Management training needs for post-independent Namibia.

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MANAGEMENT TRAINING NEEDS FOR POST-INDEPENDENT NAMIBIA

By
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Sept. 15, 1988
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Introduction

This study focuses on issues of management training as Namibia prepares itself for independence. Its principal purposes are to identify relevant managerial skills needed by civil servants in order to function effectively in an independent Namibia, to assess the ability of existing training programs to develop such skills, and to recommend how to achieve a well-trained civil service when independence arrives.

These purposes require assessing training programs currently conducted by SWAPO and by the South African government in terms of anticipated needs for trained civil servants in post-independent Namibia. The paper analyses the extent to which existing programs, curricula, and educational institutions can meet the needs of post-independent Namibia and what additions may be required to assure a qualified civil service.

The analysis of management training needs is based on certain research assumptions. First, the ability to provide basic government functions will require Namibia to have a well-trained civil service at the time it gains independence or soon thereafter. The number of South African-trained and SWAPO-trained cadre will not be sufficient to compensate for the anticipated number of South African personnel who will leave Namibia at independence. Second, independent Namibia will need civil servants trained to serve Namibia as a
whole. They will need knowledge of national problems and language skills for communicating with officials in all parts of the country. Finally, independent Namibia will need civil servants trained in all areas of management with special knowledge in problems of development. These skills include basic knowledge of employee motivation, personnel management, interpersonal relations, financial management, supervision, negotiations, and bureaucratic politics.

In order to understand the importance of this subject, chapter one provides a background perspective on management training in developing countries. Problems of management training in developing countries emanate from the institutions empowered to undertake this task. The types of training methods, the curriculum design, the lack of research, and the separation of consulting from training in most Institutes of Public Administration have exacerbated developmental problems in developing countries.

Chapter two gives an historical overview of South Africa’s occupation of Namibia with particular emphasis on the regime’s introduction of the apartheid policy of bantustanization in the territory. This chapter also provides a picture of public administration in Namibia by depicting the existing government structures from the national level to the second tier governments. Chapters three and four examine management training efforts by SWAPO and the South African government to train civil servants.
These chapters identify existing educational training institutions in the country as well as those established by SWAPO outside Namibia. Since these chapters form the core of the study, they are followed by chapter five which evaluates the types of training programs offered by these institutions, the types of training methods used, and whether the curricula are designed to satisfy the identified management training needs.

After critically analyzing existing programs, the paper presents a management training scheme for overcoming existing deficiencies in trained administrators needed for an independent Namibia. Recommendations are made regarding the curriculum with relation to identified needs such as employee motivation, personnel management, interpersonal relations, financial management, supervision, negotiations, and understanding bureaucratic politics. Recommendations are also made regarding the adequacy of SWAPO and South African public administration training institutions for offering training in an independent Namibia.

The author obtained data for this research by visiting the United Nations Council for Namibia library in New York and the UCLA graduate research library. Some of the sources include articles and papers presented at African Studies Association Conferences, the Namibian (a weekly newspaper published in Namibia), and South African government documents. For various and obvious reasons, the author could
not conduct surveys or interviews inside Namibia.
Chapter One

Management Training in Developing Countries

Most countries in Africa have been independent for over twenty years now. Ever since these countries attained their independence, they have engaged in management training. This is due to the pressing need to reduce the existing inadequacies of trained manpower as well the need to succeed in their development endeavors.

Governments in developing countries view management training as part of a development strategy by which they try to create and enhance indigenous managerial talent.¹ In spite of their efforts to increase the number of trained managers, there still exist a great shortage of managers. Various problems continue to impede the goal of most developing countries to bridge the managerial gap between the demand for and the supply of an indigenous talent. This gap continues to grow and is manifested at all levels of government.²

As the managerial gap between the supply of and the demand for an indigenous talent continues to widen in developing countries, there is also a growing need for


² ibid., p.3.
Several problems which have impaired progress in management training for an indigenous talent are the types and methods of training, the funding and staffing of institutions as well as the design of the curriculum content.

In developing countries, management training is mostly offered by Public Administration Institutes, by universities as degree programs, or by special training courses. Such training takes place either in local training institutions or at overseas training institutions. In Africa, newly independent states established local management training institutions to expedite the process of training many personnel who could replace expatriates who held most of the senior and policy making positions. Today, there are several Institutes of Public Administration and Management throughout the African continent. As the secretariat for the Economic Council for Africa indicates, there were over one hundred and fifty (150) of such institutions all over the continent in the early 1970's.

In spite of the increase in the number of management training institutions in Africa, there has not been a change in the widening gap between the supply of and the demand for an indigenous managerial talent. The need to train and

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3 ibid., p. 7.

retain top managers remains a major problem in most African countries, and for this and other reasons, there has not been a significant improvement in Africa's development undertakings. Both political and economic factors constrain African training institutions from succeeding in their management training efforts. In addition, most African Institutes of Public Administration have not been able to assess and improve their training methods. The ECA Secretariat has identified reasons why African Institutes of Public Administration have failed to achieve their objectives. Africa's Institutes of Public Administration fail, for example, to relate the theoretical aspects of management training to the prevailing problems affecting their respective countries. Some of these institutions have made academic excellence a priority and have thereby undermined the idea of producing pragmatic administrators. To improve their image, most African Institutes of Public Administration have moved into universities. In spite of this move, their training methods and training programs have

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In developing countries, management training is impeded by the ineffective training methods used by most institutions. Management training institutions in less developed countries still rely on the traditional methods of teaching. The use of formal lectures remains the most popular method used by most institutions. Examining administrative training in India, A.R. Tyagi observed that the use of effective teaching methods such as modified lectures and simulations would greatly enhance management training in the country. Modified approaches such as tutorials, seminars, and group discussions augmented by simulations such as management game techniques, role plays, and case studies can be helpful management training strategies for developing countries.®

A report by the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) on management training in the Southern African Development Co-Ordination Conference (SADCC) countries indicates that training institutions in the region still lack effective training strategies. In order to succeed in imparting the relevant and needed skills in areas of motivation, inter-personal relations, or supervision, the standardized, lecture-based

®ECA Secretariat, "Education and Training," 100.

material offered by most SADCC management training institutions is inadequate. These institutions seldom relate directly to problems trainees encounter in their work situations." 

The lack of ability to engage in research and consultation ranks among the major problems facing management training institutions in developing countries. To alleviate existing developmental problems, it is important for developing countries to adopt intensive research and consultation as one of their training strategies. Bashir's study on public administration in Lebanon reveals that the Institute of Public Administration and Development (IPA&D) in the country "has been operating on traditional lines in trying to satisfy training needs as requested, rather than conducting studies and formulating long term plans...". Like most Institutes of Public Administration in developing countries, the Lebanese IPA&D did not engage in research and consulting with the Lebanese bureaucracy. Such methods are important as they provide management training institutions with scholarly knowledge which can be used to deal with existing management problems. Since the objective of management training institutes in developing countries is to provide training that is relevant to local needs, the 

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absence of research creates a vicious circle where scarcity of local teaching materials such as text books and case studies defeats this purpose.¹¹

The lack of research and consulting is compounded by the shortage of full-time teaching staff. Most Institutes of Public Administration rely on part-time staff who are likely not to engage in research activities. The few full-time faculty carry such a heavy instructional load that they are unable to do research.¹²

When one considers the staggering economies of most developing countries, it is unlikely that their management training institutions will be well-funded. Some of these institutions depend on foreign assistance to fund their programs, and to supply teaching materials as well as teaching staff. A survey of management training institutes of the SADCC countries provides a good example of this situation. The survey shows that a small number of institutes in the region are locally funded by governments while others receive foreign assistance. The Institute of Development Management (IDM) in Gaborone, Botswana receives financial assistance from the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). This assistance always comes with


The inability to design a relevant curriculum poses a major obstacle in improving management training in developing countries. The absence of research makes it impossible for Institutes of Public Administration to ascertain solutions to deal with existing problems. Kerrigan and Luke offer several criticisms related to curriculum content of management in developing countries. Apart from the use of 'foreign material,' management training in developing countries is often "theoretical and abstract, frequently with little operational value... Training is not tied to the requisite skills of effective public management, nor does it build on indigenous management knowledge". The authors further observe that "training does not adequately focus on actual organizational performance or individual
In Africa, students of public administration are exposed to foreign material through a curriculum designed by foreign experts or local trainers who had received overseas training. Schaeffer notes that the development of public administration curriculum in developed countries has for some time centered on the teaching of Max Weber and Luther Gulick's prescription of POSDCORB. Foreign experts as well as overseas trained local staff then try to implement the same type of curriculum in developing countries without major modifications.\(^{16}\)

Management training is not a panacea for problems of the less developed countries, but poor instruction will only exacerbate the waste of already scarce resources.\(^{16}\) The problems affecting management training institutions in the less developed countries are not easily solved. Conducting research, for instance, is an expensive process both in developed and less developed countries. Although research and consulting are important in a long-term development strategy, most African countries are unable to pursue this


\(^{16}\)Schaeffer, "Formation of Managers," 240 and 243.; Also see Kerrigan and Luke, p. 11.

strategy effectively because of financial constraints which fall beyond their control. The inability to fund research and consulting remains a serious impediment to improving management training and development in underdeveloped countries.

The study of management training for post-independent Namibia should therefore take into consideration the problems encountered by other developing countries in this area. As a colonized country, Namibia shares similar problems with other former colonies. The impact of the colonial education system on the attitudes of the colonized and how this process has affected management training cannot be overemphasized. Chapter two provides a picture of the national government structure and the second tier structures in Namibia. It is with this picture in mind that we can begin to assess the training needs of civil servants in post-independent Namibia.
Chapter Two

Public Administration In Namibia

South Africa currently regards Namibia as its own colony. In spite of South Africa’s claim over the territory, the international community upholds the United Nation’s mandate and, therefore, views Namibia as a mandated territory.

On December 17, 1920, the League of Nations gave a mandate to South Africa over Namibia. The mandate explicitly stated South Africa’s responsibilities over the territory, such as to "ensure due respect for the culture of the peoples concerned, their political, economic, social and educational advancement, their just treatment against abuses; to develop self government...to assist them in the progressive development of their free political institutions...". However, sixty eight years after the League of Nations issued that mandate, the South African government remains in the territory and contends that the "natives" are not yet ready to take over the administration of government in Namibia.

From the earliest days of the mandate, the South African government began introducing its administrative system in Namibia. Therefore, current and existing

government structures in the territory are based upon those of the South African government. Since the purpose of this paper is to examine and evaluate efforts undertaken in the area of public sector management training in Namibia, it is important to understand how policies instituted by the South African government have affected this process.

Among the relevant administrative policies are those based on the recommendations of the Odendaal Commission of 1963. The commission recommended that the territory be divided into several administrative regions along ethnic lines. This policy stressed the idea of self rule for tribal authorities in the country. Such a system reflected the bantustan system already in existence in South Africa at the time. Effectively implemented in 1967, the bantustan policy embraced the principle of self government, whereby local people deal with their own problems. The bantustan system also called for on the job training of local administrators by white South African administrators. The South African government used the model introduced in the Transkei, where an African Chief Minister had below him white administrators acting as secretaries for the various departments. These department secretaries are supposed to

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train Africans and, thereafter, leave.¹⁷

Although the South African government introduced the policy of self-rule in the bantustans more than twenty years ago, white administrators still remain as department secretaries of local governments in Namibia. This observation challenges the seriousness of the government’s efforts in public service training. In spite of South Africa’s contention that it is training local Africans to take over administrative positions from white administrators, most of the senior and middle level positions at both the national level and the second tier authorities are held by white administrators. A 1987 survey of 40 government agencies in Namibia, for example, shows that all of the 60 senior and middle level positions identified in these agencies are held by white administrators. White administrators also occupy positions of chairmanship, director, and deputy director in the major parastatals such as the South West Africa Water and Electricity Corporation (SWAWEC), the Railways and Harbors, the Post Office, and the South West Africa Broadcasting Corporation (SWABC).²⁰ In the bantustans, the most senior administrative position is that of a secretary. The same survey shows that all nine secretariat positions in the nine


bantustans in Namibia are held by whites.

Figure 1 illustrates the administrative structure of the Caprivi Government. Most of the senior positions in the Caprivi Government are still held by whites in spite of the homeland's sixteen years of "self rule". Lack of qualified African administrators explains the vacant positions of director and deputy directors in the bantustan. Furthermore, the survey exposed about 20 or 25 percent of the 77 directors and deputy directors of these government agencies and parastatals as members of the Broeder Bond, a secret society organization for the South African Nationalist Party.\textsuperscript{11}

Figure 1. A Typical Bantustan Administrative Structure in 1987.

\begin{itemize}
\item Eastern Caprivi Govt. Service
\item Secretary (I.G. Liebenberg)
\item Depts.
\item General Services director (P.P. Weber)
\item deputy director (vacant)
\item senior control officer (A.A.)
\item Health & Welfare director (A.M. Birkenstock)
\item deputy director (vacant)
\item Senior Means officer (J.S.)
\item Education & Acting director (G.P. Nel)
\item deputy director (vacant)
\item Senior Acc. (J.J. Oosthuizen)
\item chief Inspector (G.P. Nel)
\end{itemize}

\textsuperscript{11}ibid.
At independence, these administrators are likely to leave. They clearly regard themselves as South African nationals rather than as Namibians. A study conducted by the United Nations Institute for Namibia on high and middle level personnel in Namibia estimates that about 15,000 white administrators are expected to leave after independence. The task of developing trained Namibians to replace them is the major concern of this paper.

The government structure in Namibia consists of the National Administration and the second tier governments at the local level. The National Administration in Windhoek is run by the South African supported Multi-Party Conference and beneath it are local administrations which are divided according to their ethnic orientations. Figure 2 illustrates central and local administrative structures in Namibia as of 1986. The bantustans are most important in the study of management training in Namibia. These are the governments

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which employ the most civil servants in the country. A United Nations Institute for Namibia study estimates that about 12,272 civil servants work for the three Bantustans in Northern Namibia (Ovambo, Kavango and Caprivi governments). Among these, 626 (5.1 percent) are whites and the remaining 11,646 (94.9 percent) are Africans. In the early 1970's the South African government proclaimed "self government" for the three local governments. However, this self government with all its professed intentions has not "succeeded" in preparing local administrators for taking over senior posts held by white administrators.

Figure 2. Central & Local Administrative Structure in Namibia

- Administrator General
- SWATF (defence force)
- Dept. of Economic Affairs
  - Dept. of National Health & Welfare
  - Dept. of Natural Conservation
- Bantustans
  - Basters Admin.
  - Eastern Caprivi Admin.

*as ibid., p. 800.*
White administrators in the bantustans have obstructed African civil servants from attaining senior positions in the local governments. In the Ovambo Government Service, the first bantustan to attain "self government," white officials are able to delegate only a few responsibilities to their

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dept. of National Education</th>
<th>Colored Admin.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dept. of Civic Affairs &amp; Manpower</td>
<td>Damara Admin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. of Justice</td>
<td>Herero Admin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. of Transport</td>
<td>Kavango Admin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. of Governmental Affairs</td>
<td>Nama Admin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. of Water Affairs</td>
<td>Ovambo Admin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. of Post &amp; Telecommunication</td>
<td>San Admin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. of Police</td>
<td>Tswana Admin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auditor General</td>
<td>White Admin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Personnel Institution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

African subordinates. Totemeyer further observes that "the highest administrative posts are still occupied by whites, but the official policy is to fill all administrative posts by Ovambos in due time." Although the white administrator's reluctance to delegate responsibilities has political implications, these officers also practice discrimination on their African co-workers. Complaints by African civil servants in the Ovambo Administration corroborate such assertions. Their complaints also reveal that senior positions are being offered to white clerks even though they lack the relevant qualifications.

**Conclusion**

A review of public administration in Namibia reveals that most of the senior and middle level management positions at both the national and local levels are held by whites. This situation is prevalent in spite of the South African government's "good intentions" to train local personnel who will be able to take over such administrative tasks when the country attains its independence. In light of the South African government's professed intentions to train

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*ibid., p. 126.

*"The Unhappy Worker from Ondangwa," *The Namibian*, 17 April 1987, p. 16.
local personnel the following chapter examines the government's efforts in this regard.
Chapter Three

Training Efforts By the South African Government

An examination of public administration training efforts in Namibia reveals three serious problems. First, the system of bantu education is so inadequate that black Namibian students cannot gain access to institutions of higher education. Second, existing training programs do not adequately cover the management skills needed by civil servants. Finally, in-service training programs in the homelands have failed to accomplish their goals. Analysis of these three problems will be the subject of this chapter.

Restricted Access to Higher Education.

The system of bantu education is clearly defined in the Eiselen Commission's recommendation which served as the basis for its formulation. The Commission stressed "the formulation of the principles and aims of education for the natives as an independent race, in which their past and present, their inherent racial qualities, their distinctive characteristics and aptitudes, and their needs under ever-changing social conditions are taken into consideration." The commission's recommendations influenced the government's decision to change the existing curriculum in African

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schools at the primary, secondary, and university levels. These recommendations affected Teacher’s training colleges as well. The system of “bantu education” continues to affect the funding as well as the administrative and organizational structures of all African schools.

The system of bantu education has seriously constrained the training of civil servants. Several reasons account for this failure. For example, by designing the bantu education syllabus with its limited curriculum, by denying Africans access to some of the universities in the country, by under-funding African schools and failing to train qualified teachers, the South African government has achieved its objective of preventing the development of a well-educated African civil service. This is evidenced by the educational problems facing the country today. A combination of poor quality education, few trained teachers, and few high schools have contributed to stagnation in management training. These elements have to be considered as they constitute the basis for training in both the public and private sectors.

The South African government started to impose bantu education in Namibia immediately after it had instituted the system inside South Africa in the early 1950’s. After the

The term "bantu" is viewed as derogatory by the African population both in Namibia and South Africa and the government has since 1976 been trying to find a different term. An example of this is the current use of "plural" education.
Eiselen Commission presented its findings in 1951, the government formulated an education system for Africans based on the commission’s recommendations. The adoption of the Bantu Education Act in 1953 legalized the system which would later be known as bantu education. The government formulated the bantu education policy with the intention of providing Africans with the type of education it felt met tribal needs rather than national interests.

The policy of bantu education affected schools at all levels both in Namibia and South Africa. At the university level, the government passed legislation called the Extension of University Act of 1959. The law prohibited African students from studying at the predominantly white universities of Cape Town, Natal, Witwatersrand, and Rhodes. These universities (for example, the University of Natal) had previously accepted African students, although on certain conditions. For instance, they accepted African students for post-graduate studies, and for certain courses or in segregated classes.

The government’s extension of the 1959 proclamation to the ‘open universities’ denied African students the opportunity to study courses such as political science, public administration, philosophy, law, and natural sciences.

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29 O’Callaghan, p. 99.

30 ibid., p. 154.
The policy also allowed Namibian students to study only at the ethnic oriented universities in South Africa. These consist of the University of Fort Hare, University of Zululand, University of Western Cape, and the University of The North. These universities are funded by the Department of Bantu Education and, therefore, are greatly affected by its policies. As a result, the bantu education policy has deprived African students access to "important research centers in the older non-ethnic universities, as well as from benefiting from the wider access to ideas that the white universities permit."

Even if all universities were open to African students, few would be able to pursue the training they would need to become civil servants. The quality of education in Namibia is so poor that few can pass the examination that would qualify them for admission to a university or Institute of Public Administration. Table 1, for example, shows that the pass rate for standards 8, 9, and 10 in two of the three ethnic administrations was quite low in 1987. Over 89 percent of the 889 white students in the White Administration passed standard 10. By comparison, only 29 black students in the Kavango Administration reached Standard 10, and only 3 of these passed (10.3 percent). Only 35 black student in the Herero Administration reached

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\(^{31}\text{ibid.}\)

\(^{32}\text{ibid.},\ p.\ 155.\)
Standard 10, and only 5 of these passed (13 percent). Thus, only a handful of students in Kavango and Herero homelands obtained the necessary qualifications to gain access to institutions of higher learning. According to a government report, 461 African students passed Standard 10 in all the second-tier schools.\footnote{The Namibian, Jan. 22 1988, p. 4.} Assuming this figure is accurate, it shows that a small number of students are even eligible to pursue higher education.

### Table 1. Pass Rates for Standards 8, 9 and 10 by Ethnic Administration in 1987.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1987</th>
<th>Std</th>
<th># of Students</th>
<th># Passed</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>888</td>
<td>785</td>
<td>89.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kavango</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>25.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Herero</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>59.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source. The Namibian 1988. Data on other Second-Tier Authorities are not available as these administrations refuse to disclose their examination results.

Explaining the reasons for the poor quality of education in Namibia is beyond the scope of this paper. The
important point, however, is clear. The education picture we have presented on Namibia discourages optimism for a successful management training scheme in the country because Namibian high schools continue to produce few students who can qualify for such training at the university level. Even the Institutes of Public Administration attached to the ethnic universities of South Africa require a candidate to possess a senior certificate in order to qualify for training.

Access to needed education in public administration has also been restricted by the absence of universities in Namibia. Until recently, there existed no university in Namibia at all. The Academy of Tertiary Education which opened in 1980 offered diplomas in public administration and other fields. By 1981, there were only 35 students enrolled at the school and, as the UNIN study reported, the majority of these were white students because African high schools could not produce enough eligible candidates. Since late 1987, this institution has been converted into a university and the South African government generally regards it as a source of training for Africans in the country. However, in spite of its change in status, the University of Namibia continues primarily to serve white students.\(^3\)

The Inadequacy of Existing Training Curricula.

There are currently three types of institutions which serve as management training centers for Namibian civil servants. These include the University of Namibia, the several ethnic universities in South Africa, and the Institutes of Public Administration attached to some of these universities.

The University of Namibia offers interdisciplinary courses. Students of administrative management at the University of Namibia are able to acquire some skills necessary for administering Namibia’s public and parastatal organizations. For students of administrative management, skills in research methodology, personnel management, and financial management operations can be acquired from the departments of Industrial Psychology, Business Economics, and Economics.\textsuperscript{35} However, as discussed in the previous section, the low output from Namibian high schools does not provide enough students who qualify for the university.

Even after the recent establishment of a university in Namibia, most of the university training for Namibians still takes place in South Africa. In order to illustrate the type of training these students receive, we will examine the

\textsuperscript{35}The author could not obtain a complete curriculum for the University of Namibia’s program in public administration. For evaluation purposes, the author used the partial curriculum of other programs offered at the University. That curriculum had appeared in the \textit{Namibian}, 22 Jan. 1988, p. 6.
curriculum and programs of the University of Fort Hare, one of the oldest of the ethnic universities in South Africa. For purposes of assessing the adequacy of Fort Hare's curriculum, this study will utilize the eleven management skills identified by the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) as essential to management training programs. For a description of these skills, see figure 3.

Figure 3. Explanations of management skills identified.

Personnel Management: Skills in recruiting, assigning and compensating employees of a large organization in accordance with its internal policies.

Financial Management: Ability to make effective use of an organization's monetary resources and to keep track of such uses.

Bureaucratic Politics: The ability to ascertain the divergent interests of different organizations and individuals which work together in matters of common policy, and to find ways of accommodating them without sustaining injury to one's own organization or personal interests.

Interpersonal Relations: Understanding the process by which individuals working in a bureaucratic setting can co-operate with each other to achieve organizational goals.

Supervision: The skill of monitoring the performance of subordinates without infringing on their sense of dignity and their independence and creativity as members of an organization.

Negotiation: Knowledge of conflict resolving approaches and ability to use these and other transactions or procedures to bring about inter-governmental collaboration.

Employee motivation: The ability to encourage subordinates to perform effectively, using both "job related" and "employment environment" factors to improve morale and stimulate enthusiasm.

Knowledge of Procedures: Knowledge of rules and regulations
and skills in reporting and adapting them to accommodate current operational needs of an organization.

Co-ordination: Skill in bringing together the resources, human and material, of different individuals or organizational units to accomplish tasks common to the participants.

Communication: Knowledge of the resources available to an organization, to extend information to other users, and ability to employ them effectively.

Writing Skills: Ability to present an official case clearly and effectively in official documents and other correspondence.

Source: Reproduced from NASPAA report 1985, pp.16-17.

For management training purposes, the University has four different programs. Students in administrative management can receive such training through the program offered by the Department of Political Science and Public Administration. Other related training programs are the Agricultural and Rural Development Research Institute (ARDRI), the Fort Hare Institute of Management (FHIM), and a B.A. degree in Personnel Management.

The University provides a three-year, full-time B.A. degree in Public Administration. An Honors and a Masters degree are also offered. The public administration curriculum and the duration of the program at Fort Hare are similar to those provided by other ethnic universities.

On completion of the degree in Public Administration, a student will have taken not more than thirteen courses. Nine of these are selected from the humanities, while the
remaining three are derived from law, theology, and science. The curriculum for a first year student of Public Administration will reflect courses such as Political Science I, Public Administration I, Practical English I, Development Studies I, and Statistics I. To graduate at the end of the third year, a student is expected to have completed Public Administration I, II and III consecutively.34

In the first year, the Course I (or Public Administration I) of the public administration curriculum provides students with the general perspective on the study of public administration and its historical developments. The course also introduces students to the development and characteristics of bureaucracy (see Appendix A for curriculum outline). During the second phase of the course, students learn about the institutional framework of public administration which embodies local governments, municipalities, councils, and town clerks. The study of these institutions uses South Africa as a frame of reference.37

Course II, taken in the second year, deals with the study of public policy in the public sector and personnel administration. It continues analysis regarding the functions and administrative institutions of municipalities.

34University of Fort Hare Calendar, 1986.

37Ibid.
Students are also introduced to organization theory and public financial management. For third year students, Course III deals with bureaucratic politics at both national and local level. By the end of the academic year, students will have studied international public administration as well as modern techniques in public administration.\textsuperscript{33}

The University Honors program is a one year degree which serves as a prerequisite for the Masters program (see appendix A for the program's curriculum). These programs are intended to offer training for middle and senior level managers in the public sector.

The Fort Hare Institute of Management (FHIM) is more of an in-service training center for the private sector than it is for the public sector. The institute offers both formal and non formal training and conducts research and consultation for entrepreneurial development. The program has three staff members consisting of the director, a senior officer, and a training officer. There is a vacant position of an assistant training officer. Both the director and the senior officer are white South Africans and their credentials show that they obtained their degrees from the universities of Cape Town and Stellenbosch. As we have indicated before, Africans are not admitted to these universities and the only African member on the staff (the training officer) has only a Bachelor of Commerce degree.

\textsuperscript{33}ibid., p. 62-64.
obtained from Fort Hare University.

The lack of qualified African training officers is also evident at the Agricultural and Rural Development Research Institute (ARDRI) which is attached to the University of Fort Hare. The Institute is designed to serve the "developing countries of Southern Africa" (which constitutes the "independent" homelands of Ciskei, Bophutatswana, Transkei and Venda). Its objectives are to conduct agricultural research, consultation and planning in these homelands. There are two staff members, a senior research officer and a research officer. They are both white South Africans with degrees received from the Universities of Natal, Cape Town, Witwatersrand and Pretoria.

The B.A. degree in Personnel Management is another management training program offered by the university. The program offers interdisciplinary courses and extends for a period of three years. On completion of this degree, the program’s curriculum shows that students will have incorporated courses from sociology, development studies, statistics, and industrial psychology. However, the curriculum does not show a specific course on personnel administration.

Although Figure 4 reveals that the curriculum content of these programs seems to satisfy management training needs identified in Figure 3, such as personnel management, 

*ibid.*
financial management, bureaucratic politics, interpersonal relations, employee motivation, knowledge of procedures and communication skills, there still exist problems. First, as figure 4 shows, there are gaps in the curriculum. Negotiation skills, co-ordination skills, and writing skills are not satisfied by the University of Fort Hare's public administration program. Second, although other skills are included in the curriculum, the staff may not be sufficiently qualified to teach them. Only one of the seven faculty members in the Political Science and Public Administration department, for example, is a professor with a Ph.D. degree and the rest of the staff possess the B.A. plus Honors degree. Although hard evidence is not available, it is reasonable to expect that if the faculty were better qualified, the gaps in the curriculum might not exist and the quality of teaching might higher.

Figure 4. University of Fort Hare Public Administration Program Tied to Management Skills Required.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Skill</th>
<th>Course I</th>
<th>Course II</th>
<th>Course II Honors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Management</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Management</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bureaucratic Politics</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Relations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negotiation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Motivation</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

"ibid."
Knowledge of Procedures  x  x  x
Co-ordination
Communication  x  x  x
Writing Skills

Source: Type of skills derived from NASPAA Report 1985, p16-17; University of Fort Hare Handbook 1986

The training methods used and the lack of research opportunities narrow the scope of knowledge the students are supposed to acquire. Coupled with the apartheid policy, the system of bantu education does not provide relevant alternative learning facilities and techniques. As figure 5 shows, the three institutions in both Namibia and South Africa overlook some of the important training methods in management. As an example, the use of case studies, role plays, and seminars are not utilized by the University of Namibia, the University of Zululand’s Institute of Public Administration and Vocational Training, and the university of Fort Hare’s Institute of Management. The utilization of one mode of learning technique, for instance, can limit the educational experience. As Marais has observed, auditory learning is more emphasized in South African black schools and universities than the visual learning with the use of films, slides, and video tapes. The emphasis on one learning style can in some cases restrict the development of reading
or writing skills.\textsuperscript{41}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
Training Method & U of Namibia & U of Zululand & U of FHIM (IPA&VT) \\
\hline
Research & Consulting & x & x \\
Formal lecture & x & x & x \\
Case Studies & & & \\
Visual Aids & x & & x \\
Role Plays & & & \\
Management Game & & & \\
Techniques & & x & \\
Seminars & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Training Methods and Types of Institutions.}
\end{figure}

Source: Personal correspondence with current and former students from these institutions.\textsuperscript{42}

Figure 6 shows the types of training programs, as well as training methods available at the ethnic universities. None of the five training methods are simultaneously offered in any of the institutions we have identified. On the average, only two programs are conducted at the University of Namibia, the University of Zululand Institute of Public Administration and Vocational Training, the University of


\textsuperscript{42}These institutions do not indicate the training methods in their annual handbooks. The available handbook of the University of Fort Hare does not reflect the methods used for teaching the courses described in the calendar. The author spent a year and a half studying Public Administration at two of the then three existing ethnic universities in South Africa (the University of the North and the University of Zululand from 1977 to 1978).
Fort Hare Institute of Management, and the second tier authorities in Namibia.

Figure 6. Types of Training Programs according to Institutions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Training Programs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In-Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>training</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Univ.of Namibia</th>
<th>Institute of Public Administration &amp; Vocational Training (U of Zululand)</th>
<th>Univ.of Fort Hare Institute of Management</th>
<th>Second-Tier Authorities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Personal correspondence; University of Fort Hare Handbook, 1986.

Management Training Programs in the Homelands.

In the homelands, some in-service training programs are conducted in conjunction with Institutes of Public Administration attached to the ethnic universities in South Africa. Since the mid 1970’s, these local governments have been sending their civil servants particularly to the Institute for Public Service and Vocational Training.
attached to the University of Zululand in Natal, South Africa. The program's objective is to produce middle level and senior level managers. These civil servants then enroll for a six months period at the institute. Another six months are spent on their respective jobs. This process continues for a duration of three years, after which candidates graduate from their specific training programs. Students at this institute engage in courses in Public Finance, Auditing, Accounting, Administrative Law, and Public Administration.

Other management training methods utilized in the homelands are the on-the-job training and non-formal training. Non-formal training is targeted at the middle and senior level administrators. In reality, these programs have never been a success. As we illustrated in the preceding chapter, there has not been a significant reduction in the number of white officials engaged in this program. The social structure in the country does not allow such associations to take place. The existence of the apartheid system in Namibia allows separate social facilities for both blacks and whites. In the homelands, such social facilities as social clubs are non-existent for African civil servants. Therefore, this technique, which involves information exchange, emotional support, and social affiliations among the managers, is mostly utilized by white administrators at
both the national and local levels. The way the South African government practices non-formal training in the homelands not only denies African civil servants the benefit of sharing administrative knowledge with their white counterparts, but also perpetuates the status quo in the country. As a result, white officials still hold most of the senior and middle level positions in the bantustans.

In local administrations where Africans have control of such senior administrative positions, there have been some reports of financial maladministration and overspending. This situation does not only tell us that the personnel in question lack the know-how of the budgetary process, but also how inadequate the program of on-the-job training has been in the homelands. This situation is evidenced by the Herero Administration which is currently near collapse.

Figure 7 gives an example of how bursaries for training are distributed in the Homelands. The allocation of bursaries by the Caprivi administration confirms the assertion that few students study at university level in Namibia. In 1987, the administration offered 116 bursaries. Among these, 13 were in higher education. None of these were in management training. In the 1988 academic year, the administration offered only five more bursaries in higher education. 


education. Assessing the number of bursaries approved by the Caprivi administration since 1986, there is an average number of four students entering the university per year over the past three years.

Figure 7. Bursaries offered by the Caprivi Administration According to types of Training for 1987 & 1988.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Bursaries</th>
<th>Type of Training</th>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>B.A. degree</td>
<td>Academy for Tertiary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>B.Com. (Education)</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>B.Sc. (Education)</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>HECP (distant Teaching)</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>B.A. Paedagogics</td>
<td>University of the North</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>B.A. Agriculture</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>B.Sc. (Paedagogics)</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>ECP I</td>
<td>Caprivi Teachers Training College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>ECP II</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Vocational Training</td>
<td>Chamidor Training Center(S.A)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total: 116</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>B.A. (First Year)</td>
<td>Academy for Tertiary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>B.A. (Second Year)</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>B.A. (Third Year)</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>ECP II</td>
<td>Caprivi Teachers Training College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>ECP III</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total: 110</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Department of Education, Caprivi Administration.

Summary

Management training programs at South Africa's ethnic universities and the University of Namibia do not significantly contribute to the training of African civil servants because few Namibians qualify for entrance to these institutions. For the few who are admitted at the universities, only a small number are enrolled in management
training.

The universities and Institutes of Public Administration offering training programs are not themselves immune to the policy of apartheid which has a great impact on the education system in Namibia and South Africa. Training programs such as workshops and seminars, for example, are rarely conducted in the homelands. Because of existing discriminatory barriers, and the government's lack of concern for a qualified African civil service in Namibia, the in-service training and on-the-job training programs carried out by the local governments are not fully implemented to overcome existing and future inadequacies of management training in the country. In addition, the ethnic universities and the Institutes of Public Administration attached to them do not offer satisfactory management training curricula, and do not include most of the training methods as well as training programs necessary for acquiring relevant management skills.

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Chapter Four

Training Efforts by SWAPO and The United Nations

Ever since the South African government introduced the system of Bantu education in Namibia, the country's educational system has continued to deteriorate. As a response to such educational policies, the South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO) has made education one of its first priorities. SWAPO's education policy is aimed at training enough manpower to remedy such deficiencies in an independent Namibia. In conjunction with the United Nations Council for Namibia, SWAPO has conducted several studies which examined and estimated manpower development needs in Namibia. Since it established an external wing in 1960, SWAPO has engaged in training Namibians in various fields.

Because the majority of Namibians had been deprived of formal education, SWAPO was unable to recruit enough qualified students to train in higher education. As a result, SWAPO vested its Secretary for Education and Culture with the responsibility of training and educating members of the organization "by organizing scholarships and SWAPO institutions of learning."¹ UNIN's policy is aimed at producing enough personnel in various fields to close the anticipated gap between the demand for and the supply of skilled manpower in an independent Namibia.

¹⁾UNIN, 1986, p. 520.
Since the majority of Namibian exiles lacked the basic primary and secondary education, SWAPO had to establish schools in the Namibian Education and Health Centers. These are refugee settlements where most Namibian exiles reside. Currently, SWAPO maintains such education centers in Zambia, Angola, Congo Brazzaville, and Cuba. In addition to offering formal education in the settlements, SWAPO has organized distance education known as the Namibian Extension Unit (NEU). The system was established in co-operation with the Commonwealth Secretariat and provides adult education to more than 40,000 exiled Namibian men and women.

Through the programs offered in its education centers, SWAPO is able to produce qualified students for training in higher education. The United Nations Institute for Namibia (UNIN) study shows that by 1981 "over 3,000 students were in SWAPO organized secondary education and 500 in post-secondary education." Combining all the SWAPO external training programs of the same period, Rotberg estimates that about 4,000 Namibians have experienced such training ranging from artisan to university degree levels.

In the area of management training, SWAPO has created several training programs to secure skilled manpower for an independent Namibia. SWAPO's management training programs

"Ibid.

are conducted at universities around the world, at some African Institutes of Public Administration, and at the United Nations Institute for Namibia in Lusaka.

External Training Programs

Concerned with the need for trained manpower for an independent Namibia, SWAPO has also solicited support from various governments and international organizations to train its members. As of 1983, SWAPO had managed to train 974 cadres in higher education and other technical fields. During the same period, SWAPO trained 1,209 other students in higher education. They have been made possible through the co-operation of agencies such as the African American Institute (Southern African Training Program), the United Nations Educational Training Program for Southern Africa, United Nations Commissioner for Namibia’s Nationhood Program, and Commonwealth assistance under the Commonwealth Program for Namibia, among others.

The United Nations Commissioner for Namibia’s Nationhood Program has been able to provide scholarships and fellowships for training in the areas of development planning, public enterprises, fisheries management, labor legislation, housing policy, food economics, food distribution, law enforcement, land suitability, teachers training, public administration, and transportation, as well

—UNIN, p. 519.
as in several other skill areas necessary for Namibia's manpower development. In 1984, the Nationhood Program had 2,364 available fellowships for training in 25 different fields, but only 272 students were actually undergoing training and only 59 had graduated in the fields of public enterprises, food economics, food distribution and transportation. Since the Nationhood Program basically serves Namibian exiles, most of the available scholarships have not been awarded. This is because few Namibians in exile possess the qualifications needed for higher education.

Post-independent Namibia will require an estimated 20,000 newly trained civil servants (see chapter 6). While the quality of education received from SWAPO-supported programs and the Nationhood program may be higher than those offered by the South African government, only between 2-3,000 have been trained and only a proportion of these have trained in public administration. These programs do not begin to meet the need for trained administrators for a post-independent Namibia.

United Nations Institute for Namibia.

SWAPO's intensive training for middle level administrators takes place at the United Nations Institute for Namibia (UNIN) in Lusaka. In 1976, the United Nations Commissioner for Namibia, through the co-operation of the

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50 ibid., p. 521.
Zambian government, and SWAPO established the Institute in Lusaka. As stipulated in its prospectus, the purpose of the Institute is to enable Namibians to acquire the necessary skills required for manning the public service of an independent Namibia; to undertake research into the various political and socio-economic aspects of Namibia which shall contribute to the struggle for emancipation of Namibia as well as assist in the formulation of policies and programs of an independent Namibia; and to serve as an information and documentation center on Namibia. Since its inception, the Institute has tried to fulfill these stated purposes, and has grown considerably both in terms of enrollment and the training programs offered. Since 1976, over 1,200 students have undergone training at the institute while 900 have received diplomas in the five divisional programs. As Askin observes, graduates from the United Nations Institute for Namibia form the largest pool of educated Namibians to date.

The Institute offers a three year diploma in Management and Development Studies. To acquire this diploma, the trainee has to take courses derived from the fields of

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agriculture, law, economics, history, politics, and education. Other diploma courses in Magistrate Training, Teachers Training, and Secretarial Training have been added to the Institute's original training programs.

The diploma requires three years of study. In the first year, the training program consists of courses in law, society, politics, administration, agriculture, economics, education, and English. The second year involves specialized academic training, while the third year offers nine months of practical training in government agencies throughout Africa. This three-year curriculum is described in detail below and is then critically assessed.

The curriculum for all first year students enrolled in the program is comprised of nine selected courses. These include such courses as organization and management of social and political institutions; law and administration; economics, agriculture and business; planning and administration of social services; health administration; office administration; development administration; introduction to modern history of Africa; English language and mathematics. From this interdisciplinary program, students are exposed to the socio-politico and economic situations in the world, and to the problems of development

\[5^\text{ibid., pp. 518-519.}\]

\[5^\text{UNIN Prospectus, 1981, p. 16.}\]

\[5^\text{ibid.}\]
as experienced by less developed countries with special emphasis to the newly independent African countries. Appendix C gives an example of a course outline from the first year curriculum.

In the second year, prospective students specialize in one of the five divisional programs. The areas to choose from include Agriculture and Land Resources Division; Constitutional, Legal and Judicial Affairs Division; Economic Division; Historical, Political and Cultural Division; and the Social and Education Division. Courses in research techniques and development planning are offered as well. Each division consists of six courses which a specializing student is expected to complete. The Agricultural and Land Resources division, for example, offers courses in crop production, animal production, planning agricultural development, rural development, natural resources conservation, and agricultural administration. Appendix D outlines the curriculum for each of the six divisions.

A review of one of the courses in the Agricultural and Land Resources division, Agricultural Administration, depicts the aims and objectives of the course as intended to instill in the students the knowledge of administrative functions and organizational structures of the department.

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57 Ibid., p. 17.
58 Ibid.
of agriculture. Furthermore, students should be able to
"understand how agricultural extension services operate,
understand the role of the extension agent in the service,
and explain to the farmers simple techniques and technology
of agricultural improvement."\(^{57}\) This course also introduces
students to the interdepartmental nature of the agricultural
ministry, and to personnel administration in relation to
staffing, position classification, and the supervision of
extension workers at the national and district levels.
Appendix E provides a detailed outline of this course.\(^{60}\)

After the two years study in theory, students start
their third year with practical training. The third year
curriculum consists of a secondment programme which aims at
"exposing students to the practical realities of public
administration."\(^{61}\) The secondment programme lasts for nine
months beginning early in January through October. Students
are allocated to different government agencies in countries
such as Zambia, Botswana, Tanzania, Benin, Ethiopia, Kenya,
Zimbabwe Mozambique and Senegal. In addition, they are also
attached to international agencies such as the United
Nations Center for Human Settlements (Habitat), the United
Nations Economic Commission for Africa, and the Organization

\(^{57}\)ibid., p. 31.

\(^{60}\)ibid.

\(^{61}\)ibid., p. 57.
for African Unity (OAU). During the program, students are expected to apply their "theoretical body of knowledge and skills in a practical situation." By the end of the secondment programme, they are expected to have acquired a variety of practical experiences in a government or organizational setting. Among others, such practical experiences would include office management, coordination, directing, implementation of development projects, interpersonal relations and decision making.

Assessment of The UNIN Training Program.

This section provides an assessment of the UNIN program in terms of the adequacy of its curriculum, the methods of training and the types of available training programs. Additional information relating to the curriculum of particular divisions of this program is listed in appendixes C, D, and E.

The broad knowledge attained from the first year curriculum provides students with basic skills relevant for rendering public service in an independent Namibia. Considering the generalist nature of the public service system in Namibia today, it is important to provide future administrators with basic knowledge and skills in diverse fields. Thus, this curriculum enables a UNIN graduate to

ibid.

ibid.
function well administratively in whatever government department he or she is placed.

The second year curriculum for the UNIN program meets the NASPAA management skills as identified in figure 8. It also depicts the importance of incorporating the five specialization divisions into the program. The second year curriculum is designed to enhance the student’s understanding of the historical implications of the existing legal, economic, educational, and agricultural policies in Namibia. Such an understanding will provide future administrators with the necessary information for changing or circumventing existing organizational and structural policies already entrenched in government and parastatal organizations. The knowledge and ability to function in this manner will facilitate a feasible transformation from the inherited administrative practices. As discussed in chapter 6, experiences in independent Africa have shown that even after gaining independence, government agencies have continued to operate as before.

One important aspect in the Namibian struggle for independence is the idea of taking into account the experiences of other African independent countries in terms of their successes and failures. It is in light of this that the UNIN in-service training program is quite relevant. The in-service training program offered in the third year provides students with practical experience working with
senior civil servants in various ministries. In addition, by being attached to government departments and working with international organizations on various projects, students are exposed to both on-the-job-training and action training. Furthermore, the third year curriculum provides students with practical experience in their fields of study and the advantage of working in ideologically different systems. For instance, some find secondments in socialist Tanzania and others in capitalist Kenya.

Figure 8 illustrates the type of management skills identified by the NASPAA which are satisfied by the three year program offered at UNIN. The UNIN curriculum seem to cover most of the skills relevant for management in the public sector. The reasons why these skills are covered at UNIN will be discussed in chapter 5. This chapter presents a comparative evaluation of the South African and SWAPO training programs.

Figure 8 Program of the United Nations Institute for Namibia tied to Management Skills required.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Skill</th>
<th>First Year</th>
<th>Second Year</th>
<th>Third Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Management</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Management</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bureaucratic Politics</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Relations</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negotiation</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Motivation</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Procedures</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-ordination</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

"See appendix B for the descriptions of these types of training programs."
In figure 9, the right hand shows the five training programs identified by Kerrigan and Luke, and the tally shows how many of them are implemented at UNIN. As the Figure 9 shows, four of the five programs are implemented. The exception is non-formal training because this applies to employed personnel only.

Figure 10 shows the training methods applied in teaching most courses at UNIN. The Institute utilizes nearly all the methods. The importance of these teaching methods with relation management training has been fully explained in chapter 1.
As a liberation movement, SWAPO is unable to offer job opportunities to all its trained members while waiting for Namibia's independence. However, the organization has made some arrangements so that graduates from the Institute can continue further training at advanced Institutes of Management. Askin notes that most of these graduates continue at British universities. Some of them complete their training as apprentice civil servants in Zambia, Zimbabwe, and other African countries. Another contingent of these graduates take jobs with international organizations or work directly for SWAPO. The Institute also conducts short programs lasting for a year or a few months with the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) in Zambia, IDEP in Senegal, and an Institute of Management in Yugoslavia.

**Summary**

Inadequate educational facilities in Namibia, inadequately trained staff, and the enforcement of the Bantu education system in the country have resulted in few Namibians receiving the basic formal education needed to qualify for institutions of higher education. Consequently, 

there is a great need for management training in order to satisfy the country's manpower needs at independence. This situation has prompted SWAPO to institute basic formal training in its settlements and to facilitate the training of students in public administration. The fact that SWAPO is providing adult education to more 40,000 Namibian men and women in the settlements is quite significant in eradicating illiteracy. At the same time SWAPO's institution of adult education has provided a pool from which the organization selects candidates for management training at the United Nations Institute for Namibia in Lusaka, Zambia, vocational training at the United Nations Vocational Training Center for Namibia in Sumbe, Angola, as well as training in other areas. In addition, more than 4,000 SWAPO supported students are in secondary and post-secondary education and more than 900 have graduated in management from UNIN alone. In spite of efforts by both SWAPO and the United Nations Commissioner for Namibia's Nationhood Program to train public administrators, few Namibians in exile qualify for the available scholarships. With regard to the United Nations Institute for Namibia, an assessment of the Institute's curriculum shows that it meets most of the NASPAA management training skills. However, the students who have graduated thus far are too few in number to fulfill the anticipated demand for trained civil servants in an independent Namibia. In Chapter Five we will present this anticipated demand for
trained civil servants in terms of the current total of personnel in the government.
Chapter Five

Comparative Evaluation of SWAPO and South African Training Programs

In order to evaluate SWAPO and South Africa's training programs effectively, it is important to consider SWAPO's education policy and that of the South African government. In addition, the design of the curriculum, the types of training programs, the methods of instruction, the qualification of training staff, and the performance of training programs are important variables in this evaluation. To achieve an effective management training, an organization or government should stipulate strong educational policies and standards. Adequate educational systems at the primary, secondary, and post-secondary levels can help improve management training efforts in the country.

SWAPO's education policy is aimed at providing all Namibians with the basic right to education. The organization also recognizes the significance education plays in the administrative and economic development of the country. To serve as a foundation for management training, SWAPO has established several primary and secondary schools outside Namibia. The South African government, on the other

hand, lacks the initiative to improve the educational systems in the country. The government has failed to enforce compulsory education except among whites, and a wide disparity persists between the amount of money spent per child on education. In 1980, the South African government in Namibia spent R22 million on white schooling, or R1,210 per white school pupil. By contrast, the government spent R46 million on African schooling, or R232.00 per African school pupil. Because of such inadequate funding and the enforced discriminatory educational policies, provisions for Africans in primary, secondary, and higher education levels have remained poor.67

The importance of basic education as a prerequisite for management training is emphasized by Sargent. He notes that "'without a deep-rooted schooling and university preparation there will be difficulty when training future administrators in subjects such as statistics and economics.'"68 The lack of such background has constrained management training efforts inside Namibia.

When designing the curriculum for a training program, it is important to pose certain questions with regard to its content. Tyagi provides several considerations one should


bear in mind when vested with such a task. For instance, one must consider the respective roles of the general education, the specific training undertaken, and the work experiences of the trainees. One should also consider how to mix institutional training with field training, and how to seek better ways in which specific training can be matched with existing and emerging needs of public administration.\(^6\)

In the case of South Africa's management training programs, the curriculum is designed to produce African administrators who will be able to serve in the bantustans only. Training of this nature is not intended to satisfy national needs, but rather local needs. Civil service personnel who are engaged in the on-going in-service training also encounter administrative problems on their jobs. The knowledge and skills acquired by these civil servants are not fully utilized as they often conflict with the actual work situations. The existing discriminatory practices in Namibia restrict African public administrators from performing certain tasks or responsibilities as these are reserved for whites. For example, the apartheid system denies African civil servants responsibility to authorize or make recommendations on important government projects. As Richardson observes, "the best of training can produce poor results if the initiative of the trainee is stifled and his

opportunities for service are circumscribed by the surroundings in which he has to work." Existing discriminatory practices in Namibia discourage candidates from undergoing management training and inhibit their potential to develop skills on the job.

South African training programs cannot avoid the influence of the dominant value system in the country. It is impossible to train an individual in a value free system. In this regard, those responsible for the training do often disregard the relevancy of their values for the trainees.

As indicated above, most of those responsible for management training or the design of curriculum at both Namibian and South African Institutions are white South Africans. These are mostly graduates from the Whites-only universities. It is important to note that most of these universities for years have been architects of apartheid. Graduates from such institutions are acculturated with the same values, which in turn, they try to inculcate upon their African trainees. In the case of South Africa and Namibia, such values imparted by the white trainers often conflict with those of their African trainees.

70 Cited in Adedeji, Problems and Techniques, p.17.

71 Totemeyer, pp.125-126.

An examination of the curriculum for the United Nations Institute for Namibia indicates that most of the needed management skills identified in Table 9 are satisfied. This is in contrast to the curricula at the ethnic universities and Institutes of Management. In addition, there is a wide disparity between the credentials held by staffs responsible for management training at the South African controlled institutions and those at the Institute for Namibia in Lusaka. Even though the South African ethnic universities and Institutes of Management are intended to train middle level and senior level administrators, the credentials of most instructors at these institutions are below the masters degree. On the other hand, the UNIN staff which is responsible for training middle level managers possess mostly masters degrees and other post-graduate qualifications. As Murphy observes, the advantages for recruiting qualified staff in this context involves the instructor’s ability to provide effective training "as well as undertaking research in a variety of fields." He further points out that experiences shown in Africa and elsewhere proves that "staff with higher academic qualification make better research officers."

A comparative evaluation of the South African and SWAPO training institutions corroborates the above statement. The

73UNIN Prospectus, 1981/82.

74Cited in Adedeji, Problems and Techniques, pp.59-63.
United Nations Institute for Namibia has conducted and published several research studies with regard to manpower estimates for Namibia as well as the economic, educational, legal, and political situations in the country. Inside Namibia, by contrast, the lack of concern and the inability of training institutions to do research on Namibia is evident. As the government admits, Namibia currently lacks the qualified manpower to conduct research. Therefore, it has vested that responsibility with the South African-based Council for Human Science and Research. The council's obligation is to conduct several research projects related to Namibia. In addition, the agency is obliged to identify local research communities or institutions and to identify national problem areas where research ought to be conducted. To date, the only research done by this agency is a survey on the use of language for communication in Namibia. The lack of research on Namibia is also evident at the Whites-only universities of South Africa. The University of South Africa (UNISA) provides a good example of this disturbing situation. In spite of its status and a large student population averaging 90,000 per year, the University's library lacks any published material on public

UNIN Prospectus 1981

administration and management training in Namibia.\textsuperscript{77}

With regard to training methods, the Institute for Namibia utilizes various techniques including case studies, audio/visual aids, lectures and management game techniques.\textsuperscript{78} Most of these teaching methods as illustrated in Table 6 are rarely employed at the South African controlled institutions.

The final evaluation process involves the performance of training programs. Rowe regards this part of program evaluation as the most significant one because it provides the assessment of the training program, assessment of the trainees, as well as the goals of training as measured through anticipated outcomes of training.\textsuperscript{79} Output from the South African management training efforts indicates that insufficient personnel have been trained to supply adequately the present and future demands for middle and senior level administrators. According to the 1981 government report, 6,222 employees went through formal training in fields such as nursing, police, paramedics, clerks, railway and post and telecommunications personnel, craftsmen, technicians, and drivers. During the same year, the government issued bursaries to 1,496 prospective

\textsuperscript{77}Personal correspondence from Mary Lynne Suttie, Subject Librarian: Public Administration, University of South Africa, 2 March 1988.

\textsuperscript{78}UNIN Prospectus 1981.

\textsuperscript{79}Adedeji 1969, p141.
employees to study at the higher education level in fields such as medicine, education, jurisprudence, administration, and economic sciences. This brings the total number of trainees for the year 1980/81 to 7,718, or 0.005 percent of the total Namibian population of 1.5 million at the time.\footnote{SWA/Namibia Today, Windhoek: SWA/Namibia Information Service, 1981, p. 28.} On the other hand, SWAPO, with its limited financial and human resources, has managed to train through the Institute for Namibia alone more than 900 middle level administrators since the inception of the institute. Enrollment at UNIN has more than doubled since the Institute’s inception ten years ago, from 100 students in 1976 to 450 students in 1987.\footnote{Askin, p. 42.} Furthermore, the combined United Nations and SWAPO trained cadres of 3,000 personnel, or 3 percent of the 100,000 exiles, shows that both organizations put an emphasis on management training as a long term solution to the manpower problems Namibia is likely to encounter at independence. The 1980/81 total number of South African trained personnel of 7,718 cannot be broken down to how many among these were trained for lower level, middle level or senior level management. Nevertheless, the total of 10,718 personnel trained by both SWAPO and the South African government falls behind the anticipated number of trained personnel at independence.
SWAPO estimates put Namibia's civil service at 55,000 strong including parastatal organizations. Among these, 18,000 (or 32.72 percent) are white personnel distributed within the central and local administrations as well as parastatal organizations. According to UNIN estimates, 13,000 of the 18,000 whites hold posts in the central government, 2,000 in local governments, and 3,000 work for parastatal organizations. Of the 37,000 African civil servants, 24,000 work for the central government, 4,000 for local governments, and 9,000 work for parastatals. Rotberg's estimate indicates that of the 105,000 White population, 55,000 are settlers and 50,000 are expatriates. Such a large number of expatriates shows the number of personnel expected to leave Namibia at independence. Among the 18,000 white civil service personnel, 9,000 (or 50 percent) are expected to leave. Under such circumstances, there will exist 9,000 vacant positions in the civil service. In addition to the number of white personnel leaving the country, SWAPO recommends a reduction of about 5,500 (or 10 percent) of the total civil service because of existing redundancies. This will reduce the number of the civil service from 55,000 to 49,500 and leave 9,000 vacancies. Furthermore, SWAPO recommends a redirection into training of about 15 percent or 5,550 of the total African personnel of 37,000. The

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UNIN 1986, p. 813.

Rotberg, p. 105.
respective government can do this in various ways. Such redirection into training can take the form of in-service training or formal training. Altogether, the total need for trained personnel at independence will come to 14,550.\textsuperscript{8c}

**Summary**

The education policy professed by a government or an organization, as in the case of South Africa and SWAPO, can have an impact on management training. To a great extent, existing value systems does influence what should be incorporated in the curriculum. Analysis of South African training programs reveals that deficiencies exist. These include lack of qualified staff at both the high school and university levels, lack of commitment on the part of the South African government to improve education for Africans at all levels, and the curricula at institutions of Public Administration which fail to train students in all eleven management skills identified by NASPAA. This analysis also revealed that while the UNIN curriculum meets these standards, too few Namibian exiles are eligible for scholarships. Further, given the current student enrollment at UNIN, the Institute alone cannot solve the anticipated shortage of trained personnel for an independent Namibia. Chapter 6 will make recommendations on how to improve

\textsuperscript{8c}UNIN 1986, p. 802.
management training efforts in light of these deficiencies.
Chapter Six

Recommendations for Ongoing Training Programs

A review of the current management training efforts for a post-independent Namibia revealed deficiencies in the anticipated supply of trained personnel. In addition, problems such as the lack of adequate educational policies, the design of curriculum content, the types of programs offered, their location, staffing, and the way they are funded, all constrain management training in Namibia.

There is a pressing need to revamp the current education system in Namibia. The existing system has resulted in few matriculants qualifying for university entrance or Institutes of Public Administration. In spite of current efforts by SWAPO and the colonial government to train civil servants, there remains a great demand for the supply of trained junior level, middle level, and senior level managers to serve an independent Namibia.

On-going management training efforts should address this anticipated problem of insufficient trained personnel. Special emphasis needs to be placed on training institutions inside Namibia. Although this study may not have an impact in today's South African-controlled Namibia, it is intended, nevertheless, to provide suggestions related to improving on-going management training programs in the country as well.
as how such programs may be carried out in a post independent Namibia.

In the preceding chapters, we have identified five management training programs. These include formal training, in-formal training, in-service training, on-the-job training, and action training. These training programs are utilized by most institutes of public administration and are acceptable to most trainers for the civil service. They are vital to management training as they provide additional knowledge and skills to all levels of management. As figure 6 shows, these programs are not utilized effectively by management training institutions in Namibia and South Africa. The analysis in Chapter 3 reveals that in-service training, non-formal training, and on-the-job training programs which are implemented by these institutions are not successfully utilized to increase the number of qualified personnel as well as improving the quality of such personnel. There is a deliberate attempt by the South African government to keep the number of trained civil servants low in order to maintain the status quo in Namibia. Therefore, it will be futile for this paper to make policy recommendations to currently structured training institutions in Namibia and South Africa with regard to implementation of these five training programs. This is because training policies in these institutions reflect the orientation of the government. With relation to the number
of candidates to be trained, it is also clear that most civil servants who attend Institutes of Public Administration are government employees and their numbers are determined by the number of bursaries the government is prepared to offer.

However, the author does recommend that at independence in-service training, action training, and on-the-job training program should be offered by a local Institute of Public Administration. In this regard, transferring the present Institute for Namibia in Lusaka to Namibia may provide a short-term solution. The present curriculum of the institute is adequate for middle-level management. The training of middle-level managers is designed as a short term management training strategy to alleviate manpower shortages if Namibia obtains its independence soon. However, when this institution is transferred to an independent Namibia, it will have to include all three levels of management in its training program. Its curriculum will be expanded to include courses such as public finance and auditing for senior level managers.

Non-formal training is an important method to be applied at independence. Its application will be facilitated by abolishing existing social barriers. Under favorable conditions, this approach will enable senior officers will be able to meet and exchange views and the latest information on the administrative aspects of their
government or organization. This method will be facilitated by the possibility of training civil servants who will be able to communicate with personnel in all parts of the country. The use of English as an official language can play a significant role in this process. SWAPO has long implemented this policy, but it was not until recently that the South African-controlled government in Namibia introduced English as a medium of instruction in several schools.

The curriculum content for Namibia's Institute of Management should address the management needs in the country. The UNIN study indicates that the curricula for Namibia's institutions of higher learning will have to be reorganized so that their educational objectives coincide with the "socio-political and economic goals of the country." In most cases, poorly designed curricula are often the result of lack of prior knowledge about the specific problems which the training program intends to solve. To achieve this objective, Kerrigan and Luke observe that indigenous scholars must undertake intensive research in order to identify the relevant skills that should be incorporated in the training content and curricula. Each

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UNIN 1986, p. 530.
training program should specify what type of skills it is trying to impart and how beneficial such skills are to the rest of the country. Without these considerations, much energy can be wasted. Morgan provides an example of a Zambian rural development case where "rural project managers revealed that only about 30 percent of the curriculum addressed their real needs." When designing curriculum for a course in Office Administration, for instance, a curriculum developer should address administrative needs regarding communication skills, writing skills, supervision and control of the office, procurement of office supplies, and the various office procedures required for managing an office.

With relation to Namibia, a curriculum for a Namibian Institute of Public Administration should incorporate new methods by which civil servants could change the rules and regulations governing most government and parastatal organizations in Namibia. Research should be conducted to examine how existing government and parastatal structures can be changed and which of these need to be changed. Knowledge gained from such research will restrain these agencies from operating the way they did before the country attained independence. As Robert Seidman observed, experiences from other African countries and Southern Africa in particular have shown that replacing personnel without

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"Morgan, p. 14."
restructuring and changing the rules and functions of some of the government organizations will impede expected progress as these institutions will continue to operate as before. The views, interests, and ideologies of most senior and middle level bureaucrats in Namibia today reflect those of the South African government which intends to maintain the status quo. This will also require research into ways of re-educating the civil service, especially African civil service personnel, as these are currently used to the dictatorial and autocratic methods of the civil service in Namibia today. Research in this area should address the question of how existing personnel can be encouraged to create a participatory atmosphere through communication.

Chapter one reviewed problems which have constrained management training in most African Institutes of Public Administration and Management. Problems with regard to staffing and funding of training programs are among the crucial ones. Inadequate supply of qualified personnel and inadequate funding have impeded most of the African management training institutions from pursuing their intended objectives. When establishing such institutions in

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Robert Seidman emphasized this point to Namibian and South African students attending a Southern African Summer Program held at Clark University in 1988. Since Namibia and South Africa are not yet liberated, students from these areas should start to think through research how they will be able to transform existing organization in order to implement the desired change.
an independent Namibia, the ruling government must realize that such problems also will occur in the new political situation. The present United Nations Institute for Namibia in Lusaka is devoid of such problems because its programs and staff are funded by international organizations and foreign governments. For example, the Institute is currently funded by seven countries including the United States, Canada, France, the Netherlands, Sweden, Norway and the Federal Republic of Germany. In addition, the Ford Foundation has contributed about $250,000 to the Institute's research projects. At the time of independence and after this institution is transferred to Namibia, the government there must expect to take over most of these financial responsibilities.

Considering Namibia's population and current civil service demands, only one Management Training Institute will be required. Such an arrangement will reduce duplication of programs. It will also facilitate adequate funding for existing programs and will enable the institution to attract more qualified staff as enough funds will be available to offer them attractive salaries. The relationship between the Institute and the government shall be reflected in the institute's training policy which will then be linked to the overall educational policy of the government. This will also provide a strong linkage between the client government departments and the Institute. Existing Institutes of Public
Administration in Southern Africa provide a good example of this. They are mostly government supported, and to a great extent their respective governments are their clients. Examples of these include the Zimbabwe Institute of Public Administration and Management (ZIPAM), which is under the Zimbabwe Public Service Commission, the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) in Zambia, which is a department within a government ministry, the Institute of Financial Management (IFM) in Dar es Salaam, which is government operated, and the Swaziland Institute of Management and Public Administration (SIMPA), which is part of the Ministry of Labor and Public Service. In most cases, in-service training programs conducted at these institutions are directly funded by government ministries. In this case, the Institute of Public Administration in post-independent Namibia will have to be in consultation with the respective departments in order to be aware of the agency’s needs and be able to impart the relevant skills. At the same time the Institute should strive to maintain its independence from the government interference in areas of curriculum design.

Namibia’s future relation with the Southern African Development Co-Ordination Conference (SADCC) countries is important. Upon independence, the country should join the

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conference in order to utilize the already existing public service training institutions. Management training programs not offered at the newly established Namibian Institute of Management will be available at the Regional and National Institutes of Management within the SADCC countries. The Mananga Agricultural Management Center in Swaziland and The Eastern and Southern African Management Institute (ESAMI) are good examples. The Mananga Agricultural Center, for instance, specializes in training agricultural administrators. ESAMI, on the other hand, trains personnel in transport management, project planning and management as well as marketing and export promotions. Such programs will not be available immediately at the Namibian Institute of Public Administration. Another important reason for co-operation with these regional training institutions is that such co-operation can serve as the means through which solutions for various management problems in the region can be channelled. In addition, the process of exchanging administrative experiences among the countries will be intensified through such co-operation.

The University of Namibia will be responsible for formal training. This kind of training will also be offered by overseas universities as well as by either African universities. The nature of the post-independent

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\[\text{77When Namibia attains its independence, the new government will want to send its students for study abroad. There are several reasons for this. First, it is obvious}\]
University of Namibia is fully discussed in the UNIN study, "Namibia—Perspectives for National Reconstruction and Development." This study does not intend to design a curriculum for a Namibian university. However, as the UNIN study indicates, the aim of such a university should be:

(1) training people who are capable of participating in the process of decision-making and independent judgement for the service to their community and to Namibia as whole;

(2) developing a scientific and research infrastructure as the basis for national development; and

(3) training Namibians who can use their intellectual skills and energies to generate solutions to problems.

The curriculum for a graduate program at the University of Namibia should include courses in research methods, public finance, management, theory, policy analysis and behavior. When selecting their electives, students must be encouraged to choose courses in economics and other relevant disciplines. In addition, the curriculum should incorporate special courses for political education, ethics, and professionalism. Such courses will be able to minimize that there will be a great demand for people trained in higher education in a newly independent Namibia. Second, several countries, as well as the United Nations, will continue their support to train Namibians in this area. Since the University of Namibia alone cannot accommodate everyone, many will have to study elsewhere.

UNIN, Perspectives for National Reconstruction, pp. 531-534.

ibid., p. 531.
problems of corruption, nepotism and tribalism which most prevalent in most independent African countries.

In conclusion, this study has shown that Namibia will need more trained personnel for its government and parastatal sectors at independence. Inside Namibia, the South African government has shown no enthusiasm to improve this situation as it intends to maintain the status quo. SWAPO on the other hand, foresees the problems an independent Namibia will have to encounter at independence and, therefore, is using a short-term strategy of training as many middle-level managers as possible. Although SWAPO has trained a considerable number of civil servants, it does not mean that management training needs in terms of the number of trained personnel needed for an independent Namibia have been met. In recognition of this problem, SWAPO has organized programs in which graduates from the Institute for Namibia continue senior level management training at university level. These programs have been discussed in Chapter Four. However, the numbers of SWAPO-trained personnel will help reduce the number of anticipated expatriates to be recruited at independence. At independence, the whole educational structure and policies will change. This will create a favorable atmosphere for a training program that is responsive to the country’s management needs.
Appendix A

Curriculum outline for the B.A., Honors and Masters degree in Public Administration at the University of Fort Hare.

Public Administration.

Course I (First Year)

Paper I: General Introduction to the study of Public Administration.
  (1) Public Administration relation to other social sciences.
  (2) Historical development of the field of Public Administration.
  (3) Selection of basic principles in Public Administration.
  (4) Bureaucracy:
      (a) the development of bureaucracy
      (b) characteristics, power and problems of bureaucracies.

Paper II: Descriptive and historical aspects of the institutional framework of Public Administration.
  (1) History of government institutions in South Africa.
  (2) Reasons for the existence of local authorities with special reference to South Africa.
  (3) Duties, powers and functions of councils and town clerks.
  (4) Analyses of the systems of the local authorities in South Africa.

Course II (Second Year)

Paper I:
  (1) The determination of policy in the public sector.
  (2) Personnel Administration
  (3) Analyses of the functions and administrative institutions of a municipality.

Paper II:
  (1) Organization theory.
  (2) Public financial administration.

Course III (Third Year)

Paper I:
  (1) Parliamentary control over executive institutions.
  (2) Control over regional and municipal authorities.
  (3) A comparative study of municipal systems.

Paper II: International Public Administration.
  (1) Analyses of the origin, nature and evolution of international institutions.
  (2) Characteristics, objectives and classification of international institutions.
  (3) Problems of civil servants.
Paper III:
(1) Development administration and planning.
(2) Modern techniques in Public Administration.

Honors
For this degree students are required to write four question papers. Two of these are selected from Part I and the other two from Part II. In addition students write one approved article from Part III.

Part I:
Paper A. Advanced theories and value foundations of Public Administration.
Paper C. Advanced financial administration in the public sector.
Paper D. Advanced international Public Administration.
Paper E. Special problems of decision making within the ecology of Public Administration.

Part II:
Paper F. Advanced study of special contemporary problems of central and local governments.
Paper I. Advanced study of the problems of developing states with special reference to Africa. Taking into account the quality of officials, urbanization and economic development.

Part III: Consists of an article of about 20 to 30 pages on an approved topic in the field of Public Administration. The article must reflect the student's ability to work independently.

Masters Examination.
Consists of a dissertation on a subject in Public Administration. It should show evidence of originality. This is supplemented by an oral examination based on prescribed literature.

Source: Reproduced from the University of Fort Hare handbook 1986.
Appendix B

Common Training Methods for Public Managers.

**Action training.** Its main goals are:

(a) to learn relevant knowledge  
(b) To acquire and to utilize skills and techniques relevant to the teams assignment.  
(c) to adopt and invent new skills and techniques in order to successfully implement the teams project.  
(d) to internalize project-related attitudes and norms.  
(e) to enhance organization projects and improve work-related problems.

**Formal training.** Its goals are:

(a) the transmission of packaged knowledge  
(b) the acquisition of conventional skills and techniques, and  
(c) the development of appropriate attitudes.

**Non-formal training.** According to this approach, groups of managers meet and share ideas through information exchange and emotional support. This is achieved through social affiliations. As Kerrigan and Luke indicate, this kind of training approach is most appropriate to higher level managers because current and up to date information is most crucial to them.

**On-the-job-training.** This involves training of lower level managers by senior personnel officers. It is more of an apprenticeship method. Upon acquiring the relevant knowledge and skills, the trainee is expected to take over responsibilities previously held by the senior officer.

**In-service management training.** It aims at increasing ones job related knowledge to improve performance. It offers services to junior managers, middle level managers and senior managers.

Appendix C

First year Course at UNIN in Development management.

Aims and objectives of course:
To enable students gain a clear understanding of management theories, to comprehend and analyze administrative practices.
Upon completion of the course, students are expected to explain and apply management principles, to direct and coordinate implementation of development projects and to explain issues of human and public relations.

Course Outline
Organization, directing (leadership, co-ordination and communication), decision-making, control, human relations, public relations, personnel management, labor relations, and state control management.

Methods of Instruction
Half of the course’s duration is spent on lectures and the other half on tutorials. Book reports and examinations are the modes of assessment.

Source: Reproduced with modification from UNIN Prospectus 1981.
Appendix D

Second Year Curriculum. The five specialization divisions.

Inter-Divisional Research and Techniques Development Planning.

A. Agricultural and Land Resources Division
   (i) Crop production
   (ii) Animal production
   (iii) Natural Resources Conservation
   (iv) Rural development
   (v) Planning agricultural development
   (vi) Agricultural administration.

B. Constitutional, Legal and Judicial Affairs Division
   (i) International law
   (ii) International institutions
   (There are four other legal related courses offered).

C. Economic Division
   (i) Public finance
   (There are five other economic and finance related courses offered).

D. Historical, Political and Cultural Division
   (i) Some major themes and issues in political theory
   (ii) History of Southern Africa
   (iii) Development administration
   (iv) International relations and diplomacy
   (v) Political economy of Namibia
   (vi) Administration of the public service with reference to Namibia.

E. Social and Educational Division
   (i) Comparative approach to contemporary educational systems
   (ii) Intercultural communication
   (iii) Introduction to psychology
   (iv) Education development in Namibia
   (v) Social dynamics in Namibia
   (vi) Planning, organization and administration of health services.

Source: Reproduced from UNIN Prospectus 1981.
Appendix E

Second year course outline for Agricultural Administration

Aim and objectives: To acquaint students with various administrative and extension organs of the Ministry of Agriculture and their roles in extension programs. To be able to explain to farmers simple techniques and technology of agricultural improvement.

Course outline
Introduction to Agricultural Administration and organization. Study of the Department of Agriculture, its sub-organizations and their functions as well as their inter-departmental nature. Personnel administration with special reference to qualification of staff, their positions, their duties and responsibilities and staff relations. Administration and supervision of personnel and the constraints on administration and supervision of personnel. The link between research and consulting and the role of agricultural extension in promoting agricultural development in Namibia.

Methods of Instruction.
Total course hours divided between lectures and tutorials. These include practicals, field visits and audio-visual aids.
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