could not explain how gender was integrated in the programming and implementation of activities implying that written provisions were not practically applied.

A few organizations provided for addressing specific gender aspects such as socio discrimination against women and children. For example, organizations such as OTUKO People living with HIV/AIDS pledged to create awareness on cross cutting issues such as gender; consideration of both male and female members; gender equity in elections interpreted as 'both men and women inclusive'. Other constitutions² indicate provision

² Omodoi Parents Association (OPA)

for equal rights to all members and that all community members are eligible to become members provided they are committed to the objectives of the association. The constitutions for Omodoi Parents Association (OPA) and family life survival (FALISU) for addressing sexual and gender based violence with emphasis on addressing gender discrimination and gender mainstreaming as well as penalties for sexual harassment. Katakwi District Development Actors Network (KaDDAN), the umbrella organization for all CSOs in the district emphasizes values such as gender sensitivity, mutual respect, transparency and accountability in its operations and calls for gender parity and non-discriminatory practices, justice and equity in the member organizations.

In terms of contextualizing gender issues, the analysis shows that a number of NSAs had simply reflected broader gender issues without considering the local situation in their areas of operation. Only one of the organizations recognizes the role of gender in development in the preamble of the constitution but also very broadly with no specific identification of the gender issues affecting the beneficiaries of their programmes. The findings reveal that most NSAs in the study areas (66.7%) provided services that are gender neutral with only 27.8% with gender specific activities. 33.3% focus on access to savings and credit facilities for community members. A gender institutional analysis of the selected NSAs reveals lack of gender capacities in most organisations characterised by limited capacity and skills to conduct gender analysis and use the gender analysis to inform design and delivery of SP interventions. A few organisations³ mainly the international, national and district ones had either conducted a gender training for their staff or their staff had attended gender training as well as had gender policies to guide their operations. The lack or limited human resource technical capacities for gender planning is a major challenge in ensuring that NSAs adequately integrate gender in their operations to be able to meet the needs and interests of men and men in their communities of operation.

Accountability Mechanisms of NSAs

Good governance is measured by the level of accountability in the organization or institution. Accountability strengthens governance structures, enhances organizations credibility and legitimacy as well as ensuring that stakeholder needs and concerns are addressed at all levels. The key dimensions of accountability as defined by Blagescu et al (2005) which were considered in the study include transparency; participation, evaluation and complaint and response mechanisms, responsiveness to people needs and concerns among others. These dimensions offer opportunities for addressing gender concerns, interests and priorities.

Transparency

Transparency is an important mechanism for accountability that ensures beneficiaries receive adequate information on the organization's policies, procedures, structures and activities. In-depth analysis showed that majority of the NSAs provided opportunities for sharing information with the members and beneficiaries through various kinds of meetings. This offered opportunities for members to participate in planning, reviewing progress on implementation of activities and budgeting. In the Credit and Savings NSAs, during the meetings, members review progress reports on contributions by each person, what to do with savings, decisions on defaulters within the group, and attendance of training programmes. In this way, there was joint monitoring of activities and accountability processes. As noted, all members also participate in the selection of leaders during the Annual General Meeting (AGM). The beneficiaries confirmed that meetings were the major avenue of sharing information about the operations of NSAs. The major channel for communication was through meetings whose frequency ranged from weekly to annually across the different NSAs. In both districts large proportion of the NSAs - in Katakwi district (66%) met weekly while 20% met annually at the general assembly. In Kyegegwa district majority of the NSAs met weekly (78%) and annually (10%) (Figure1). It was observed that 10% of NSAs did not hold any kind of meeting for members and beneficiaries.

The weekly meetings were common among the informal NSAs especially those dealing with savings and credit while annual meeting were organised by the national and the formal NSAs. The international NSAs do not hold meetings for local people but rather staff members who do the monitoring and evaluation. The meetings provided a forum for information sharing on programme design, implementation progress as well as feedback on beneficiaries' views and grievances about the service or initiative. In addition, community consultative meetings, sensitization and training workshops and monitoring and evaluation visits are commonly organised by field staff of international, national and formal community based NSAs. With the informal groups at community level, information was largely shared through regular group meetings that are held either on a weekly or monthly basis. The multiple channels through which beneficiaries were able to voice their views and grievances on the initiatives and obtain a response included hand over notes; telephones; radios; home visits and church.

Overall the most common channel for communication and feedback channels were through the meetings. This fact was confirmed by 64.6% of males and (58.9%) females. The second most common form of communication was mobile telephones: 23.1% (for males) and 22.1% (for females). Monitoring and evaluation

³ Action Aid Uganda, KaDDAN, Child Fund, SOCADIDO, Lutheran World Federation

activities as well as radios were least used as channels of communication and feedback mechanism. In both districts, while meetings of formal NSAs involve representatives of the communities especially the local leaders, with the informal community based organisations, all the members attend meetings and in some associations penalties are given for non-attendance. This arrangement was noted to create a sense of ownership, responsibility and accountability among the membership. Although women were highly involved during focus group discussions they had challenges of regular attendance due to restrictions on their mobility and lack of time created by heavy household workload involving farming and domestic chores that take the largest share of their time.

Participation in decision making, planning and implementation of SP activities

Accountability was largely judged by the nature in which the NSA involved the stakeholders either in the making of key decisions that influenced realization of the objectives and/or shared information about what had been delegated to a smaller group and the results obtained. Information on involvement in the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation indicated that, at the design level, majority of the NSAs (67%) involve the beneficiaries while 28% engage the selected executive members. A few staff members (6%) are involved in the planning (6%), which is mainly done through meetings (78.4%) in majority of the community based organisations and national organisations. A similar trend is observed at implementation level, where a large proportion of the NSAs (especially community based) involve beneficiaries (61%), followed by involvement of staff and executive members 18%. The international organisations, on the other hand, use specialists (consultants) to do much of the planning (see figure 2).

In monitoring, NSAs largely involve executive members (41%); and project staff and beneficiaries (both 26%). Evaluation is dominated by beneficiaries (36%) followed by the executive members and staff. About 33.3% of the organisations do not conduct monitoring and evaluation. While interview with NSA Officials indicated high involvement of beneficiaries across the different stages of the project/programme cycle, interviews with selected beneficiaries revealed that there was limited involvement in decision making process in the formal NSAs. The above reveal the non-participatory approach of formal NSAs and the implications of such approach which they referred to as – *‘buying what the community does not need’*. Consequently, people are increasingly setting up self-help associations/groups to support each other deal with poverty in their households. With the community based associations and groups planning is done by all members, women and men as one of the opinion leader reveals; *“If you look at the way the village SACCOs are operating, they are composed of both men and women and also in some cases the youth are given a special consideration. In such a case you find that the group members are working together as a team and getting results. The same approach has been applied to revolving fund schemes (‘aipoono’) in the villages... (Key Informant, Male, Katakwi)”*

Despite the challenges related to workload and limitations on mobility, the women testified that they are involved in the planning of their group/associations activities and equal sharing of benefits. For instance one of the female beneficiaries noted: *“Our men are longer behaving they way they used to be in 80’s, at least some men allow their wives to engage us in income generating activities although some are still strict. Women are involved in associations especially savings and credit associations which has helped them to improve on household welfare for example paying school fees, buying household materials...(key informant in , female, kyegegwa)”*

The formal NSAs have their field staff members who implement the activities; the beneficiaries are mainly called to attend consultative community meetings, often organized at sub county level, and hence not accessible to all especially the women. With the informal NSAs, implementation is a collective responsibility of the members.

Evaluation

Evaluation is an important mechanism of accountability through which organizations monitor and review progress to ascertain whether the objectives are being met. This process allows the organization to capture progress and derive any lessons to feed back into the system. While majority of the NSAs officials (61.1%) indicated having a monitoring and evaluation system in place, there was no physical evidence to back up the claim. Only 11.1% of the NSAs presented their M&E mechanisms to the research team. About 28% of the NSAs did not have any system in place for monitoring and reviewing progress and impact of their initiatives. Reviews and feedback are conducted through meetings and monitoring visits on weekly, monthly, quarterly and annual basis depending on the organizations policy and procedures. According to most respondents’ field staff in international, national and formal NSAs conduct the reviews and provide feedback to the beneficiaries. Evaluation in informal NSAs is a collective responsibility, conducted during the meetings.

Reporting and feedback mechanisms

Reporting and feedback mechanisms varied across the different types of NSAs but largely depend on type of

NSA and source of funding. The sharing of these reports among various stakeholders varied across the different NSAs with the formal CBOs and NSAs sharing monthly and quarterly reports with a few stakeholders – mostly funders, district government officials and executive board members. Only a few of the NSAs (4.9% of international and 4.5% of national) reported to the beneficiaries. For community based organisations, only those registered at district level report to the district and to their funders but all report to the beneficiaries. The types of reports produced include financial and activity reports as well as annual reports which are shared on monthly, quarterly and annual basis as per the NSA reporting procedures and regulations which vary across different NSAs. Reporting appeared more transparent at CBO level where all members are expected to participate in joint monitoring and evaluation of their activities in the meetings. Annual reporting was reportedly common among the formal NSAs, while the CBOs receive reports on a weekly basis. International and national NSAs seem to be more accountable to the donors and government than the beneficiaries of their projects/programmes. This finding concurs with Jordan's⁴ argument that NGOs are often oriented towards external stakeholders that have considerable leverage over and NGO like a donor or government regulator (p.20).

Effectiveness of governance mechanism and accountability

For governance and accountability to be affective, responsiveness to the vulnerable groups' needs and concerns should be an integral part of the organizations focus through promotion of social justice and gender equality to further the realisation of the rights of all citizens (Institute for Development Studies [IDS], 2009). Such responsiveness is reflected in the objectives of the NSAs articulated in the policies and strategies as well as the services and activities being implemented. Considering the gender situation identified (Box 1) and the beneficiary needs (Table 1), analysis of NSAs objectives and focus reveals that NSA objectives appeared to be in line with beneficiaries' needs.

According to most NSAs whose policies and regulations were reviewed, the major objectives of their activities included the following:

- Eradicating poverty through promoting credit and savings schemes; provision of skills in income generation;
- promote education of both boys and girls and community sensitisation
- promote modern farming practices to ensure improved livelihoods and food security
- Address the health problems experienced in the communities such as HIV/AIDS; and improve access to health facilities
- Promote gender and human rights
- Promote dialogue, peace building and advocate for peace, reconciliation and a conducive working environment for CSO's
- Advocate for youth employment among Others⁵

Challenges notwithstanding, beneficiaries spoke of having gained from the services provided by the NSAs. The benefits ranged from education of their children; building their houses; access to free medicine, treatment; access to justice; counselling; economic empowerment; obtaining skills to having a sense of belonging. In both districts, having a sense of belonging was mentioned by a large proportion of the men (27.7%) and women (31.6%); followed by education of children reported by 27.7% of the men and 28.4% of the women, acquiring skills (24.6% of the men and 28.4% of the women). Men were happy about being able to provide shelter for their families. These benefits reflect the needs identified by the beneficiaries and the objectives of the NSAs, implying that somehow the NSAs have responded to the needs of their target population. Most women noted that although the local NSAs are small, they have helped in addressing their immediate needs to improve on their household welfare; *"Like in our group, people have benefitted in getting mattresses, we agreed that every Sunday a member contributes 2000/= (USD\$0.8) towards purchase of a mattress for another member. The group contributes for a member who is in need e.g. to buy beddings, household utensils, some borrow money when they have problems and pays back with no interest. When we save we also buy cows, goats and anything that one desires.... (FGD Women, Katakwi)"*.

Other benefits highlighted include knowledge, paying school fees and social networking. Most women appeared to have benefitted from the local NSAs that the international and national NSAs which they said were more accessible to the local leaders and their relative. However, the beneficiaries noted that not all their needs have been addressed and vulnerability to poverty remains a major concern for women and men in the two districts. Although the beneficiaries needs appear to be largely practical, and hence the services largely focus on promotive and protective support, the need for increasing focus on transformative measures as some scholars have argued (Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2004; Holmes and Jones, 2010; Thakur et al, 2009) would go a long way to reduce gendered vulnerabilities to poverty, which are reflected in the gender situation of the beneficiaries

⁴ Lisa Jordan Mechanisms for NGO Accountability. Global Public Policy Institute (GPPi) Research Paper series No. 3.

⁵ Advocacy for the rights of vulnerable people, networking and coordination of CSOs efforts, research on causes of insecurities, help the needy; support disabled children; address disasters that affect the clan.

as highlighted in Box 1.

Findings reveal that the services are generally inadequate as reported by majority of the men in Katakwi (71.4%) and in Kyegegwa (64.7%) as well as women in Katakwi (83.3%) and in Kyegegwa (66.7%). In both districts, more women than men were dissatisfied with the services provided by the NSAs especially the international and National actors. The respondents were concerned about corruption in these NSAs which impacts on the delivery of services. In Omodoi Sub County, women in the focus group discussion cited a case where most beneficiaries of the initiatives are not the poor but rather benefiting the leaders in the community and their relatives. Women were especially concerned about the services being hazy. Respondents especially those in Katakwi Sub County complained of the limited number of formal NSAs in their sub county – they are largely served by the local groups, which have limited resources.

The respondents identified a number of challenges related to the services provided considering the different levels of service provision. The most common challenges associated with design of programmes of initiatives were; poor community involvement; inadequate services provided/services do not meet the expectations of the beneficiaries; limited participation of the local population in decision making; high levels of illiteracy and ignorance. Others include exclusion of some vulnerable groups (the non-active poor, youth, elderly); services given are not one's choice; loans difficult to pay back; limited services provided for health care; poor organization and poor policy implementation as some the men noted; *"Some of us have not benefited [from the formal NSAs]. They should bring those activities to the groups...The groups should determine what they want, not them deciding for the groups and people... (FGD, men, Katakwi)"*.

At implementation level, in both districts challenges including: non-involvement, absenteeism; internal wrangles over leadership; conflicts & disagreements; corruption by leaders; division of funds was a problem; lack of clean water; unpredictable weather conditions; hectic or too much work; programs take long to be implemented. Others include lack of technical skills; exclusion of some groups of people; things given have strings attached and are not adequate and non-involvement in planning and implementation.

Challenges associated with review and reporting include: limited involvement; ignorance of reporting writing and delays; illiteracy; little time given to project members for handing in reports; poor mobilization; lack of transport; no follow ups on the reports; and reports are hard to interpret by some members. While most women and men were comfortable with the local NSAs especially the savings and credit associations, they noted that the groups depend on member's contributions and yet the members do not have money.

Discussion of key findings and resonance with other studies

It is clear from the findings that governance mechanisms of NSAs including policies, laws and regulations as well as accountability mechanisms influence the design and implementation of programs and consequently the extent of effectiveness in addressing gender and vulnerability to poverty. In the absence of clear gender sensitive policies and enabling laws and regulations, NSAs fail to fully incorporate the unique and vital features of a given society in the design and implementation of initiatives. The reviewed policies in majority of NSA are gender blind; they do not reflect clear and participatory identification of gendered economic and social vulnerabilities, needs, interest and priorities. They are based on broad national and district assumed vulnerabilities and fail to utilise community's contributions in the design of initiatives. Consequently such approaches were noted to offer inappropriate interventions – interventions that do not address community needs. The gender blindness of policies is reflected in the design and implementation of activities with services that are largely gender neutral constituting majority of the NSA activities and services (72.9% - including the savings and credit schemes). Accordingly Holmes and Jones (2010b) argue that policy and programme design; implementation, monitoring and evaluation should have a gender perspective, in which gender equality and women's rights are central to the goals.

Only those organisations whose policies had gender considerations implemented gender specific activities and offered gender specific services. NSAs that considered gender in their policies largely provided for participation of women and men in meetings, male and female representation on membership (both general and executive committee), advocacy for human rights in particular gender based violence, non discriminatory recruitment procedures and working environment and providing equal access to savings and credit facilities for interested women and men in the given community. The savings and credit initiatives are predominantly women because of its focus on improving household welfare/care – an activity or role that is traditionally known as female domain. This is contrary to what is reported by Norton et al, (2001) where most beneficial societies were largely composed of men (90%). Norton et al, (2001) however note that argue that forms of local organisation which take on the function of pooling resources against risk are likely develop a higher level of capacity in order to meet the demanding functions. This has implications in terms not only of direct benefits, but also the development of social and organisational capabilities which assist poor people (and specific groups, such as women) to effectively negotiate rights and entitlements from private sector service providers and public authority (Ibid).

On accountability as measured by transparency, participation in decision making and evaluation, the findings reveal a more transparent system of governance in community based NSA that offers opportunities for information sharing by members and beneficiaries than with the formal international, national and district based NSAs. Such lack of transparent and involvement of communities has been reported by other scholars (Norton et al, 2001). Norton et al, (2001) argue that informal NSAs in particular ‘micro-insurance’⁶ offer efficiencies to both provider and patient (smoothing revenue for the former, smoothing expenditure for the latter because local micro-insurance structures enjoy ‘cohesion, direct participation and low administrative costs’. Regular meetings often held weekly and annual meetings for majority of community based NSAs in Kyegegwa and Katakwi districts respectively offer opportunities for members and beneficiaries to participate in planning, share information on progress and financial accountability of their organisations. The findings reveal that women and men are encouraged and required to participate in the meetings although women expressed the challenge of irregular attendance which they attributed to time poverty created by heavy workload that involve farming and domestic chores which take the largest proportion of their time.

While interviews with selected NSA officials (from National, international and district formal NSAs) revealed involvement of beneficiaries at all stages of project/programme cycle, the beneficiaries reported limited involvement especially in decision making. Although there are no formal Monitoring and Evaluation systems for majority of NSAs, reviews and feedback are done in meetings where progress and financial reports are shared. With formal NSAs reports are largely shared with the donors, executive board members and government agencies district local government. The community based NSAs share reports with all members. Agyemang et al (2009) argues participation as an accountability mechanism reflects the process of involving beneficiaries in projects decisions. This includes sharing information and consultation and dialogues with beneficiaries and other stakeholders (Ebrahim, 2003; Agyemang et al, 2009). However, in practice the decision making remains with the implementation organizations and donors. Agyemang et al (2009) study found that beneficiaries are often involved through communal meetings usually held at the start of the projects. They note that review meetings offer an important forum where the beneficiaries reflect and comment on the performance of the NSA work. International and national NSAs seem to be more accountable to the donors and government than the beneficiaries of their projects/programmes. This finding concurs with Jordan’s⁷ argument that NGOs are often oriented towards external stakeholders that have considerable leverage over and NGO like a donor or government regulator.

An assessment of the effectiveness of NSAs in responding to the needs and interests of the poor women and men and other vulnerable groups reveals a clear linkage between governance mechanisms in particular policies, laws/regulations and accountability mechanisms and design and implementation of appropriate SP interventions. It is clear that recognition and appreciation of the different vulnerabilities to poverty in the policy and legal framework of NSAs translates to objectives, interventions and services that respond to the identified vulnerabilities. For instance the few NSAs which have gender sensitive policies with gender specific objectives (and are informed by gender analysis, implement and offer gender specific activities and services in their SP interventions. Hence policy focus informs design and implementation of appropriate SP interventions. NSAs with accountability mechanisms that ensure sharing of information and participatory involvement of members and beneficiaries as was the case with most community based organisations were noted to be effective in responding to poor women’s and men’s needs and interests. The poor women and men are given an opportunity to participate in decision making on issues that affect them especially identifying their needs, concerns and priorities.

In both districts while the international and national level NSAs were considered effective in meeting their objectives according to assessments by political and opinion leaders, the beneficiaries rated them less effective largely on grounds of expectations of coverage of their individual and group needs. The vulnerability of households was related to multiple factors and yet many NSAs addressed one or two aspects. Communities were not informed of the specific coverage of each NSA and neither did the NSAs work in partnership so as to jointly and holistically address most needs of a given community.

Community Based Organization (CBOs) had a more focus to local conditions and tended to incorporate the gender needs as well as ensuring representation of women and men both in their informal administrative structure and programs. For example, many of the SILC groups allowed individual persons to use their savings for activities of their choice and the amount of weekly contributions had been set to accommodate the abilities of most of the individual members. The amount of savings contributed per member had increased over the years and households had used their repayments to purchase household items, farm implements and cattle or goats. It was possible to conclude that the level of vulnerability to low and/or unstable incomes was being reduced gradually for all participating households. Participation in governance and design of programs was

⁶ small, local, independently-managed schemes (because people are unwilling to trust larger and more anonymous schemes)

⁷ Lisa Jordan Mechanisms for NGO Accountability: Global Public Policy Institute (GPI) Research Paper series No. 3

more pronounced at the CBO level compared to international and national level NSAs. The later NSAs tended to treat the communities as beneficiaries who should simply receive hand-outs of say food, land, medical care, and educational support without making any input in the operational design of the programs. The CBOs on the other hand had more involvement of communities since most of them were member-based. It is worthwhile to conclude that the level of community involvement enabled CBOs to be more focused and effective in resolving specific community vulnerabilities.

Conclusion and Policy implications

Evidence from the study, shows that social protection has a potential to reduce poverty and vulnerability among poor household's in the country. Although social protection in Uganda has been known to be a public responsibility largely in the hands of the state through social security schemes and other poverty reduction programmes, non state actors both formal and informal community support systems have increasingly become popular in meeting the needs of the poor and vulnerable population, albeit not adequate given the chronic poverty situation in the country. The study has shown that governance of NSAs, in particular the formal and informal policies and regulations as well as the accountability mechanisms have significant implications for effective delivery of services especially ensuring that men/boys and women/girls needs, interest, concerns and priorities are addressed.

The emerging findings have a number of policy implications for addressing gender and vulnerability to poverty in Uganda. Firstly, the roles of NSAs are critical not only in complementing the State in the provision of SP but also addressing concerns that the latter has not targeted at all. Common household level vulnerabilities such as shock due to critical illness, bereavement and loss of a critical asset (land, bicycle, cattle etc.) are not in the domain of the state interventions and yet they are significant one-off events that tend to set a given household on a trajectory to continued poverty. Besides, their impacts have significant gender dimensions especially with widows, girl-children and orphans who become even more vulnerable to communities including own relatives. Protecting the rights to life and property for such groups was exclusively targeted by a number of NSAs and no other actor.

Secondly, governance in terms of simplified policies and accountability to direct beneficiaries and entire communities was more visible with lower level NSAs. Every member seemed to be aware of all the key parameters such as membership criteria, administrative structures and roles of leaders, objectives of the organization, and mode of operation to realize the set objectives. Members were also more involved in monitoring progress and results. Higher level NSAs especially those formed at international and national levels were more inclined to upward accountability to supervisors and/or financiers. This category of NSAs also seemed to be more focused on implementing rollout programs designed with little or no regard to local conditions. Communities did not know about selection of beneficiaries and nature of interventions or how the involvement of the NSA was supposed to address given vulnerabilities over time. Common and unique gender aspects such as those related to culture were not considered beyond generalities of numbers in terms of men, women and children. Accordingly, the impact, though appreciated by the local communities as critical, could have been more beneficial and possibly cost-effective if the NSA had involved communities more into identification of how best to design strategies for meeting the needs.

Thirdly a policy framework requiring NSAs coming to work in a given area to effectively engage local communities in identification of needs and strategies should be encouraged. Even the international level NSAs with global designs should be encouraged to share with communities how and what they intend to do so as to accommodate local conditions and vulnerabilities. For example, they could use local governance committees involving selected members of communities to monitor progress and utilization of resources towards set objectives. Apart from knowing that the interventions eased their plight on a given specific vulnerability of cause of poverty, most beneficiaries lacked knowledge of the anticipated long-term strategies and impacts. Most NSAs address a given aspect, which is a small part of the entire livelihood strategies for a given household or community. Accordingly, if the intervention is to give more impact in terms of empowering households to shift to more beneficial strategies, knowledge of how the individual parts (given intervention) fits into the whole (both short- and long-term) would increase impacts on the communities.

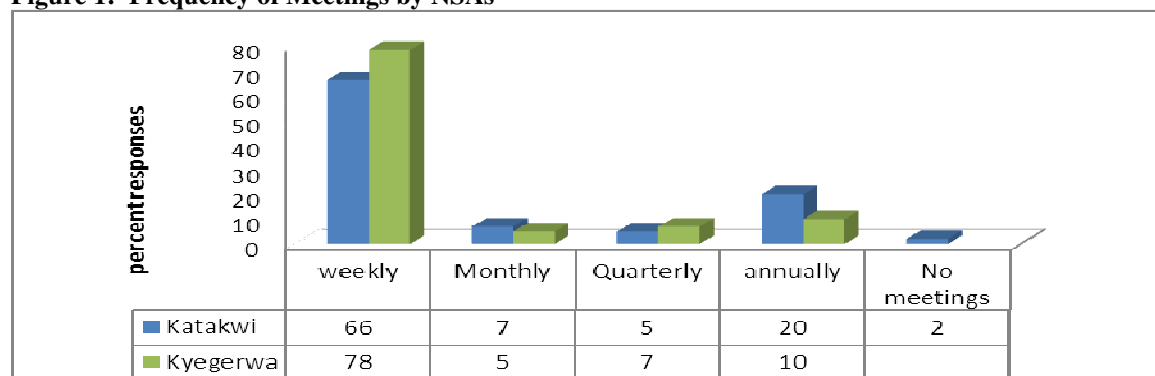
It is recommended that broader discussions be held initially with communities to expound on aspects beyond the individual NSA's area of focus or specialty. Such an approach involving more transparency in policy, design of intervention and accountability on results by the NSAs would result into more impacts and benefits to communities who would tailor their general efforts to a more integrated approach of uplifting their entire livelihood strategies. Gender should be integral in the policy and programme design as well as in accountability mechanisms of NSA SP interventions. NSAs should be encourage to undertake gender focused assessment to inform their interventions and well as conduct gender training for their staff to strengthen their human resource capacity to enable them act more effectively and efficiently.

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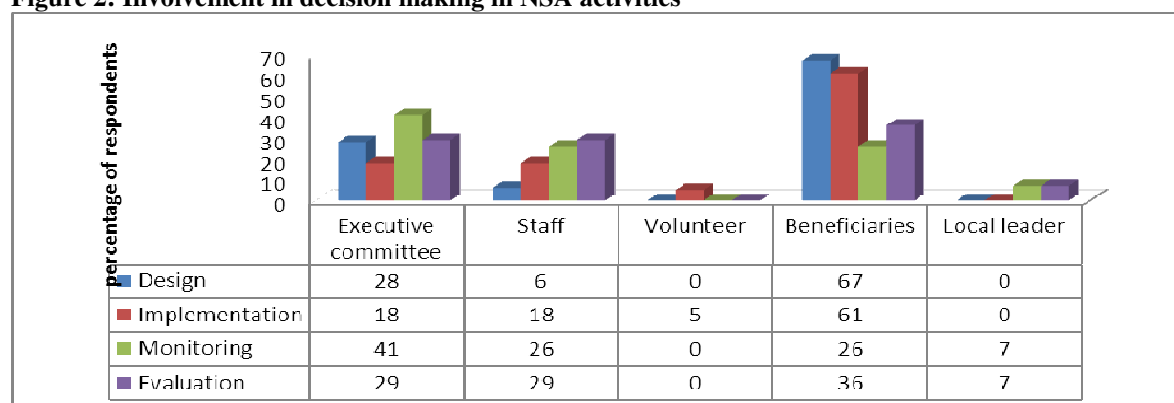
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Figure 1: Frequency of Meetings by NSAs



Source: Field data, Katakwi and Kyegegwa district 2013

Figure 2: Involvement in decision making in NSA activities



Source: Field findings – Katakwi and Kyegegwa districts

Table 1: Beneficiaries' needs in the study districts

Beneficiaries needs	Katakwi		Kyegegwa		Total	
	Male %	Female %	Male %	Female %	Male %	Female %
Education, school fees	48.4	75.0	63.6	45.2	56.3	61.1
Food	64.5	77.1	36.4	26.2	50.0	53.3
HH necessities	0.0	2.1	27.3	21.4	14.1	11.1
Clothing	61.3	45.8	42.4	28.6	51.6	37.8
Health care, treatment	71.0	60.4	45.5	47.6	57.8	54.4
Water	35.5	22.9	15.2	11.9	25.0	17.8
Building	3.2	4.2	18.2	14.3	10.9	8.9
Improving agriculture	41.9	29.2	9.1	11.9	25.0	21.1
Life skills trainings e.g. brick laying, tailoring	3.2	2.1	0.0	2.4	1.6	2.2
Animal farming	29.0	27.1	12.1	7.1	20.3	17.8
Shelter and beddings	41.9	39.6	30.3	19.0	35.9	30.0
Buying land	0.0	6.2	21.2	14.3	10.9	10.0
Others	22.6	29.2	21.2	31.0	21.9	30.0

Source: Field findings – Katakwi and Kyegegwa districts

Visionary Leadership for Management of Innovative Higher Education Institutions: Leadership Trajectories in a Changing Environment

Paul Mupa

Faculty of Arts and Education and Quality Assurance Unit, Zimbabwe Open University, PO box 1210,
Masvingo, Zimbabwe

Abstract

The study sought to explore the paths that leadership can take to come up with meet innovative changes in the higher education landscape. Most people look upon leadership in higher education to inject solutions to employment problems that are in society. It is through an innovative curriculum that such changes can take place. In such an environment, there is need for leadership with a vision. The kind of paths that leadership should follow to meet such changes is the object of this paper. The study was qualitative by nature and employed the case study design. Semi-structured interviews and open-ended questionnaires were used as the main data generation tools. A convenience sample of 10 lecturers and 27 students was made. The major findings of the study were that leadership requires skills to bring in curriculum change and innovation. Leadership should have the ability of creating an organisational work culture that makes every one think of ways of doing work in new ways. The need to encourage academic professional development was highlighted as a useful path to take by a visionary leader. Learning should comprise of programmes that meet both the formal and informal sector market. There is need for leadership support through motivational strategies, introduction of ICT and creating a conducive climate for innovation as useful paths.

Keywords: leadership trajectories; management; innovative programmes; change; visionary leadership; higher education institutions

1. Background

Leadership in higher education is considered as the pillar and bedrock for bringing about innovation in the institutions. Without effective leadership, all goes wild. It is the drive way through which institutions can take to reach greater heights. The trend in some countries is that leadership is appointed as a result of possession of a qualification. This paper argues that the possession of a higher qualification is not enough for one to be appointed as leader in the higher education arena. The argument advanced for this thinking is that for innovation to take place in higher education institutions there is need for a visionary leader who can see over and beyond. The kind of innovations that leadership has to initiate requires a level minded person who possesses skills to manage change and innovation (Rogers, 2003). Universities are now ranked in terms of their performance and this kind of thing leaves no room for blind leaders. Competition that has arisen in universities of attracting new students, the issue of effective policy implementation, quality assurance, curriculum change and innovation, the introduction of new programmes that are market driven, among others, are issues that have to be addressed to by visionary leadership. Emerging concerns like the decline of resources for use in institutions, the make shifts from traditional pedagogy to learner-centred pedagogy and the need for e-learning, call for leadership with a long sight (Eddy and VanDerLinden, 2006). The need for visionary leadership arises in such contexts.

Research dealing with visionary leadership in higher education seems to be scarce (Almog-Bareket, 2012) and this prompts the need to carry out this study. Society places high expectation on leadership because it is seen as central and essential in delivering the change, improvement and performance expected of all organisations (Dinham, 2007). Leadership should not be single focused. It should not only show concern with curriculum or lecturers in the university but should think of students and all of society and how to involve them in the institutions (Mazurkiewicz 2009, p. 30). When we talk of visionary leadership, we are concerned with the ease with which one can move an institution from stagnation to a massive innovative system of education. Leadership has to appeal to the hearts and minds of the students, lecturers, communities and stakeholders of the higher education sector. It has to marry theory with practice and no doubt, present a bright vision of the future, develop a plan for achieving goals set by the organisation and motivates the members in the institution to realise that vision.

The world is changing and blind leaders cannot make institutions survive. Higher education institutions face market competition due to its proliferation. It is no longer easy to get high student numbers without aggressive marketing. Such situations require leadership with a vision to navigate the dusty, bumpy and rough road. Universities have large numbers of both academic and support staff who need leadership guidance. Leadership needs craftiness in coming up with innovations and also institutionalising new ideas, creating teams and networks for collaborative work and involving stakeholders in enhancing change (Dinham, 2007).

It is important that leadership in higher education be based on a vision that brings together expectations from students, staff and stakeholders at large. There is need to develop a strong bond with these constituencies for innovation to take place. Leadership has to project into the future by coming up with a direction for followers and then communicate the vision. Followers need to be inspired to overcome the difficult times and hurdles they confront with in the organisation during performance of duties. Leadership has to nurture followers so that they can develop and gain skills that assist them to meaningfully contribute to organisational achievements (Bass et al., 1990). This scenario points to the need for leadership to remove stumps and blocks for followers to follow their paths easily. Visionary leadership clears the road for followers. For change to take place in the institutions of higher education leadership has to develop trust and commitment among followers (Covey, 2006).

It is argued that leadership with a vision should possess the ability to “foresee the future” (Ylimaki, 2006). Directions that are set should not clear road signs which take the travellers to the right destination. Employees enjoy working in an environment in which direction is clearly seen and priorities are set so that they can perform their work effectively and achieve the goals of the institution. Leadership has to foresee customer requirements, particularly the needs of the students and the kind of market driven programmes they require and then prepare students to meet the needs before hand. It is imperative that leadership possess foresight to foresee the future and make prudent decisions. To that end, the survival and growth of the higher education institutions largely depend upon leadership and its ability to predict the future or place emphasis on issues that matter (Nienaber, 2010). Leadership has to place greater emphasis on collaborative partnerships since they reduce the cost of introducing new technologies and also improve the quality of developing programmes (Jung, 2005, p. 4).

2. Statement of the problem

The higher education arena is faced with several challenges that require visionary leadership to tackle and come up with the needed changes and innovations. Student demands in terms of courses and programmes that meet market demands are some of the challenges. students are demanding quality teaching. Lecturers need staff development programmes in order meet the quality levels expected by the students. The world of work demands that products from universities be relevant to the needs of world of wok. There is high need of staff development of lecturers so as to improve their pedagogical skills. Very few studies have been carried out that relate to visionary leadership in higher education. This study fills the void.

3. The concept visionary leadership

Visionary leadership is related to the idea of being able to see. The ability to see the future gives the leadership in organisations strong background to meet the challenges and solve them without hassles (Senge, 2006). Visionary leadership boosts confidence among followers and inspires them to work beyond what they could have done without that inspiration (Berson et al., 2001). Nanus (1989) emphasizes the need for commitment and regards this as central for leadership to ignite innovation in higher education. Bennis (1989) argues that there is a close connection between vision and improvement in organisations.

Visionary leadership holds skills of motivating employees, creating long-term partnerships with other organisations or institutions, production of appropriate resources for use in the institution and no doubt, this enables the organisation to change over time. Visionary leadership presents a system of basic assumptions whereby leading values are translated into rituals, language, and symbols (Katz, 1999). Visionary leadership has the capability of describing an ideal state to followers and show the gap between the current state and the ideal state and this motivates people to work (Yoeli and Berkovich, 2010). Visionary leadership goes along with followers easily and finds it easy to influence them towards goal achievement. Such leaders are exemplary. This is in line with of the idea of Plato that knowing what to do and doing it are two different things (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978).

Visionary leadership is a dynamic, interactive phenomenon (Westley and Mintzberg, 1989, p. 18). Visionary leadership sees issues in context and the content of the vision varies. This seems to indicate that some leaders see more than others depending on the style of the leader (Westley and Mintzberg, 1989, p. 30).

4. Theoretical Framework: Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is the ability to motivate and to encourage intellectual stimulation through inspiration (Avolio et al., 2004). McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2005, p.116) further defined transformational leadership style as “guidance through individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence.” Rafferty and Griffin (2004) viewed vision as the main characteristic of transformational leaders. Vision and inspiration activate a transformation process within the follower (Scandura and Williams, 2004) that is, a relationship or sense of identification with the leader develops, which results in acceptance of the leader’s vision and values, and goal achievement becomes the norm (Gillespie and Mann, 2004; McColl-Kennedy and Anderson, 2005). Transformational leaders inspire followers to exert effort beyond

self-interest in favour of collective group accomplishment (Berson and Avolio, 2004). Parolini et al. (2009) concluded that transformational leaders are more likely to focus on the organisation's goals and to use charismatic methods of influence such as vision and inspiration. A visionary leader has the ability to tap potential from members inside and outside the organisation. Visions therefore can be made true through high levels of interaction, both formally and informally, with various stakeholders of the higher education arena.

5. Literature

It is argued that there is no more powerful engine driving an organisation towards excellence and long-range success than an attractive, worthwhile vision of the future, widely shared (Nanus, 1992, p. 3). Across the educational leadership literature (Bennis & Nanus, 1985), the term *vision* has had two primary definitions. It has been more generally defined in terms of a particular leader's ability to foresee a compelling image of an organisation and more specifically defined as goals or targets towards an improved future. A visionary leader should possess the ability to see the future. Today's educational leaders need to look beyond the mainstream definitions of *vision* (i.e., images and goals) to "drive educational organisations towards excellence and long-range success" (Nanus, 1992, p. 3).

There are ten characteristics of successful visionary leadership and these are: imaginative, experienced, intuitive and analytical; seeks excellence; oriented towards action; empowerer; calculating risk taker; independent; passion for achievement and workaholic; reward oriented; optimistic; powerful. A visionary leader has special skills in creating new marketplace positions and in transforming traditionally "stuck" organisations and reorienting them towards the implementation of a winning vision of how and where the organisation will compete. This is the leader who gains the commitment of his/her organisation's people to the achievement, in a more pragmatic rather than linear/sequential planned way, of the vision. She/he so clearly creates change through very personal leadership. The visionary, more clearly than any of the other leaders, creates an organisation which reflects his/her own personality, style and preferences. She/he is the leader who "wins hearts and minds" and charismatically takes the organisation into a new successful era. The process of visionary leadership involves the design of a desired future and the motivation of others in the organisation to share it and commit oneself to taking personal responsibility for its achievement (Nwankwo and Richardson, 1996).

6. Three types of leadership:

Conservative visionary leadership chooses to reject institutional demands and preserve the organisational status quo by either defying or giving an appearance of complying. Thus, this leadership pursues a classic vision that can cause the institution to lose its legitimacy (Taylor and De Lourdes Machado, 2006). Calculated visionary leadership chooses to accept institutional demands and attempts to excel at fulfilling them. Thus, this leadership attempts to be the best at what is considered environmentally legitimate (Davies and Glaister, 1996). Vigorous visionary leadership chooses to fight institutional demands either by negation or by manipulation. These leaders manage to balance institutionalised demands and achieve legitimacy and at the same time achieve a degree of freedom to experiment and innovate (Collins, 2001).

Visionary leadership recognises the social climate in which it lives and works, takes risks, and succeeds in transforming the vision into details (Chance, 1992). Visionary leadership provides bridges from the present to the future. It is important for leaders to be able to translate the vision into practice.

It is argued that many early leadership studies have conceptualised vision as a leader's mental image of an organisation's future that is significantly more appealing than the status quo. It was noted that "To choose a direction, a leader must first have developed a mental image of a possible and desirable future state of the organisation...a vision articulates a realistic, credible, attractive future for the organisation, a condition that is better in some important ways than what now exists" (Bennis, 1989, p. 89). A leader's vision provides a clear sense of where the organisation should try to go and what the organisation should try to do. Research on effective leaders suggests that leaders foresee and a compelling mental image of the institution's future and then empower key staff members to make his or her vision a reality (Westley and Mintzberg, 1989). Similarly, Rogus (1990) indicates that educational institutions with evidence of long-term change have talented visionary leaders who foresee a future ideal and motivate others to implement that vision. A leader with a vision is talented, has an image of the future and has immense power that is non-existent to a person who has a blind vision.

7. Research Methodology

This research was grounded in the qualitative paradigm. The use of a qualitative approach to research studies relies on the data production methods that are flexible and sensitive to the social context that such data is derived from, without losing any of the standardisation or structure, and on data analysis methods that presuppose the understanding of the complexity that is entailed onto the details (Patton, 1990). The study was qualitative by nature. The research employed the case study design.

7.1 Sampling procedure

Purposive sampling was employed to select information-rich cases to participate in the study. Patton (1990, p.169) argues that “the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information – rich cases for study in-depth”. This study focused on participants who had knowledge and lived experiences of higher education to include universities colleges and who were willing to take part in the investigation (Flick, Kardorff and Steinke, 2004). Lecturers in higher education institutions to include colleges and universities were sampled to participate in the research. A convenience sample of ten lecturers and twenty seven students was used to get the participants.

7.2 Instrumentation

The open-ended questionnaire was used as the main data gathering instrument. Open ended questionnaires gave respondents an opportunity to elaborate on issues asked (Cohen and Manion, 1994). Open-ended questions provide a response format that gives respondents the freedom to provide answers which they care to make. The researcher then has to make sense of all the responses given, construct appropriate categories and then code the categories so that the data can be analysed. Open-ended questions are the most important questions on the survey by offering important and unpredictable insights into human behaviour (Burton, 2000). It is suggested that open-ended questions allow for more detailed expression of respondents’ views (Sander & Stevenson, 1999; Fung & Carr, 2000) and that qualitative information on the respondents is far more helpful than aggregated statistical data.

7.2.1 Semi-structured interviews

The researchers also employed the semi-structured interviews as the other tool for data generation. Participants were booked and they were interviewed at different times. The mobile phones were used to record the data generated.

8. Findings and discussion

Practicing leadership for Sustainable Development

Participants were of the opinion that visionary leaders need to practice the concept of sustainable development to meet the changes in higher education. They had this to say:

P1: There is need for leadership in higher education to uphold the idea of sustainable development in order to make education meaningful to societies they serve.

P2: Everyone is worried about the future and it is through sustainable development issues that societies can survive.

P3: Higher education is the bedrock upon which sustainable development can ignite and this has to done through visionary leadership

Education for sustainable development has come to be seen as a process of learning how to make decisions that consider the long-term future [...] This represents a new vision of education, a vision that helps people of all ages better understand the world in which they live, addressing the complexity and interconnectedness of problems [...] The vision of education emphasises a holistic, interdisciplinary approach to developing the knowledge and skills needed for a sustainable future as well as changes in values, behaviour, and lifestyles (UNESCO, 2003, p. 4).

Taking account of emerging needs the modern world sets like e-learning

Participants were of the opinion that higher education institutions have to provide e-learning facilities. They had this to say:

P1: E-learning should not be considered as a supplementary mode of education but a main form of higher education provision mode of learning especially at graduate level.

P2: The idea that e-learning is flexible in terms of geographical access and in terms of its scheduling makes it mandatory for visionary leaders to consider its use.

P3: The goal of education for all has to be met even by higher education institutions and this can be the path to achieving that goal.

P4: E-learning makes use of various styles and meets the overall expansion of educational access to people in remote communities. It has to be looked at by institutions as an economical way of expanding their services, widening opportunities for students around the world, and making effective use of the emerging technologies.

P5: In fact, it is ideal that institutions integrate e-learning components in their services.

P6: Through e-learning students can access knowledge outside classroom boundaries and this is a challenge visionary leaders in higher education must meet.

In the field of education, ICT use has been found to correlate positively not just to literacy, but also to cognitive development and creativity in students (Tchombe et al as cited in Chin-Roemer, DeCrease and Gomez, 2011).

When teachers are provided with ICTs and are trained in their use, they quickly transfer those skills to their students (Salinas and Sanchez, 2009). Similarly, librarians with proper ICT training are often viewed as gatekeepers of knowledge to their patrons and in their communities (Omekwu, 2006).

Focusing on market-driven ICT-related curriculum

Participants raised the need for focusing on an ICT related curriculum. They had this to say:

P1: We need an ICT based curriculum in order to meet the globalised world needs

P2: Leadership has to appreciate the fact that ICT training is a fast-changing area in any society, higher education institutions need to continuously update and customize their curriculum based on skill needs of commerce and industry.

P3: Considering the fact that most students are adults and seeking knowledge and skills applicable to their life, the case of need-based curriculum development and revision offers useful insights to institutions.

P4: ICT is the in-thing today and a curriculum that lacks it is devoid of reality

It is argued that one of the main objectives of higher education is to open widespread opportunities for current and prospective employees, through a relevant curriculum, whether employed or returning to work, to acquire, increase or update their skills and knowledge during the course of their working lives (Tome, 2011).

Developing collaborations and partnerships

Participants had this to say:

P1: Leadership with eyes has to develop collaborative partnerships with other institutions.

P2: Collaborative partnerships are important for higher education providers in that they reduce the cost of introducing new technologies and also improve the quality of developing programmes.

P3: By forming appropriate partnerships with other institutions, universities can secure external content experts and teaching support.

P4: Partnerships with professional organisations may help create quality programmes, recruit students and build capacity for quality practices.

Finding creative ways to share resources and expertise is the key issue in forming partnerships with other organisations. Partnerships at university level have been seen to be useful world-wide (Smith, 2008).

Making collaborative decisions about the future

Participants aired the following sentiments:

P1: Innovative management requires collaborative decision making.

P2: Decision making for the future has to be done collaboratively so that changes would be met without shock.

Effective visionary leaders should focus on the relationship among individuals within a university and the promotion of pedagogical leadership which places an emphasis on the development of the institution through shared purpose and the development of this (Day and Harris, 2002). This shows that higher education systems visionary leadership for collaborative decision making.

Developing viable implementation structures in the institutions of higher education

P1: Communication is the lifeblood of any institution. It has to be facilitated in order to share the vision with other members in the institution.

P2: It is also ideal to come up with structures in organisations that work towards innovation and implementation of new ideas.

P3: Procedures in organisations should not be so complicated to implement changes that are coming in from the internal and external world.

It is argued that sustainability of innovation occurs through creating a sense of community and ownership, by changing the existing culture, by enhancing and closing feedback loops, and by recognising the actions of one's peers through a public reward system. The role of leadership in adopting innovations in organisations, the openness in both vertical and horizontal communication and establishing a wide network with individuals and institutions outside, appear to be crucial in sustaining educational innovations (Holtzman, 2014); Smith, 2006).

Improving and developing technical capabilities of staff

The participants' concerns seem to engrave professional development at the centre stage of all learning in higher education institutions. Participants had this to say:

P1: Higher education leaders who are visionary should ensure that staff members receive enough professional development in order to function effectively in their areas.

P2: There is need to ensure that lecturers or tutors are given the tricks of the field.

P3: The issue is not about possessing the relevant qualifications for one to be an effective lecturer or tutor but it also involves having knowledge about the mechanics of the field.

Professional development consists of reflective activity designed to improve an individual's attributes, knowledge, understanding and skills. It supports individual needs and improves professional practice. Good leaders change organisations; great leaders change people. People are at the heart of any organisation and it is only through changing people, nurturing and challenging them, helping them grow and develop, creating a

culture in which they all learn, that an organisation can flourish. Professional development refers to an up-front training for all individuals involved and accessible opportunities to learn new skills as well as to unlearn beliefs about students or instruction that have dominated their professional careers. Higher education practitioners need training in pedagogy in order to be effective (Seezink and Poell, 2010).

Improving teaching and learning practices

Participants had this to say:

P1: There is need for leadership with a vision to reflect on what is happening in their institutions as regards teaching and learning practices.

P2: The process of managing change and innovation demands that.

P3: Reflection is important in ensuring that students are motivated to learn and see value in the learning process.

Learners are motivated by success, volition, value, and enjoyment (Knowles et al. 1998). For students in higher education, relevancy adds value to learning, and intrinsic motivation based on success, value, and enjoyment are significant motivating factors. Students are motivated to learn if learning opportunities are efficient and yield mastery of skills and increases in knowledge that can be applied immediately to the work of teaching (Merriam et al. 2007; Zepeda, 2008).

Providing students with best conditions for learning

Participants had this to say:

P1: Students need best conditions for effective learning and it is the role of the visionary leader to provide such conditions.

P2: Student Services and tutoring/teaching need to be revamped for quality service delivery.

P3: Typical forms of student services in recent years include face-to-face and/or online tutoring and counseling, telephone or email services, digital libraries, and mentoring.

P4: With the development of ICT, higher education institutions are able to offer individualised and interactive student services faster and easier than ever.

P5: Cases of comprehensive student services and integration of online technology in tutoring and assessment of services have to be provided.

P6: Best conditions of learning should be created and this includes equipping lecturers and tutors with requisite instructional methods. These people need knowledge of how to sequence matter and of how to come up with instructional objectives that meet the demands of the society at large.

P7: The library should be equipped with useful books. These are the kind of things that make learning effective in higher education.

The library is considered as the heart of student learning in the education system. In the knowledge factory, students want to gain knowledge through reading various texts and universities should provide viable libraries in order to make their students information rich. It is argued that visionary leadership needs to provide pedagogic leadership within their own and in other organisations driving forward improvements and raising standards in teaching and learning (DCFS, 2009a:19).

Develop craft literacy and craft competency among staff

The issue of staff development was dominant among the responses given. Participants highlighted that:

P1: The need for leadership to develop craft literacy and craft competency among lecturers and tutors and other staff members in order to improve quality service delivery is a cornerstone for visionary leadership.

P2: Since the quality of student support services is heavily dependent upon the lecturers and tutors' performance, higher education institutions should operate in a rather unique system which can come up with new ideas. Such people have to be able to implement policies effectively.

The use of mobile technologies

Participants felt that:

P1: Visionary leadership in higher education institutions should have eyes to introduce mobile technologies in their operations. As the need for mobility is growing and mobile technologies are rapidly becoming prevalent in education, institutions should consider integrating mobile technologies in content presentation, interactions, assessment and measurement, and support services.

P2: This can cater for students in the block release and ODL programmes. The pressure remains on libraries to reach learners in ways familiar to learners, especially mobile phones.

It is argued that libraries need to be on the move taking digital access to individuals, anywhere and anytime (Barker, 2010).

Making the institution a learning organisation where everyone is a learner

Participants echoed the need to make higher education institutions learning organizations. They had this to say:

P1: Visionary leadership has to make institutions of higher education learning organisations. Learning does not end and people have to continually learn. They should never come a time when members in the institution get contented that they now know and relax.

P2: Brain is like a slate which rotates and it has to be sharpened all the time.

P3: One of the mandates of universities is to carry out research and it is through that kind of activity that lecturers get sharpened.

9. Conclusions and Recommendations

This study concludes that for visionary leadership in higher education to play its part, effective management of innovative programmes has to be done. Leadership needs eyes to realise the need for quality assurance processes in all aspects of the organisation. There is need for learner-centred practices so as to increase interactivity between the learner and the content. Leadership should focus on market driven curricula and develop collaborative partnerships so as to meet globalisation demands. For staff to be effective and manage to engage in innovations there is need for professional development and training. Leadership has to engage in reflective behaviour so as to evaluate the services provided and see whether they are meeting customer requirements. This study therefore recommends academic professional development in higher education systems in order to meet and manage the innovations. The study further recommends the need for instituting quality systems that assist leadership with eyes to see the areas that need continuous improvement in their systems in order to manage innovations easily.

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A Model of Empowerment for the ATBM Weaving Micro-Business through Design Development

Mulyanto

Lecturer of the Study Program of Art Education,
Teacher Training and Education Faculty, Sebelas Maret University
Jl. Ir. Sutami 36A, Surakarta, Indonesia 57126

Abstract

The objective of this research is to formulate a model of empowerment of Yu Siti manual weaving machine (ATBM = *alat tenun bukan mesin*) micro business in Burikan village, Klaten regency, Indonesia. This action research used 10 subject participants chosen purposively. The data of the research were collected by means of in-depth interview, participatory observation, and focus group discussion. The data were analyzed by using interactive model of analysis. The empowerment model developed for the Yu Siti manual weaving machine micro business consists of three phases, namely: (1) conducting needs analysis to identify the problems and real needs of the business unit; (2) arranging action plans to solve the problems by conducting a comparative study, production process training, and capital support; and (3) implementing the program plans, including motivating the entrepreneurs and workers, developing “*lurik*” motif designs, and growing the capacity of the *sekir* operator, engineering the weaving tools, diversifying the weaving motifs and techniques, granting capital support, developing promotional media, and applying work contract.

Keywords: Empowerment, micro-business, ATBM weaving, development, and design.

A. INTRODUCTION

According to Law of the Republic of Indonesia, Number: 20 of 2008, micro business is a business unit whose net asset is maximally Rp50 million, excluding the land and building for the business site, or a business unit whose annual sale result ranges from Rp300 million to Rp2.5 billion.

Weaving is a fabric production through a simple way by weaving warp yarns and filler (*pakan*) yarns by crisscrossing them at 90° (Gillow and Sentance, 1999; Gunadi, 1985; Jumaeri, 1984). ATBM weaving is a weaving craft whose production process is done manually (by using non-machinical weaving machiner). Some of the weaving craft centers reside in Klaten, Central Java. That is, in Burikan, Tulas, Karangmlése, Juwiran, and Jobotan villages. Based on business scale, most of the ATBM weaving industries belong to the micro-scale industries. Based on their motifs, nearly all of the weaving fabrics produced have traditional *lurik* motifs. According to their product utility, the *lurik* weaving fabrics produced are used as carrying shawl (for the dimension of 70 cm x 250 cm), serviette (for the dimension of 60 cm x 60 cm), sarong (for the dimension of 2 x 60 cm x 220 cm), as garment (for the dimension of 110 cm x 20 cm or 70 cm x 300 cm), and other household accessories.

The weaving businessmen or entrepreneurs generally have a low educational background, that is, primary school leavers, and are more than 40 years old. They by and large inherit the business from their parents. Most of their employees (90%) are females. They are more than 40 years old, poor, and are a primary school leavers only. Even some of them are illiterate. Despite their limitedness and low-value products that they produce, they can still run their production activities up to the present time.

The youths around the ATBM weaving craft centers in Klaten are generally less interested in managing such a business. Female youths tend to choose work at medium- and large-scale industries in the city although the wages that they earn are lower than the wages of weaving craftsmen. They think that working at the medium- and large scale industries is more respectable than working at the ATBM weaving micro-scale business units at home. In addition, male youths tend to choose work out of their villages or working in other cities. However, the social and cultural condition of the community around the weaving craft centers in Klaten are conducive. They are cooperative, farmers and traditional in nature. Based on the internal conditions of the micro-weaving business units, the social and cultural conditions of the local community and the environmental conditions, this research is aimed at formulating an empowerment model for ATBM weaving micro-scale business units through design development.

The empowerment of micro-scale weaving business units or weaving craftsmen is defined as an effort to improve life quality, the prosperities of the businessmen and their employees, such as the improvement their economy, social prosperity, education, health, freedom, and security (Mardikanto, 2010). It is an educational activity to convey the truths that have been believed. The empowerment must grow independent, but must not create dependence. The empowerment through design development means that the ATBM weaving design is planned, which includes the aspects of raw materials, processes, products, aesthetics, and functions. In the planning of product design such as weaving product, Prasetyawibowo (1998) and Rizali (1986) claim that it must

consider functional, technical, ergonomic, economic, environmental, social, cultural, and artistic aspects.

B. RESEARCH METHOD

This research was conducted at the ATBM weaving micro-business unit of YS in Burikan village, Cawas sub-district, Klaten regency, Central Java, Indonesia for two years (from 2010 to 2011). This business unit is regarded to be able to reflect the conditions of ATBM weaving micro-business units in Klaten regency, which have many weaknesses, but can survive until now. The location of the business unit is in a remote village. It is in a mountainous area, has no telephone lines, and is not on public transportation write so that the area is difficult to reach.

This research used qualitative study and action research. The researcher was involved directly in the process of the ATBM weaving design development and production process. In addition, the researcher was involved as a facilitator or an agent of change (Rogers, 1983) who is responsible to influence the decision-making process done by benefit recipients (businessmen and employees) in adopting innovation. The researcher as a facilitator has four qualifications, namely: communication ability, attitude, knowledge ability, and social and cultural characteristics (Berlo, 1961: Abidin and Ismail, 2011).

The subjects and samples of the research were determined by purposive and time sampling techniques. The data of the research were obtained from 10 persons, namely: the entrepreneurs (the mother, her child, and husband), a *sekir* artisan, 2 yarn dyeing workers, and 4 weavers. Furthermore, the data were also obtained from the production process sites and activities (Sutopo, 2002). The data were gathered through in-depth interview, (Bodgdan and Biklen, 1982), actively participatory observation (Spradley, 1980) and focus discussion group (Greenbaum, 1988). They were validated by using source triangulation, technique triangulation, peer debriefing, and review of key informants. The data were then analyzed by using the interactive model of analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1984).

C. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

C.1. Condition of the ATBM weaving micro-business unit prior to action

Since the beginning of 2010, the ATBM weaving micro-business unit has two buildings occupying which a total area of 150m². The first building is the residence for the family, it is also used for the production process (*sekir* process, yarn rolling process) and for storing the raw materials and products. The second building with dirt floor and woven bamboo wall is used for weaving process. This room accommodates 10 looms. The ATBM owned by the entrepreneurs includes 1 yarn rolling process tool, 3 palettes, 3 plastic pails, and one drum for boiling the yarns.

The micro-business unit of Yusiti is owned and managed by Siti Lestari who was born in 1974 in the same village. She has only primary school education. Her husband is a Junior Secondary School teacher. The business unit has 13 employees, 3 males and 10 females. The former are employed to do yarn dyeing, product packaging, and product marketing. Of the latter, one works as a *sekir* artisan, 2 as yarn rolling workers (thus are 70 years old), and 7 weavers. Most of them only hold Primary School certificate, and even some are illiterate. Viewed from the innovation adoption levels as claimed by Rogers (1971), which include 5 levels, namely: innovators (risk takers), early adopters (hedgers), early majority (waiters), late majority (skeptics), and late adopters (slowpokes), most of the workers can be classified as late adopters (slowpokes) except the *sekir* artisan whose innovation adoption can be categorized a higher one, that is, early adopters.

The raw materials to make woven fabrics are yarns, and dyeing substances. The materials used as warp yarns and *pakan* yarns are mercerized yarns, with the size of 40/2, so that the woven fabrics produced are quite thick. The dyeing substance used is *rhemazol* substance. The *lurik* design motifs produced are the ATBM woven fabrics with traditional *lurik* motifs, dominantly using black, brown, red, green, and blue colors. The production level of the micro-business unit of YS is 12 warp beams and 1 beam approximately consists of 80 meters. The sale value of woven fabrics with 105 – 110 cm width is Rp 24,000,- per meter. Therefore, the average income of the entrepreneur is approximately Rp 23,034,000,- per month or Rp276,480,000,- per year. Based on its average annual revenue, the business unit of YS is classified as a micro-scale business unit (Republic Indonesia, 2008).

The ATBM weaving micro-business unit resides in a remote village. Its surrounding environment is mostly rice fields and mountains. There are no any telephone lines yet and the communications with cellular phones are obstructed due to the bad signals. The social-cultural environment of the ATBM weaving unit is traditional agrarian society (Weber in Sztompka, 2004). When the paddy season comes, (paddy planting, harvest season, post-harvest seasons), the weavers leave their jobs. In addition, they also leave their jobs when there are social mutual assistance activities particularly wedding parties (Koentjaraningrat, 1984). According to Mulder, (1973), the personality of Javanese is social in nature. One is good when the society regards so. For example, when the *sekir* artisan (Semi) is absent from work, she is substituting her husband to join mutual assistance activities to build a village office.

C.2. A model for empowerment of the ATBM weaving micro-business unit

Based on the data analysis, the result of the research shows that the model for empowerment of the ATBM weaving micro-business unit through the design development consists of the following phases. The first phase is conducting need analysis; the second phase is arranging the program plan, and the third phase is implementing the program.

C.2.a. Need analysis

The need analysis phase is used to identify the existing problems and real needs. The former are discovered through direct observation and focus group discussion (FGD) between the researcher, the entrepreneur, and the employees. There are four problems identified in the research, namely: (1) the production process is less efficient, (2) the motifs and patterns of the woven fabrics produced are still monotonous, (3) the working capital owned by the entrepreneur is inadequate, and (4) the entrepreneur is less confident that the weaving business unit supports her family life. The low efficiency in the production process is caused by the less efficient tools, types of yarn materials, number of yarn materials, and production facilities. The woven fabrics produced have monotonous motifs and patterns as it only produces *lurik* fabrics, that is, the woven fabrics having a combination of vertical lines. The entrepreneur is less courageous to conduct experiments to create new motifs and patterns, which go out of the tradition. The third problem is that the entrepreneur is less confident about her business growth and development. She is worried that her business will be unable to compete with other business units which produce woven fabrics with mechanical weaving machines (ATM). The fourth problem is related to the working capital. The entrepreneur does not have adequate working capital. The capital required to purchase raw materials and to pay for production cost of each beam of yarns (fabric with the size of 110 cm x 8.000 cm) is approximately Rp1,760,000,- (One million seven hundred and sixty thousand rupiahs). The real needs of the entrepreneur to run her business are (1) knowledge of ATBM weaving processes such as varieties of developments of ATBM weaving motifs, selection of weaving yarn types, selection of dyes and their applications, dyeing process, *sekir* process (yarn rolling process), and weaving process, (2) adequate working capital, and (3) the employees work motivation.

C.2.b. The arrangement of problem-solving plan

The first three-problems aforementioned, namely: less efficient production process, monotonous motifs and patterns of the woven fabrics produced, and less confidence that the weaving business unit can support her family life, are solved by conducting a comparative study to other successful ATBM weaving industries in Troso village, Jepara regency. The objective of the research is to learn the weaving design development comprehensively, which includes production planning, fabric motif planning, yarn dyeing process, weaving process, weaving tools, products of weaving motifs and patterns, wage system, and marketing system. Based on the result of the comparative study, weaving tool manipulation and design development training are planned to be done so that the production process is more efficient. In addition, the problem of the low confidence of the entrepreneur and employees is solved by giving motivation through FGD. The limitedness of working capital is planned to be solved by conducting working capital assistance. This can be done through order and consignment system, revenue sharing system, and concessional interest loan system. The three systems are implemented according to the need and development of financial capability of the business unit.

C.2.c. The implementation of problem-solving action of the business unit

The problem-solving phase of the business unit at the action level includes the following actions: (1) improving the motivation of the entrepreneur and employees; (2) developing the *lurik* motif designs in accordance with the tastes of the consumers by using filler (*pakan*) yarns having larger size than that of *lusi* yarns; (3) developing creative process of the *sekir* artisan; (4) providing working capital aids; (5) manipulating the weaving tools; (6) diversifying the motifs and weaving techniques by establishing cooperation with partners; (7) developing the promotional media; and (7) applying the work contract system between the entrepreneur and the weavers.

Activity 1: The improvement of the motivation of the entrepreneur and employees is done through a comparative study and FGD. The site for the comparative study was an advanced ATBM weaving business unit, that is, Lestari business unit in Troso village, Jepara regency. The participants of the comparative study were the entrepreneur, her husband as the weaving tool technician, the *sekir* artisan, one of the marketing staffs, and the facilitator or the researcher. The comparative study lasted for two days at the aforementioned ATBM weaving business unit. The results of the comparative study are as follows: 1) The participants get familiar with varieties of weaving yarns and their application. The size of *pakan* yarns is larger than that of the *lusi* yarns. This difference accelerates the weaving process, and reduces the production cost. 2) The dye mixture is added with kitchen salt, to cut the production cost, but the result of the dyeing easily fades. 3) The participants, particularly the entrepreneur, are surprised with the fact that the weavers at the business unit in Troso are dominantly young males. It is very different from the one in the business unit of the entrepreneur, who an entirely females. 4) The

motifs of the woven fabrics produced by the weaving business unit in Troso village are varied. One of the motifs, which draw the interest of the participants of the comparative study, was the technology to produce twist motifs among the *lurik* motifs. The impact of the comparative study is that the participants are very much motivated to develop.

Activity 2: The *lurik* motif design development is adjusted to the taste of consumers by using the *pakan* yarns, which are bigger than *lusi* yarns. The process of design development actually is the empowerment of human resources, the entrepreneurs and employees. According to Maxell (2005), the empowerment of human resources has three aspects, namely: providing good information, improving skills into a better state, and delegating authority to the employees non-managerially. In addition, the empowerment must satisfy the employees. The development of the creative process in the ATBM weaving designs can be done through four Ps, namely: person, process, product, and press (Kaufman, 2007). In the development of the ATBM weaving designs, the personal uniqueness of the individuals (the entrepreneur and the employees) needs to be appreciated. The entrepreneur and the *sekir* artisan need to have discussions to determine the weaving design concepts to be developed and the production cost for each beam of yarn. Based on the concepts discussed, the researcher as facilitator develops *lurik* weaving motifs on A4 paper, which are predicted to fulfill the taste of markets (Friences, 2011), and which comply with the culture of the community (Prasetyowibowo, 1998 and Bahari, 2006).

The development of the ATBM weaving motifs was done by the aid of computer media. It was to accelerate the design process so as to improve the business (Li, et.al, 2009). The entrepreneur and the *sekir* artisan were encouraged to be creative and were given independence (Rogers in Munandar, 2009) to choose one or two *lurik* design motifs of the motifs offered by the facilitators, which were supposed to be able to be realized by the *sekir* artisan and to be accepted by the market.

Based on the comparative study, to accelerate the weaving process the size of the *pakan* yarns is larger than that of the *lusi* yarns. Therefore, in the yarn dyeing process the comparison between the number of the *lusi* yarns and that of the *pakan* yarns in each beam of yarns must be dyed according to the proportion of colors in motif designs. After the yarns were dyed, they were rolled on spools. Then the *sekir* artisan composed them on the *sekir* tools according to the selected motif designs. This *sekir* process was the main phase of the development of the ATBM *lurik* weaving motif designs. When the *sekir* process was completed, the yarns were moved to the warp beams. Next, the beams were fitted to the weaving tools or looms (*tutstel*), and the *lusi* yarns were entered into yarn combs. Finally palette yarns were attached to the cocoon for weaving process.

Activity 3: The third activity was to improve the creative process of the *sekir* artisan and weavers. The development of the ATBM weaving product designs lies on the *sekir* process conducted by the *sekir* artisan. *Sekir* process is the process to arrange the *lusi* yarns (the yarns that extend) based on the color compositions. In the weaving motif plan, the larger the number of the colors was and the more complicated the color composition was, the more complicated the arrangement of the yarns or the *sekir* process would be. To grow and improve the creativity level of the *sekir* artisan, the training on composing colors was conducted. In addition, the *sekir* artisan was also trained to understand the correlation between the ATBM weaving motifs and the backgrounds of their consumers or users. The trainee was given psychological independence and security (Rogers in Minandar, 2009), which means that the *sekir* artisan was granted autonomy to develop the motifs according to her creativities, and the results of her creativity should not be criticized, which could block her creativities.

Activity 4: The fourth activity was the provision of working capital. In the development of the ATBM *lurik* weaving motif designs, each motif design or one beam of yarns required the capital of approximately Rp1,800,000 (One million and eight hundred thousand rupiahs). Due to such a big initial capital, the entrepreneur did not dare to take risks. She was worried if the new motif weaving products would not sell as expected. It was understandable as they usually only produced *lurik* motifs which were already acceptable to consumers or markets. To develop such *lurik* motif designs, the entrepreneur required working capital assistance with the revenue sharing system. In relation to the development of the new weaving motif designs in this system, all of the production cost (Rp1,800,000) was borne by the facilitator. When the new design products were not sold out, the entrepreneur would not bear any loss. Conversely, when the new weaving motif products were sold out, the profits were shared by the entrepreneur and the facilitator. Each part earned 50%. Furthermore, the initial capital and profits were used to produce the next new *lurik* weaving motif products or the ones ordered by consumers. This model of working capital assistance scheme was applied for one year based on the need of the entrepreneur.

After the entrepreneur felt that the new weaving motif designs were accepted by the consumers, the entrepreneur decided to use her own capital so that the profits earned were larger. Based on such a condition, the entrepreneur then decided to have working capital with "soft loan" model. In this model, the entrepreneur was given loan with a fixed interest of 1% per month. The principle loan and its interest of 1% per month were paid in monthly installment for ten months. The first installment was given the grace period of 2 months. It was thought more than enough to give opportunity to the entrepreneur to conduct the production process and

marketing. This soft loan used a collateral system. The application of the interest and collateral system was merely to educate the entrepreneur to have sense of responsibility, that is that the entrepreneur was empowered and confident to stand independently and able to deal with her capital limitedness as well as able to fulfill the consumers' demand on the weaving motifs.

Activity 5: Manipulating the looms. The small looms sized 80 cm were only able to produce woven fabrics as wide as 70 cm. The package of one piece of woven fabric required for clothing was 70 cm in width and 300 cm in length, or 110 cm in width and 200 cm in length. Both sizes had the same selling value, that is, Rp50,000 (Fifty thousand rupiahs). However, the two sizes required different length of time to produce each. The former required longer time than the latter. Thus the looms used to produce fabrics projected for clothing were less efficient. They were effective and efficient to produce fabrics projected for carrying shawls, serviettes, and others that use such dimensions. Viewed from economic aspects the aforesaid products had a very low economic value. Their weaving motifs were monotonous, and their consumers were relative. The consumers were traditional herbalists (*Jamu* vendors) or villagers with low economic class. Therefore, some of the small looms were manipulated to be larger ones with the size of 120 cm, and to produce fabrics as wide as 110 cm. This manipulation aimed at creating efficiency in the weaving process, which in turn improved the income of the weavers. Furthermore, the manipulated looms could still produce fabrics with the width of 70 cm in addition to those with the width of 110 cm. Thus, the manipulation of the looms was closely related to innovation, ability of workers, need of consumers, and capital (Chang et.al., 2012).

Activity 6: Diversification of weaving motifs and techniques was done through cooperation with partners. The luring weaving motif designs developed by the entrepreneurs were *tumpal* motifs, in which one of the fabric edges had a different motif. In addition, the entrepreneur also developed "drizzle" motifs, "hordes of ants out of their nest" motifs, and other motifs. The entrepreneur with her artistic experiences could determine her creative process, and during the creation, she was controlled by her aesthetic experiences (Sumardjo, 2000). The efforts of developing the *lurik* weaving motifs were developed not only to the *lurik* weaving motifs but also to those integrated with other motifs through other techniques. The development of designs conducted by the entrepreneur included the following: 1) The *lurik* weaving motifs were integrated with the batik motifs. It was done through stamping technique. The integration of the two different motifs was done collaboratively with partners, that is, batik entrepreneurs in Sragen regency about 60 km away from the weaving site. It was mediated by the facilitator. 2) The *lurik* weaving motifs were integrated with the flower motifs. This integration was done through painting technique. 3) The *lurik* weaving motifs were integrated with the flower motifs. It was done through embroidery technique.

Activity 7: The seventh activity was the development of promotional media. Due to the limited access of the weaving enterprise, that is, the location of the enterprise is difficult to be reached by consumers, promotional media were developed. The development included the business cards of the entrepreneur and enterprise, product catalogues, and product packaging. The three promotional media were designed with the same concept, that is, accentuating the *lurik* motifs dominated with red colors.

Activity 8: The eighth activity was the application of work contract. In the second year, following the expanding market regions and the increasing product demands, the entrepreneur had to recruit more weavers. To motivate the prospective weavers to have self-confidence that the weaving job could operate well and could increase their income sustainably, they were asked to discuss their real needs and problems that they encountered. There were two aspects that the prospective weavers had to understand, namely: (1) product inefficiency due to the small looms they used and ways to deal with it, and (2) two contract systems to improve their incomes, that is, contract work and plasma business contract.

In the first work contract system, the prospective weavers played the role of contract work labor whose income was determined by the length of the woven fabrics that they produced. For each meter of the ATBM woven fabrics that they produced, they were paid Rp3,000 (three thousand rupiahs). When a prospective weaver produced eight meters of woven fabrics in a day, she earned Rp24,000 (Twenty four thousand rupiahs). In this contract system, the weavers did not bear any risks. They were not responsible for the sale of the products, and they still received their wages whether or not the fabrics that they produced were sold out. The current income was better than the former one when they only produced serviettes (60 cm x 60 cm) or carrying shawls (60 cm x 250 cm) with the small looms, in when they only earned Rp8,000 – Rp10,000 per day.

In the second contract the prospective weavers played the role of "new entrepreneur or plasma", that is that the weavers had looms with the size of 110 cm (manipulated looms), but did not have initial capital. The capital (yarns) was provided by the plasma core, that is, the entrepreneurs or the micro business unit of Yusiti. The initial capital included 1 boom of *lusi* yarns whose motifs had been processed (*sekir*) based on the color compositions by the entrepreneurs and several palettes of filler yarns. The yarns required were 3 hanks of yarns with the amount of Rp1,520,000 (One million five hundred and twenty thousand rupiahs). When the yarns were woven into a fabric, the fabric was then sent to the entrepreneurs or the micro business unit of YS to be marketed. When the fabric was sold out, the revenue was used to pay for the initial capital (Rp1,520,000) and

Rp160,000 (Rp2,000 x 80 meters of fabric) for the entrepreneurs. The rest was given to the weaver as “her profit”. One beam of yarns requires 3 hanks of yarns. After having been processed, the fabric produced was approximately 80 m in length with the width of 110 cm. The price for each meter of the fabric was 25,000 and the price of 1 fabric beam was Rp2,000,000. Thus, the plasma weaver worked approximately 8 hours a day for 10 days, and got the income of Rp320,000 or Rp32,000 per day. With this system, it is found that the benefit that the weaver obtained was bigger compared to the one with the contract work system. The only weaknesses of this system were that the plasma weavers would only receive their benefits when the fabrics that they produced were sold out, and the profit the entrepreneur obtained depended on the price of fabrics in the market during the buying and selling transaction.

The profit that the entrepreneur (core plasma) enjoyed would be bigger if she was autonomous, that is that the yarn processing and weaving process were done independently. In this way, she could earn the profit of Rp240,000 (18%) for each warp beam. However, she would also bear risks if she got a larger volume of order and she could not fulfill the demand. In this way she had to be supported by the weavers. In the entrepreneur position as the plasma core, she only did the yarn processing. Meanwhile, the weaving process was done by plasma weavers. In this way she would only receive the profit of Rp160,000 for each warp beam, and the profit the weavers received would be more or less Rp320,000 (16%) for each warp beam. In the following table is presented the initial capital for yarn processing, the benefit of the plasma core (entrepreneur) and the plasma weavers.

Table 1:
 The processing cost for 1 beam of yarns

No	Types of Material	Entrepreneur	Plasma Weaver
1.	Price of 3 press of yarns@Rp300,000	Rp 900,000	Rp 900,000
2.	Price of dyeing substances 400g @90,000	Rp 360,000	Rp 360,000
3.	Dyeing cost of 3 press of yarns @Rp30,000	Rp 90,000	Rp 90,000
4.	Yarn spooling cost of 15kg@Rp4,000	Rp 60,000	Rp 60,000
5.	Palette cost of 15kg @4,000	Rp 60,000	Rp 60,000
6.	yarn rolling process cost of 15kg	Rp 50,000	Rp 50,000
7.	Weaving cost: 80 m x Rp3,000	Rp 240,000	Rp 0
8.	Total yarn processing cost (1-6)	-	Rp1,520,000
9.	Total production cost (1-7)	Rp1,760,000	-
10.	Revenue of product sale (80 m x Rp25,000)	Rp2,000,000	Rp2,000,000
11.	Profit of core entrepreneur: 80 m x Rp2,000	Rp 160,000	Rp 160,000
12.	Profit of autonomous entrepreneur (10 subtracted by 9)	Rp 240,000	-
13.	Profit of new entrepreneur (10 subtracted by 8 and 11)	-	Rp 320,000

C.3. Condition of the ATBM weaving micro-business unit following the treatment

Following the empowerment through study and treatment for two years, there have been several changes in the ATBM weaving micro-business unit. The changes are as follows: 1) The annual income of the business unit increases from Rp276 million to Rp750 million, which means that the status of the business unit improves from micro business unit to small-scale business unit. In addition, the wages that the workers earn also improve significantly. For example, the wages of the weavers increase from Rp10,000 per day to Rp24,000 per day. 2) The entrepreneur is able to identify her own problems and real needs, and possesses bargaining power against yarn suppliers and to determine price. 3) The entrepreneur is able to calculate the production cost and time for production of each beam of the *lurik* fabric so that she is more courageous to speculate to receive order. 4) The entrepreneur is more courageous to develop designs of the weaving motifs and to conduct motif and technique diversification. 5) The number of fabric products produced increases from 12 beams to 40 beams. Furthermore, the number of motif designs and quality also improves significantly. 6) The number of workers increases from 13 to 40, particularly those working as weavers. Moreover, the workers are more skillful in their own fields, and the *sekir* artisan even dares and is able to do innovations in the new *lurik* motif designs by utilizing the remaining yarns. 7) The cooperation network with partners also increases. The network has been established with batik industries, convection business units, bigger yarn suppliers, dyeing substance suppliers, marketing divisions, and governmental institutions.

D. CONCLUSION

Based on the aforementioned discussion, a conclusion can be drawn that the empowerment of the ATBM weaving micro-business unit for two years includes the improvement of annual sales from Rp276 million to Rp750 million, the improvement of wages of workers (weavers) from Rp10,000 to Rp24,000 per day, the entrepreneur’s courage to take decisions in developing the weaving motif designs, the increase of the number of workers, the improvement of production, and the improvement of business network.

The relevant model of empowerment of the ATBM weaving micro-business unit includes the following: 1) conducting need analysis; the entrepreneur is motivated to identify her own problems and real needs (2) planning programs to deal with the problems and needs; and (3) executing actions based on the stipulated plan through the following: (a) improving the work motivation of the entrepreneur and workers; (b) developing the *lurik* motif designs that meet the tastes of consumers by using the *pakan* yarns whose size is bigger than that of the *lusi* yarns; (c) growing the creativity process of *sekir* artisan; (d) providing working capital with the models of “revenue-sharing” or “soft loan” in compliance with the entrepreneur’s need; (e) manipulating the small looms to be bigger ones according to the needs; (f) integrating between the *lurik* weaving motifs and techniques and the other motifs and techniques through cooperation with other different business units; (g) developing the promotional media; and (h) applying the work contracts between the entrepreneur and the weavers through contract work system or plasma system based on the weavers’ need.

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