PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) 
AT 
SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES 

PATRICK AQUILA NQOBIZITHA NKOSI-KANDABA 

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B.Paed, B.Ed, SSTD(UZ), M.Ed(UFS)

A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND

Promoter: Professor P T Sibaya
Co-Promoter: Professor A Song

17 NOVEMBER 2004
DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that this thesis is my own original work and that it has never been presented in part or in its entirety at this or any other universities in order to obtain a degree.

7 May 2005

DATE

PANIKOSI-KANDABA
DEDICATION

- First and foremost, I dedicate this research work to my **Triune God** for the grace, the providence, the brains and the brawn **He** granted me to face and overcome the challenges that went with this exercise. I can only but say, **“To God be the Glory!”**

- This work is also dedicated to my mother, Anna Mamana “Mbulo”, whose belief in education and endeavors to educate us, caused her to sacrifice everything just for us. Thank you **Lindisa KaMakhungu KaGutshwayo**! May God bless you with your heart’s best desires and longevity as well.

- The work is also dedicated to my friend, brother, fellow Christian, colleague, supporter and advisor for twenty-two years, Mr Themba Tobias Mngomezulu. He passed on to the Lord on the 10th of June 2002. He is greatly missed for his support, encouragement and humble spirit. God bless his family especially his wife KaMaphanga.

- It is also dedicated to the deceased educationalist, the stalwart, Prof A J Thembela, former Vice-Rector (Academic Affairs & Research) of the University of Zululand. He inspired and moulded us, as students, into self-reliant, accountable and responsible educators and managers through role-modelling. His trusting me with serious responsibilities humbled me indeed.

- It is also dedicated to my friend and brother Mr Linda Masondo and his family. He passed on to the Lord in February 2004, having collected a lot of valuable material for my study. He is greatly missed for being an
• inspiration to me and my family. May his family be blessed!
• Finally, this research is dedicated to our two children Nozibusiso Thulisile and her brother, Zibusiso Mnqobi for bearing with me during my research commitments. This is meant to inspire them to do better than this. May you bear in mind that:

   Education is your life.
   Guard it well. (King Solomon)
SUMMARY

This study examined the practice of participative decision making (PDM) at South African universities. The first aim was to investigate the extent to which these institutions practice participative decision making. The second aim was to establish whether certain managers' characteristics influence the practice of participative decision making. The third aim sought to determine whether there is any difference among institutions in the practice of participative decision making. Finally, the fourth aim was to determine whether there is any association among ranks assigned by adjudicators/respondents to six participative decision making (PDM) steps.

To this end a research instrument called a questionnaire, was designed and used to achieve these aims. Moreover, this research instrument, after construction by the researcher, was validated by means of factor analysis (FA). The research instrument was first administered as a pilot sample of one hundred and twenty managers at the University of Zululand's main and Durban-Umlazi Campuses.

The final instrument was administered to a sample of managers at universities in the whole country. Two hundred and twenty-six (226) managers completed and returned
questionnaires. The two hundred and twenty-six questionnaires were to be correctly analyzed.

Each of the aims was tied to a null hypothesis and an alternative one. All in all, eight hypotheses were formulated. The Chi-square ($\chi^2$) one sample test was employed to test for managers’ perceptions about participative decision making (PDM). The outcome was that managers hold negative perceptions about participative decision making. This leads to the conclusion that university managers do not practice participative decision making (PDM). The difference between those who hold positive perception (52.2%) and negative perception (47.48%) were not statistically significant.

The second hypothesis which addressed the second aim was tested by means of a Chi-square one sample test as well as in all variables of this aim.

It was found that gender has a positive relationship with regards to decision making, as perceived by the managers. So, gender was found to be statistically significant. However, the rest, such as, age, experience, religion, rank, and type of institution, were perceived by managers to have no relationship with the practice of participative decision making (PDM).
The penultimate aim’s hypothesized position was rejected as statistically insignificant since managers’ perceptions pointed in the direction of the “no difference exists” between institutions studied. The F and t tests were employed to determine this outcome. The last aim’s hypothesis was found be statistically significant after the Kendall W Coefficient of Concordance was applied to establish association. This means that there is an agreement assigned by the respondents.

Finally, these findings were discussed in relation to the relevant literature reviewed and interpreted within the framework of educational management. Suggestions were made with regard to studying managers’ attitude toward participatory decision making, as well as on women managers’ support, gender issues, all in relation to PDM.

More important is the suggestion that a development of research instrument be undertaken for the measurement of attitudes towards participatory management at tertiary institutions.
QUOTATION

Participative decision making (PDM) is a powerful antidote for employee complacency and failure in organizations. It taps the unique resources of those individuals, creates a collaborative learning experience, and produces results that are far greater than the sum total of individuals. The benefits far outweigh the risk and problems.

(Plunkett & Fournier, 1992)
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The author wishes to give credits to people and organizations whose names appear hereunder. Without their sense of magnanimity this study would not have easily materialized.

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<td>ADM</td>
<td>Authoritative Decision Making</td>
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<td>Centralised Decision Making</td>
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<tr>
<td>CDM</td>
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<td>Committee of Technikon Principals</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The participation of all stakeholders, or at least their representatives, in the decision making processes that inform the day-to-day running of South African universities is, apparently, a closed book. In such institutions not much has been produced in terms of participative research, even though major democratic changes have been introduced in South Africa, and by that very fact, in all its public institutions, including those of higher learning.

It is now ten years since the inauguration of democracy in South Africa on the 27th of April 1994. The Education White Paper 3 entitled A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education that was issued by the former Minister of Education, Prof S M Bhengu, clarifies the issue of democratizing universities as follows:

The principle of democratization requires that governance of the system of higher education and of individual institutions should be democratic, representative and participatory and characterized by mutual respect, tolerance and the maintenance of a well-ordered and peaceful community life.
Structures and procedures should ensure that those affected by decisions have a say in making them, either directly or through elected representatives. It requires that the decision-making process at the systemic institutional and departmental levels are transparent, and that those taking and implementing decisions are accountable for the manner in which they perform their duties and use resources (Education White Paper 3, 1997:6).

The above citation outlines the policy of the Department of Education in South Africa with respect to governance issues in higher education.

The pronouncement cited above further emphasizes the need for the democratization of universities by being open to participatory decision making, hereafter referred to as PDM, processes at every level and structure, be it at macro, meso or micro level. Moreover the department calls for accountability on the part of those responsible for making or taking and implementing decisions. In short, these institutions are required by legislation to implement democratic practices through participatory means.

In comparison one wonders whether any common ground can be found as to how universities involve their stakeholders in the decision-making processes (Education
White Paper 3, 1997). This is also necessary in order to determine whether the abolition of apartheid and its dictatorial decision-making processes really came to an end, thus giving way to democratic and participatory patterns of arriving at decisions. Furthermore, one wonders whether the top management of universities, especially the principals, ensure that democratization permeates all structures and levels of these institutions.

The terms principal and rector are used interchangeably in this study. The English-medium universities prefer the use of principal, whereas the Afrikaans-medium and historically disadvantaged universities use rector (Dlamini, 1994: 373). This study forms part of current investigations that are being undertaken in South Africa in order to find out to what extent democratization is taking place at the universities of the country. Such an investigation is necessary as these institutions’ tasks include knowledge production through research, dissemination of knowledge and skills development. For this reason they are counted upon by the nation to make informed and wise judgements on a wide range of issues, including democracy and participation in decision making.
Existing studies under survey reflect that very little has been done locally with regard to participatory decision making, especially in the case of higher education institutions. Dlamini (1994:179-356) devotes some reflection to universities in particular, including demands by students to participate in decision making. This tendency among students commenced in Europe, the United States of America and the Netherlands, and then spread to other countries.

However, studies conducted on PDM in so far as it applies outside the country and involving universities, on one hand, and local and foreign universities, business and industries on the other hand, abounds. Such studies include the works of Obondo (1998), who focuses on two Kenyan Universities; Buhlunugu (1996), who focuses on trade unions; Booley (1996), who focuses on supervision; Giamatti, (1981) who points out the importance of accommodating the public interest in the decision making processes of universities in particular, while Marks and Louis (1999), specialize in management in teacher empowerment. Naidoo (2002), broadly focuses not only on education decentralization in South Africa but also in the Sub-Saharan Africa. This is another call for the participation of all stakeholders in an education institution.
Furthermore, Collins (1997), Drago and Wooden (1991), and Dayton (1993), have done a great deal of work regarding participation of employees in the decision making in the workplace. Simpson (1998), Horwitz (1981), McCune (2001), and Koning (1995), have focused on the effectiveness and propensity to participate on the part of the worker. Although these researchers have focused on the aspects of industry and business, their work sheds some light on how PDM could be applied to education institutions in South Africa.

However, some of the studies conducted outside the country on PDM applications at universities specifically show, inter alia, the following trends.

Obondo's (1998) work, based on research in decision-making conducted at two African universities, namely Kenyatta and Nairobi, in Kenya, is worthy of citation. Obondo reveals that within the universities, academic and management staff and students are often in disagreement with their administration (1998:4). Administrators are seen as defenders of the state that appointed them, and that they further implement government directives. Heads of departments and directors of institutes are often perceived
to limit decision-making in that they resort to single-handed decisions, which they then present to faculty boards as views from the members. Academics are often too preoccupied with issues of teaching and research, and therefore, limited time for meetings. Finally, student associations are often banned or co-opted as extensions of the administration.

Situations akin to that reported by Obondo (1998) have been noted, along with dire consequences, in certain South African universities. For example, conflict has reigned supreme in some of these institutions and has resulted in costly damage to property. In other institutions, accusations have been leveled at the principals, followed by demands for their immediate resignation or expulsion. Former Mangosuthu Technikon in Durban, and former University of the North are, inter alia, examples of these atrocious acts. This study seeks to investigate these issues.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Successful participation of stakeholders in decision making, depending on how it has been implemented, has been hailed as not only aiding administrative aspects of an organization,
but also as improving the politics of administration. As observed by Alelen-Williams (Obondo 1998:6):

A vice-chancellor who feels too busy to interact with his staff and students even occasionally is less likely to succeed than the one who takes off time to meet staff and students...

Some form of the culture of conflicts and grievances in certain cases, is vocalized, and in others silenced. This continues to mar certain higher education institutions, especially universities. The list goes on and on. The department of education has had to intervene in some cases, where commissions of inquiry have been instituted by the minister.

According to Dlamini (1994:355), students felt that they were entitled to participate in the structures of governance of universities, including all governance structures, in view of the fact that universities were seen to be sluggish in times of rapid change. This resulted in unpalatable situation which could be avoided by engaging students and allowing them to participate in issues that directly affect them and that are at their level.
According to Obondo (1998:10), it appears that the problems of universities increase when mutual communication fails, usually between the administration and stakeholders. In view of this, the following research questions arose, which the study attempted to address:

1.2.1 To what extent do universities practise PDM?

1.2.2 Do managers’ biographical data have influence on PDM?

1.2.3 What are the differences, if any, among institutions regarding PDM practice?

1.2.4 Is there any agreement among the ranks assigned by the respondents with respect to PDM activities?

1.3 THE AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aims of this study are:

1.3.1 To determine the extent to which universities practise PDM.
1.3.2 To find out whether managers' biographical data influence the practice of PDM. The biographical data include gender, age, experience, qualification, rank, religion and institution type.

1.3.3 To establish differences, if any, amongst institutions regarding PDM.

1.3.4 To establish whether there is agreement among ranks assigned by the respondents to various activities of a PDM nature.

1.4 FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses are assumed to fulfil the aims of the investigation:

1.4.1 \( H_0 = \) Universities do not practise PDM.
\( H_1 = \) Universities do practise PDM.

1.4.2 \( H_0 = \) Managers' biographical data do not influence the practice of PDM.
\( H_1 = \) Managers' biographical data do influence the practice of PDM.
1.4.3 \( H_0 = \) Differences cannot be established among institutions with regard to PDM.
\( H_1 = \) Differences can be established among institutions with regard to PDM.

1.4.4 \( H_0 = \) There is no agreement among ranks assigned by the respondents to various activities of a PDM nature.
\( H_1 = \) There is agreement among ranks assigned by the respondents to various activities of a PDM nature.

1.5 DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following important concepts associated with this study are defined in the context in which they are employed here:

1.5.1 PARTICIPATORY DECISION MAKING (PDM)

In this study participatory decision making is the participation in the decision making, referred to as PDM, and involves processes and structures of those who manage at universities.
For Ouchi (1981:66), PDM in its basic form is a collegial, consensual, and democratic form of management, and its collaborative nature reflects its endeavour to treat people or professionals according to merit; its overt avoidance of hierarchically imposed forms of authority and the retention of all generally accepted components of management (planning, organizing, leading and controlling) is reflected in an appropriately adapted form in participatory patterns.

It is characterized by participation in decision making by all concerned and the assignment of meritorious autonomy on the basis of professional competence and capability to those who participate (Im undo, 1980:88; Sashkin, 1984: 12; Stoner & Freeman, 1989: 375). Furthermore, these scholars recommend PDM as a method of choice for those institutions that are serious about democratization. PDM is used interchangeably with group decision making according to van der Westhuizen (1991:155), and with involvement in decision making (Ndaba, 1995:6).

1.5.2 UNIVERSITY

In this study the term “university” refers to firstly, traditional universities of liberal arts, science, commerce, law, theology and education. Secondly, it refers to
universities of technology formerly known as technikons. This is in keeping with the government restructuring and transformation programme. Consequently, some former technikons have merged with certain universities, while others have done so with other former technikons to form the new universities of technology. So, in this study universities of technology and former technikons will be used interchangeably in some cases.

For an example, South Africa now have Tshwane University of Science and Technology which was known as Pretoria Technikon. Still in the pipe line is the merger of former technikons, such as Border and Eastern Cape with the University of Transkei to form a Walter Sisulu University of Science and Technology.

In the case of South Africa the picture regarding the universities is such that there are historically advantaged, historically disadvantaged as well as historically Afrikaans-medium and historically English-medium, ones. This division is due to the long history of apartheid, which the new system of higher education is addressing through the transformation and reconstruction programme approved by government in 2001.
1.6 PLAN OF STUDY

This study is organised as follows:

1.6.1 CHAPTER ONE

This chapter consists of a motivation for the investigation in the field of problem; the statement of the problem; aims of the study, and a plan for the scientific execution thereof.

1.6.2 CHAPTER TWO

This chapter provides a consideration of PDM as a management tool in South African universities, as well as an indication of how these institutions operated before the democratic era. Also featuring in this chapter are the models or approaches that both underpin and influence PDM. These also serve as guidelines with regard to the review of relevant literature, which is dealt with in chapter three.

1.6.3 CHAPTER THREE

Chapter three provides a theoretical framework for this study. Relevant empirical studies pertaining to PDM are reviewed, while the aims of the study serve as sub-headings
for this chapter. These sub-headings cover the extent to which universities practice PDM as well as common, observable characteristics among these institutions and the extent to which biographical data influence PDM.

1.6.4 CHAPTER FOUR

This chapter details the research design and methodology of the study, which are discussed in detail. Among other things described in this chapter are the questionnaire and interview schedules, how data is collected, the selection of subjects, a plan for organization and analysis of data.

1.6.5 CHAPTER FIVE

Chapter four concerns itself with the empirical investigation. It describes how fieldwork was carried out and how the scale was administered. It also caters for the presentation and analysis of data. The hypotheses formulated in chapter one, are also tested in this chapter.

1.6.6 CHAPTER SIX

This chapter details the discussion of the results based on the findings reported in chapters four and five.
1.6.7 CHAPTER SEVEN

This chapter concludes the final report, including summary, recommendations, limitations and avenues for future research as well as limitations of the study.
CHAPTER TWO

2.0 PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) AT SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES AND CONCEPTUAL MODELS THAT INFORM PDM

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The significance of this chapter lies in the fact that since this research seeks to determine, *inter alia*, the extent to which universities practise participative decision making in a country that had practised "secluded democracy" based on apartheid ideology before 1994. A brief background of this past is a *sine qua non* for the proper execution of this study.

As has been highlighted above this research is predicated upon participative decision making in higher education institutions of South Africa. The appeal made in 1996 by the former president of this country, Dr NR Mandela, to the vice-chancellors of universities to engage these institutions in transformation consistent with the values and goals of democracy, is significant for this study. Whether this call was heeded, remains to be seen. Universities, which constitute the higher education sector in South Africa, are being swept by the winds of democratic changes that first
swept across the entire country on 27 April 1994. Dr NR Mandela, warned at his inauguration, on 10 May 1994 that there was still more work to be done (Mandela, 1994:122).

The work referred to above includes, *inter alia*, achieving a democratic non-racial and non-sexist system of higher education as enunciated in the vision of the Ministry of Education, headed then by Prof SM Bhengu, and outlined with its principles, in the government’s Programme for the Transformation Of Higher Education for Universities and Technikons, (Education White Paper 3, 1997:5-6)

Since universities are public institutions, the government expects them to assist in not only buying into, but also in implementing the vision it has sold to these institutions. The fundamental principles raised in the White Paper for the attention of higher education, are crucial for the free-play of a democratic ethos and a culture of *Human Rights* (The Constitution, 1996:14) at universities.

Here follows some of these principles:

*Equity and redress* which require, among others, fair opportunities in higher education; *Democratization* which countenances democratic governance in the universities. The
latter are expected to be *democratic*, representative and *participatory*; characterized by mutual respect and tolerance. Moreover, it requires that *decision* making processes be transparent at all levels and must be implemented accountably. This principle forms the nucleus of this research.

*Development* which calls for, *inter alia*, the creation of conditions that facilitate transformation of universities and tecknikons; *Quality* that requires, among others, that higher education maintain and apply academic and educational standards both in the sense of special expectations and requirements and in the sense of ideals of excellence; *effectiveness and efficiency* suggest that effectiveness of these institutions will lead to desired outcomes and their being efficient will cause them to work well and economically.

*Academic freedom* which implies the pursuance of academic work, among others, without outside interference, censure or obstacles. *Institutional autonomy* refers to the high degree of self-regulation and administrative independence with respect to all issues that make a university, a university. This principle is a condition of self government. The researcher concurs with Epstein (1974:8) when he
states that self-government safeguards the autonomy of knowledge as well. He further highlights the fact that this self-government must not be destroyed. One may add that neither must it be abused.

*Public accountability* implies that these institutions are answerable for their actions and decisions not only to their bodies and community but also to the broader society (Education White Paper 3, 1997: 67).

Some of the government’s expectations with regard to these principles may be viewed not only as a tall order, but also with suspicion in some quarters. Haddam Tahir, a retired vice-chancellor of the university of Malaysia, seems to fathom these expectations as he clarifies in the following words:

Because we are a public university, we are expected to assist the government ... (Forgel, Jowet & Prange, 1982: 161).

As has been suggested in the introduction, there is a need to give a brief historical perspective to highlight the state of universities, as well as education as a whole, before the democratic era. This will perhaps shed some light as to why higher education has to take heed of the government’s
transformation vision of democracy and implement it as public institutions and more importantly practice PDM.

2.2 A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF UNIVERSITIES

This part of the research is significant in that it clarifies questions like “why have institutions of higher education taken this long to democratize and practise PDM?” and “what had impeded them in the past?”

The need for the above-named institutions to be participatory and transparent in decision making, among others, is borne out of the fact that the entire education system prior to 1994 suffered what Buckland, (1986: 371-372) has termed “technicism of separate development” as a result of apartheid. The psychologist, Dr Hendrik Verwoerd, was the chief architect of this apartheid ideology.

Though he was educated at Oxford University, one of the world’s renowned institutions which the writer believes is as colour blind now as was when the man in question was a scholar there, yet he had the audacity to create a system of separate education for all race groups in the country. This wreaked so much havoc that the entire country was plunged into anarchy, boycotts, huge debts, domination, deaths,
racism, hatred, atrocious acts, suspicion, to mention just a few. The present democratic government inherited some of these ills of apartheid ideology-based education including universities which are still, according to Nicholas (1993:199), predominantly defined by race and ethnicity. However, these definitions are slowly falling out of use.

Nicholas’ claim is true in that there are twenty one (21) universities in addition to thirteen (13) former technikons which are a consequence of wasteful duplication of facilities for different population groups (Lemmer, 1991:291–300; Claassen, 1995:479). A schematic representation of the apartheid education system in South Africa in 1990’s appears in figure 2.1 towards the end of the thesis.

From the figure 2.1, it is obvious that Orange Free State, Natal and Cape Town were exclusively White-controlled. The universities under their control were the Pretoria University, Rand Afrikaans University (both Afrikaans medium), the University of South Africa (which is a distance education institution and is bilingual) Wits University (which is English medium and one of the oldest universities after the University of Cape Town) and Potchefstroom University which catered for Afrikaans speaking students.
The former technikons that were under White administration are the Transvaal Technikon—Northern Gauteng, Technikon Pretoria, Technikon Witwatersraand. In the Free State, the White education department controlled the Afrikaans medium Orange Free State University and Technikon Free State. In Natal the Department controlled the English medium Natal University (Durban and Pietermaritzburg campuses) and what was Natal Technikon before the merger process took effect in 2002/3 and resulted in the institution now called Durban Institute of Technology (DIT).

In the Cape, the Department of Education for whites had authority over the oldest higher education institution, the University of Cape Town, which is English medium, the University of Stellenbosch which is Afrikaans medium and Rhodes University, which is English medium, as well as Cape Technikon.

Then there was the Department of Education and Training for Blacks outside homelands which controlled what is now called Eastern Cape Technikon, Mngosuthu Technikon, the now Tshwane University of Technology, Peninsula Technikon, Technikon South Africa (which has merged with UNISA), Vaal Triangle Technikon (now Vaal University of Technology). The universities in self-governing and so-called
independent states were serviced by the Department of Education and Training in collaboration with the Homeland Departments and those of self-governing states.

The Universities for Blacks Amendment Act of 1979 restricted Black universities to admit only on ethnic basis (Behr, 1978:332–333). That meant the following:

The University of Fort Hare, the oldest Black university, was to serve the so-called Xhosa national unit. The University of the North was to service the North-Soto, South Soto, Tsonga and Tswana national units. The Medical University of Southern Africa was set up to cater for Blacks. The University of Zululand was meant for the IsiZulu and IsiSwazi speaking students.

In what was known as the Transkei, Bophutatswana, Venda and Ciskei (TBVC) states, universities were established according to ethnic groupings. Transkei University was to service the Xhosa-speaking group as was Fort Hare (in the Ciskei) which had opened its doors to all, including students from outside the borders of South Africa before apartheid dictated its terms. The University of Bophuthatswana catered for the Tswana speaking group while the University of Venda serviced Venda speakers. On the other hand, the
Department of Education and Culture (House of Delegates) catered for Indian Education. Therefore, the University of Durban-Westville and the ML Sultan Technikon serviced Indian students' higher education needs. The Department of Education and Culture (House of Representatives) controlled Coloured Education. Therefore, the University of Western Cape and the Peninsula Technikon catered for the higher education needs of Coloured students.

The other Education Departments of the self-governing states such as Gazankulu, KwaNgwane, KwaZulu, Qwaqwa, Lebowa had no control over universities especially Kwa-Zulu which had a university and the Mangosuthu Technikon. The Department of Education and Training controlled education for Blacks outside self-governing and TBVC states.

Although these universities still have large mono-racial compositions, student bodies have become increasingly mixed especially in what is today termed historically advantaged universities (HAU’s) since the dawning of the democratic era (Dekker & van Schalkwyk, 1995: 479). It is worth noting that this influx to HAU’s occurs at the expense of the historically disadvantaged institutions (HDI’s) but it is for the students’ benefit.
This picture helps clarify the need to press on with democratization, if the transformation vision is to succeed in the universities of the country. Institutions really need to co-operate with the state in order to redress the past injustices in this arena of higher education for it is clear Dr Verwoerd meant it when he retorted as follows:

... natives will be taught from childhood that equality with Europeans is not for them...
(Verwoerd, quoted by Christie, 1990: 12).

Indeed, as has been observed and is general knowledge, Verwoerd realized his government’s dream amid resistance from all quarters. Spates of student boycotts climaxed with those of Soweto 1976. English liberal universities such as Rhodes, Witwatersrand, Natal and Cape Town in the main protested too, but all their endeavours just fell on the government’s deaf ears (Christie & Collins, 1986:166).

Some institutions did not bother to oppose the government policies but they simply obliged. For example, the University of South Africa held racially segregated graduations while Potchefstroom University gave the only Black student separate tuition. Stellenbosch University announced that Black students would participate in everything except university dances. Pretoria University admitted Black
students only to deny them residences or taking part in sporting and some social activities and the university of Orange Free State voted against the admission of Black undergraduates in 1984 (Nicholas, 1993:200–201).

As has been highlighted above different forms of opposition to the injustices of this nature, were staged without any breakthrough. For example, Cooper quoted by Nicholas (1993:201) reports a protest march by Black students at the University of Orange Free State in 1989. Protests also took place at the Rand Afrikaans University and Northern Transvaal Technikon where Black students boycotted classes because of two racist staff members. It was the same at the Medical University of Southern Africa. It is ironical, though, to notice that these are universities that have high enrolments of African students now in this era of democracy. It becomes imperative therefore to ensure that universities follow the spirit and the letter of democratic principles.
2.3 CONCEPTUALISATIONS OF PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING AS A MANAGEMENT OR ADMINISTRATIVE TOOL

Participative decision making (PDM), also called participatory management (PM) (Cunningham, 1982:275), is a management or administrative tool flowing from educational management. Educational management or educational administration is the science that, according to Van der Westhuizen (1991:39), seeks to get things done through and with people. Van der Westhuizen further clarifies that the terms management and administration originate from a Latin word ‘administratio’, which has various meanings.

It is Dunsire (1973:1) who gives a detailed explication of administration and management in terms of their operation. According to him the term administration, ‘administratio’, carries the following meanings and applications including management. The first meaning suggests to “help” or “service”; the second, “direction” or “government”; the third to “manage as a steward” (to administer) and the fourth “execution” or “implementation of a given purpose or end”.

Another common view that explains the use of administration and management, is that of the Anglo-Saxon
literature's preferred use of *administration* as against the Anglo-American literature which prefers the use of *management*. From what has been alluded to above, with respect to the relationship between administration and management, this study will focus on management.

Bush (1995:1) stresses the fact that educational management is a very broad science as it has drawn heavily on several more firmly established disciplines, such as sociology, political science, economics, and general management. Van der Westhuizen (1991) and Tony (1989) view this discipline as concerned with the operation of educational organizations which in this case are the universities. For organizations to achieve their ends, certain management tasks must be observed.

2.3.1 **The management tasks and decision making**

Since management gives an outline of what is called management procedures or tasks which are expected of the manager or educational leader, the work of Adair (1995); De Cronje, Hugo, Van Reenen and Neuland (1987); Cunningham (1982); and Hoy and Miskel (1996); and Harrison (1986), highlight the basic management tasks and their significance for the proper functioning of the
organization. These tasks include planning, organizing, leading or guiding and controlling.

However, it is Allen (1964:66; 1973:50) whose classification of these management tasks is viewed by many writers as the most complete. The tasks in question include planning which has under it such sub-tasks as forecasting, setting objectives, programming, scheduling, budgeting, procedure arrangements and policy making.

This is followed by organizing which includes devising an organizational structure, delegating and establishing relationships between management and the managed. Leading follows with which such sub-tasks as decision making (the focus of this study), communicating, motivating, choosing staff, and staff development/in-service-training. The last task is controlling under which are such sub-tasks as setting the required standard, measuring the standard of work, evaluating the standard of work, and corrective action.

Each management task has a number of sub-tasks which have important supportive roles or functions in the execution of the major task. However, this study is confined to
decision making which is a sub-task of the management task termed ‘leading or guiding’.

Leading is in essence an essential function of management. Likewise, decision making is, according to Harrison (1986:1-2), an integral part of the management of any kind of organization whose process includes three critical phases namely: finding occasions for making a decision; finding course for action and choosing among courses of action. This study seeks to determine the extent of participation in decision making in higher education institutions.

Glasman and Nevo (1988: 8) view decision making (DM) as the central administrative process. In other words, it is the nucleus of administration. In consonance with this view, Griffith (1958:59) states that the administrators are the directors and controllers of the decision making process. In democratic situations they should be directing and controlling in collaboration/consultation with other stakeholders.

Hoy and Miskel (1987:264) believe the issue at hand is inclusive of the identification and diagnosis of difficulty leading to the development of a plan to alleviate problems and the appraisal of its success. This leads to the decision
making steps. These steps give birth to a decision. The works of Hoy and Miskel (1987) Musaazi (1996) and van der Westhuizen (1991) make reference to the following decision making steps arranged by Gorton (1976:61) namely, identification of the problem; analysis of the problem and the gathering of as many facts as possible; description of the problem; identification of all possible causes; identification of most likely causes; decision on how to solve the problem and a solution to the problem.

Participative decision making strategy calls for involvement of other stakeholders to share in one or more steps. This is done according to certain models which will be dealt with in the ensuing parts of this study.

2.3.2 The decision making types (DMT’s)

There are different types of decision making strategies as revealed in the works of Brainbridge (1996:5), Hersey and Blanchard (1983:416), Van der Westhuizen (1991:155-6) and Maree (2000:4). The following decision making types (DMT’s) briefly mention and discuss some of these decision making strategies. In a Centralized or Authoritative decision making, a leader invites none of his followers to participate. Here the staff cannot own any part of the decision since they
have neither experience nor information in the specific area. So the leader is justified in taking an authoritative decision. However, if members have the expertise and are not invited, this is purely a top down kind of authoritative decision making.

There is also a *Consultative decision making*, which is used by the leader to solicit the participation of staff because they have some knowledge of the subject at hand and therefore are capable of contributing to make the final decision. The decision is made with the input of the staff taken into account. The third type is the *Delegative decision making*. This is used when the staff members have a thorough knowledge of, and the willingness to deal with the subject at hand. All members are given the opportunity not only to take part in decision making process but also to arrive at decisions on their own.

Fourthly, *Facilitative decision making*, the leader acknowledges that members of staff have quite a bit of experience so that they can take some of the responsibility of decision making. This is also called shared decision making.
Robbins (1980:71-74), Hetchers (1981: 336-353) and Marx (1981:131-132) add three types of decision making: *Programmed or standard decisions* which are routine in nature and the information is readily available; *Unprogrammed or creative or heuristic decisions* which are singular and unpredictable as information is not easily available. The last one is the *Participative Decision Making (PDM)*, the strategy in which the need for staff to have a say in matters that affect them is met. Lipham and Hoeh (1974: 163-165) emphasize the fact that group decisions are a compromise. This concurs with two of the fundamental principles of the Education White Paper (1997): participation and transparency.

The advantages of participative decision making (PDM) have been suggested by Lipham and Hoeh (1974:163-165) and Adair (1995:60-63). They suggest conflict is reduced through greater involvement instead of decisions being made in a typically bureaucratic-authoritarian manner. The need arises for more expertise and knowledge and for a greater number of people to be increasingly involved in decision making which is information-based. Participation may lead to the better functioning of an organization such as a university and may also result in decisions of a high quality. It may also promote synergism which means
decision made by a group are better than those made by an individual.

Finally the surveyed work urge managers to create PDM mechanisms at all three levels of authority namely, the macro-levels representing top management, meso-level or middle management and the micro-level or the lower management. This will inspire that all have a say in organizational decisions.

Group decision making is a form of PDM. The only difference is that it consists of specific techniques such as the nominal group techniques. This technique applies the adage, ‘two heads are better than one’ in using small groups to arrive at a decision. The technique allows each person attending a meeting a chance to make a contribution in brainstorming, a process in which no one is declared wrong.

The second is the Delphi technique which is also employed in group decision making. It is useful when the group determines the goals of an institution. It has team effort rather than individual effort as its aim. The end result is usually acceptable to the group and serves as motivation for its achievement. The steps of the technique are discussed in the work of van der Westhuizen (1991: 46–155).
2.3.3 Leadership Styles (LS) as determinants of decision making strategies

The leadership styles of managers are to a large extent responsible for determining the decision making strategies. Leadership style studies of Simon (1947); Musaazi (1987); Bell (1998); Owens (1970); Hoy and Miskel (1996); Vroom (1970); Durey (1976); Berry and Houston (1993); Cunningham, (1982), Corson (1960) and Simmons (2001), reveal a number of decision making styles. Examples of these styles are discussed hereunder:

Democratic leadership or group-centred leadership involves staff in decision making by means of consultation. An opportunity to make a contribution is provided to staff. Moreover, the leader offers opportunities of contributions towards goal attainment. This is a participative decision making style.

Autocratic or leader-centred style is where the leader wants his own way and he alone determines policy and makes decisions for the application to staff. He takes full responsibility for the organization’s decisions and ensures that goals are achieved. Communication is only one way or top down. The leader who pursues this style sees himself as
the ruler of the staff and the organization. He is inclined to dominate and find difficulty in co-operating with others to do particular tasks. There are situations even in democratic environments, that would require the use of this style, such as in maintenance of discipline.

*Laissez-faire or free rein or even individual-centred leadership style* is where the leader abdicates the role of managing the institution and therefore the staff does not feel his presence and they start to do as they please. Staff have the freedom to make either individual or group decisions with the minimal involvement of the leader. For all intents and purposes this style will never work in a participative decision making situation.

*Bureaucratic leadership style* combines the three styles discussed above namely, democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire. The ability of a leader to integrate, blend, balance and adapt these components of leadership styles in harmony, will largely determine his success as a leader of the organization.

The leader in question is marked by his strict adherence to the law, rules and regulations. In this way he tries to maintain his position but at times he does what pleases him.
According to Owens, (1990:60) in the bureaucratic leadership style the staff are regarded as employees which results in a type of “head-subordinate” relationship. Moreover, authority is centralized and staff merely have to obey. Again this style cannot be compatible with participatory leadership, as Kezar (2001: 20), suggests.

These leadership styles are a combination of those that empower through participation and those which disempower through non-participation. Useful ones may be selected and taken advantage of in a democratic setting while irrelevant ones should be discarded. The conceptual models that inform participative decision making are discussed hereunder.

### 2.4 CONCEPTUAL MODELS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS IN PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING

There are several models or approaches in use for the better understanding of PDM and its applications in organizations including universities. “The models are useful tools which circumvent the confusion...” (Sibaya, 1992:34). There are a number of models for PDM that are useful in answering certain questions. Some of these are discussed hereunder.
2.4.1 The Coch and French Model

Coch and French (1948) conducted a series of experiments on the effects of participative decision making on a company. The outcome was that employee participation improved productivity, reduced absenteeism and grievances. Other studies like those of Vroom and Yetton (1973) and Jago (1989) supported the desirability and influence of participation in decision making in business and educational organizations.

The following observations summarise the Coch and French Model of employing participation in decision making. The opportunity to share in formulating policies is an important factor for the morale of the employee. Participation in decision making is positively related to the individual employee’s satisfaction with his/her work or profession. Subordinates prefer a manager who involves them in decision making. Decisions fail because of poor quality or because they are not accepted by the group or employees. Employees neither expect nor want involvement in every decision, in fact too much involvement is as detrimental as too little. The role and function of both the managers and the employees in decision making need to be varied according to the nature of the problem.
This model is of significant value to universities with regard to the roles of managers and those under them. One South African Sunday newspaper ran an article entitled: “Involve staff if you want results” (Sunday Tribune, 1993:11), accentuating the significance of participation of staff in the decisions affecting the organizations. Scott (2001:3-11), recommended the involvement of everyone in the organizational decision making processes and structures.

2.4.2 The Vroom and Jago Model

Vroom and Jago (1974) refined a model that had been developed by Vroom and Yetton in 1973. This model matches participative decision making with the nature of the problem and situation. From their research a set of rules is developed to improve the quality and acceptance of a decision. In addition, the constraints of time and development are formulated as additional rules. These rules provide a complicated model of participation in decision making that requires the use of a set of complex decision terms.

The critics of the model by Hoy and Miskel (1996), find limitations with it for practice, in that it is initially difficult to master and to apply it. However, students of administration
or management are advised to examine carefully the situation in which they need to apply this model, (Vroom & Jago, 1974).

This approach is relevant in terms of the rules which serve as steps that guide the manager as to how this approach should be employed. However, its greatest shortcoming is its complexity.

2.4.3 The Normative Model

According to Dunnette (1983:1538), this model is a response to many models of the leadership process that are autocratic in nature, wherein the leader makes decisions within his/her area of responsibility. He/she issues orders or directives to his subordinates and monitors their performance to ensure compliance with her/his directions.

The Normative Model was borne out of behavioural scientists arguing for more opportunities to participate in decision making. This model points to evidence of restriction of output and lack of involvement under traditional leadership. It provides the evidence that supports the efficacy of participative management (Lowin, 1986; Vroom, 1970;

Vroom and Yetton (1973) initiated this model. It is based on the assumptions that it is of potential value to managers or leaders in deciding the leadership styles or methods they should employ in each situation. It also provides a framework for the analysis of situations which can be translated into prescriptive leadership styles as no single leadership method is applicable to all situations. It ensures that a particular problem to be solved or decision to be made must be done in the most appropriate manner for the analysis of the situation. It warns that the leadership that if a method is used in one situation, it should not constrain the method or style used in another situation.

There are a number of discrete social processes by which organizational problems can be translated into solutions, and these processes vary in terms of the potential amount of participation by subordinates in problem-solving, or decision making processes. The applicable processes or leadership methods vary with the number of the leader's subordinates. In particular, the leader should distinguish between individual problems and group-problems.
The model does suggest a clear route to be followed mainly by managers in decision making. However, even though attention is given to the participation in decision making by the manager, it is very minimal and does not rigorously promote it. Moreover, it focuses on the specific decisions at hand (Mitchell & Larson, 1987: 377).

2.4.4 The Nutt and Sashkin Model

Nutt (1984) and Sashkin (1984) also came up with a model that is an alternative to the one presented by Vroom and Yetton (Mitchell & Larson, 1987). The two argue that participation is appropriate as a general management strategy as opposed to a specific strategy for a specific problem under certain task and environmental conditions.

More specifically, they argue that when the task itself is difficult to analyze and is heterogeneous in its demands, more participation should be used. Participation is also viewed and predicted to be helpful when the external organizational environment is subject to a serious and substantial amount of change. Such change creates more uncertainty and ambiguity in the decision task. Furthermore, they suggest that the more interdependent that task is, the more participation should be used in making decisions.
located outside the zone of acceptance. This participation will be more effective.

The Nutt and Sashkin model builds on Vroom and Yetton’s in that it emphasizes the question of participation in decision making in instances of task demands, interdependencies and turbulences in the external environment.

2.4.5 The Hoy and Tarter Model

This model postulates that subordinates or the managed accept some decisions without questions. This is because they are indifferent to them. Barnard (1938) terms this a Zone of indifference in each individual. Simon (1947) prefers to call this a Zone of acceptance.

Having studied the work of Simon and Barnard, Bridges (1967) advanced two propositions about PDM. These are that if subordinates are involved in decision making located within their zone of acceptance, participation will be less effective, and if subordinates are involved in decision making located outside their zone of acceptance, participation will be more effective.
Then the challenge to the manager would be to determine decisions that fall inside the managed’s zone of acceptance and which ones are outside that zone. Bridges further suggests two sets of answers to these questions namely, the test of relevance which requires of the subordinates to have a personal stake in the decision outcomes, and the test of expertise which requires subordinates to have expertise to make useful contribution to the decision.

Therefore, this suggests that if subordinates have expertise and a personal stake in the outcomes, then the decision is clearly outside their zone of acceptance. Therefore, they must be involved. Likewise, if the subordinates have neither expertise nor a personal stake, then the decision is inside the zone of acceptance. They must be excluded. This model is articulate on the question of who can participate and when he\she can participate? It makes participation in decisions making conditional for the good of both the staff and the manager.

Furthermore, there are two marginal conditions this model has had to grapple with according to Hoy and Tarter (1995). The two marginal conditions have each different decisional constraints. For example, when subordinates have expertise
but no personal stake or have a personal stake but no expertise, the conditions are problematic.

To this end Hoy and Tarter (1995) proposed two additional propositions for guidance and these are that if subordinates are involved in making decisions for which they have marginal expertise, their participation will be marginally effective, and if subordinates are involved in making decisions for which they have marginal interest, their participation will be less marginally effective.

Also of importance according to Hoy and Tarter (1995) is the commitment of subordinates which is important to gauge and the final test for so doing is called the test of commitment. This seeks to determine whether subordinates are committed to the mission of the organization. Therefore, they can be trusted to make decisions in the best interest of the organization. This model places a lot of demand on the manager to use the checklist, that is, the given tests to determine who should participate in decision making and who should not. However, it does open avenues for democratic participation to develop.
2.4.6 The Theory Z Approach

This is rather more of an approach than a model. It was developed by William Ouchi, a Japanese, in 1981 after studying both Japanese and American organizations. He found that the former are more paternalistic in treating their employees. In other words they assume responsibility for employees’ life (Berry & Houston, 1993).

As a result the employees become more committed and loyal to the organization. Employment is for life and jobs are less specialized and more important employees are included in decision making structures. According to O’Hanlon (1983:16) theory Z is a combination of some of the better features of both Japanese and American styles of organizing. So theory Z organizations like Hewlett-Packard, and others offer long term employment and moderate job specialization (Ouchi, 1981).

However, current information suggests that this is no longer the situation in the Japanese industries in 2003 as bulletins in CNN and other media always reveal the state of affairs in each country (Ouchi, 1981). Moreover, the critics of this approach further argue that it has received little attention and these Japanese-American comparisons are not
convincing since societies in the two countries have different political structures and a different psychological make-up. Moreover, management systems in other countries are equally successful (Hopkins, Lo, Peterson & Seo, 1997; Smith, 1984). Nonetheless, Theory Z encourages participation of all stakeholders in an organization when it comes to decision making.

2.4.7 Jethro-Moses “Approach”

This “approach” is based on a management style that was meant to relieve Moses from working so tirelessly alone in administering the affairs of the nation of Israel that he was leading. Moses’ style was highly autocratic as he alone judged the people.

Observing how cumbersome his leadership style was, Jethro, Moses’ father-in-law, advised the latter to involve others in the decision making processes. That way, he would function better, quicker and less stressful. The pattern or “approach” Jethro gave recommended to Moses was as follows:

Select capable men from all the people. Men who fear God, trustworthy men who hate dishonest gain and appoint them as officials over thousands, hundreds, fifties and tens. Have them serve as judges (decision makers), for people all the time but
have them bring every difficult cases to you. The simple cases, they can decide themselves, that will make your load lighter because they will share it with you (Exodus, 18 : 22-23) (Words in brackets are the writer’s).

This pattern by Jethro is in line, though differently, with the PDM processes that are at the same time empowering. New leaders are empowered to share leadership with the chief leader, Moses. The end result is that all stakeholders become winners in terms of less time it takes to arrive at a decision (judgement) than before when Moses was doing it all alone. So this “approach” does take a format of shared participatory decision making.

2.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter has briefly deliberated on the historical background of South African universities as well as the principles and reasons that necessitate PDM in these institutions. It was necessary to briefly discuss the decision making tasks, and leadership styles for they are like two sides of the same coin as they impact on PDM. The models and approaches that underpin PDM have also been presented here.
The researcher may indicate at this stage that this study is mainly informed by the combination of the models discussed in the preceding part of this chapter. The Coch and French model, the Vroom and Jago Model, the Nutt and Sashkin Model and the Jethro-Moses approach the ones that underpin this research. These models have in common the advocacy for participative decision making, which this study is about.

Chapter three focuses on the empirical studies on PDM at South African universities and abroad.
CHAPTER THREE

3.0 EMPIRICAL STUDIES ON PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) AT SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Investigations of participative decision making (PDM) are a world-wide issue. However, very little evidence, if any, is available locally on PDM at South African Universities. Perhaps the problem is that democracy is a relatively new concept and practice in the country. Moreover, transformation processes in higher education are well under way but at a slow pace.

Nonetheless, this does not justify the dearth of researched work in this area. This dearth of scientific literature is partly compensated by the works of researchers such as Pittendrigh (1988) who made an evaluative analysis of factors influencing the development of the assessment of the role in educational change in South Africa; Kallaway (1986) who produced a detailed study of education of Black South Africans under apartheid with a glimpse of activities in the country’s universities during those days. Nicholas (1993)
devoted some space and time dealing with racism and oppression suffered by Africans in what was then known as White Universities and Technikons. Behr (1978) provided informative historical data on the government legislation affecting and establishing some universities during the heyday of apartheid. Promotion of ethnicism and monoculturalism in university was also reported by Behr. Christie (1990) in her editorial to the book “The Right to Learn”, exposes the wrongs of apartheid education with respect to schools, universities.

However, the present investigation concerns PDM at South African universities. Literature reviewed in the chapter include material from abroad. The study sought to achieve the following: to determine the extent to which universities practise PDM, to establish whether PDM is influenced by certain managers’ personal characteristics, to determine whether there is any difference among institutions regarding the practice of PDM, to establish whether there is agreement among the ranks given by respondents on the items most important for PDM.
3.2 STUDIES ON THE EXTENT OF PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) PRACTICE AT UNIVERSITIES

Studies on participative decision making have been carried out world-wide. Some with different foci while others were more pertinent to our situation at universities in this country.

In the foregoing part of this work it was pointed out that there is not much researched evidence on the issue of PDM at South African universities. However, the research work of Obondo (1998), Barengu (1991) and Kilemi (1996), on PDM in two Kenyan universities, place Africa on the map of PDM research. The research aims were, inter alia, to establish the nature and extent of student involvement in policy formulation in higher education; to determine the extent to which the two universities have been able to respond to, and accommodate demands of stakeholder involvement in its management; to establish whether recurrent unrests in the two universities have been influenced by the existing decision making procedures and processes and finally, to identify alternative approaches (Obondo, 1998:4, Barengu, 1991:20-21, and Kilemi 1996:15-16).
The first two aims of these studies are pertinent to this study. The present study seeks, *inter alia*, to even establish the influence of managers on the practice of PDM at universities. Furthermore, it is also the intention of the researcher of this study to ascertain whether differences exist among institutions with respect to the practice of PDM.

Obondo’s study (1998:12-13), in particular, included two separate structured questionnaires, one for administrative staff and another for students. These questionnaires contained both open-ended and closed-ended questions. They were administered to a sample of 60 Administrators, comprising 55% Senior Administrative Assistants, 20% Deans of Students and 25% Heads of Departments. Another 120 questionnaires were administered by Obondo himself to university students. Of these questionnaires 70 went to University of Nairobi while 50 went to Kenyatta University students. Another method Obondo used is the pre-arranged focused interview with 10 administrators identified as key respondents.

The technique of using a questionnaire and surveys in these studies, encourages the current researcher to go a similar route but differently as all the South African Universities are included in the number of institutions. The managers of the
The work of Obondo (1998), Barengu, (1991) and Kilemi (1996) sheds some light on the present research as to what should be more or less expected regarding the results of the present research, and that there should be caution especially with instrumentation and administration thereof. As has been indicated above regarding use of research instruments, time constraint is a factor worth noting.

However, the studies of Drenth, Koopman, Rus, Odar, Heller and Brown (1979:296-10), Heller et al., (1983:1-3 & 1977:568-11), Lee and Schuler (1982:110-114), Locke and Schweiger (1979:266-70), Lischeron and Wall (1975:865-9), Ide-International Research Group (1979:275-8), Pfeffer and Salancik (1974:136-9), Butler, Hickson, Wilson and Axelsson (1978:46-50) and Burck and Labate (1993:3-7), review PDM in higher education institutions. The main aim of their research was studying different forms of PDM in these institutions. This they achieved through triangulation. First, they interviewed managers in all institutions they studied. Then they employed direct observation. Thereafter they traced decisions to their original source. Furthermore, they designed a three-point scale questionnaire. Items were to be ranked as low, medium and high.
The variables that were rated by with respect to PDM as practised in each organization were, **satisfaction** with the decision making process; satisfaction with the outcome of solution chosen and implementation; **efficiency** of the solution chosen; **skill utilization**, which checks whether competent persons were involved in the decision making process; **achievement**, which has to do with judgment of the extent to which the expected goals and objectives were reached; **time**, which denotes the amount of time spent on the entire decision making process.

Their findings revealed that participation by other personnel increases the change in an institution and the job satisfaction. It also revealed that domination of this process by management decreases the chance of satisfaction. Finally, it was revealed that more participation by both top management and workers' council goes together with lower achievement and satisfaction with the outcome.

Investigating the effect of decision type as a contingency type variable between PDM and outcomes at universities in particular, Koslowsky, Elizur, and Sargie (1991:81-94) constructed and administered a questionnaire among 199 Israel subjects, mostly university students from Tel Aviv

The 199 subjects formed 40 teams. They were randomly assigned to perform various experimental activities. Their ages ranged from 18 to 25 years with the median age being 22. Moreover, 83 (42%) of the participants were men, and 116 (58%) were women.

Over and above, the instruments already mentioned, Koslowsky et al., (1991) added another instrument in the form of a 5-point Likert-type scale. The study by Koslowsky et al., (1991) sheds some light on how the effect of decision types influences participative decision making. The use of a combination of methods, especially experimental simulation is noted in their results. The analysis of variance (Anova) revealed that individuals in PDM strategy perceived far more influence on change than did individuals in the directive strategy. In so far as the work of Koslowsky et al., (1995) is concerned, more items for the research tool are being noted, for example, the questionnaire, which seems most suitable for this research. The experimental simulation is also relevant but requires time and a single or two settings. Another important feature regarding Koslowsky et al's study is that gender did not influence the results.
Fry, and Hellriegel, (1987: 296-300), studied PDM at higher educational institutions with the aim to determine whether levels of participation were low or high. Their findings revealed that there was a high level of participation in decision making such that performance was highly impacted, especially in the United Kingdom and the United States. Furthermore, another study was conducted by Stowell (2004:15-16) with a view to establish whether higher education institutions practice PDM in a equitable, judicious and high level manner.

Another work that is worth reviewing is that of Drago and Wooden, (1991:177-204) whose aim was to distinguish between PDM at a lower level and participation at a higher management level and to test for causal linkages, between employees’ desires for participation. To this end the researchers constructed a questionnaire and administered it to a total sample of 2238 non-supervisors in Australian and New Zealand industries. Such a sample is more than excellent according to the guidelines for sample sizes given by Tabachnik and Fidell (1989:603). Only 928 questionnaires were returned in a usable form, thus, giving an overall rate of response of 41.47%. The only drawback is the low returns recorded by Drago and Wooden, (1991).
This is part of the disadvantages of using a questionnaire. Over and above the use of a questionnaire, managers were randomly selected and interviewed telephonically.

The study of Drago and Wooden, (1991) is huge and yet an eye-opener, especially, its instrument administration and planning. It gives the present researcher a cue for the instrument construction. Furthermore, the five-point Likert-scale was designed to measure participation in terms of de facto (by right or not) and de jure (rightful) participation. The scale ranges from ‘no say at all’ to ‘a great deal’. Items included; work methods; task assignments; work scheduling etc.

The findings reflected that personnel on average do not believe they have influence on any decision areas listed. Counter to expectations, though, workers reported their belief that they have much influence over choosing with whom they would work. The results further yielded that men have a relatively greater desire for participation at both high and low levels and experience less de jure participation at high levels. This male ego characteristic is confirmed in the work of Hespe and Walls (1976: 42) who found high preference for participation on the part of males.
These results are very important for the study in progress in terms of the instruments used and the items selected. Women were also more often calling for *de jure* participation in high decisions. According to Drago and Wooden, (1991:193) men in fact experience *de jure* participation in high levels decisions more often owing to their greater desire for influence over the decision making process.

It is clear that the results further reveal that formal participation programmes often achieve the objective of enhancing employee influence. Moreover, employees generally desire greater amounts of participation than organizations provided. Employees are particularly desirous of influence over high or important decisions. On the whole, women tended to experience *de jure* participation in high level decisions largely because of management (or male) instigation (Drago and Wooden, (1991:195).

A more pertinent study to the present one was conducted by Kezar (2001:85-101) at universities and colleges. His objectives were three-fold; namely, to explore the content and power critical to understanding the organizational fit; to understand the way the participatory model was operationalized; and to examine leadership more broadly throughout the institutions. The sample consisted of 12
males, 12 females, 12 persons of colour, 12 Caucasian, 12 administrators, a total of 110 subjects. These were drawn from liberal studies, vocational studies or career studies, including central and non-central administrators. Several were used to collect data. They were interviews, observations, document analysis, and analysis of physical environment. Kezar’s work (2001), though having a small sample, serves in one way or the other as the example for the work in progress especially the representativeness of the sample used. It would have been interesting if he had increased the size of the sample to check whether results would have been different.

The results of the work under review included, *inter alia*, the more collaborative; participatory team structures and new values statement development by the campuses studied. This served as a model to guide leadership teams. It also included diversity; respect; collaboration; openness/honesty; risk-taking; and openness to mistakes and equality. It was observed that participatory decision making does not give assurance that diversity of voices is a solution. Another observation is that assimilation was occurring at the campus studied. Campuses across the country (USA) and internationally including community colleges, have adopted a participatory leadership model in
an effort to develop an inclusive leadership environment. Participatory models do stress the importance of growth (Kezar, 2001:103).

These results give a lucid critique of participation as the decision making strategy especially where Kezar (2001:99) argues that the PDM model does not appear to be a sufficiently clear framework for campuses that want to truly embrace diversity and radically transform the leadership environment. This is true in the case of institutions that are in democratic environments; where none exists PDM could be a starting point. This work under review also points out the finding that people in central administration did not realize there were different leadership beliefs in institutions in order that the significance of power be understood. PDM does say in a reasonable way, that power has to be decentralized as Lauglo (1995) puts it.

The work of Lauglo (1995) studied, with a comparative eye, such countries as Papua New Guinea, South Africa, Spain and Germany. As has been indicated the latter two countries were exposed longer to democracy than the former two. No wonder there is some struggle with PDM in the higher education institutions observed in the reviewed research in the other African states, like Kenya. This does in no way
suggest that democracy, *per se*, makes it easier to adopt PDM.

The works of Parker (1999), Ballard-Reisch (1990) and Veen (1972) exemplify how universities can implement participative decision making (PDM). These researchers, mainly from universities such as RU Utrecht; Free University of Amsterdam; University of Ljubijana; Middle Tennessee State University and others, conducted surveys, experiments, interviews and administered questionnaires on PDM. In some cases patients in university hospitals have been used in the pilot studies of these researchers. This demonstrates how serious and exemplary researchers-cum-academics, cited above, are on PDM issues in the above-mentioned countries.

Ballard-Reisch’s results (1990:93) revealed that PDM can result in increased acceptance of solutions, increased levels of satisfaction, commitment and loyalty to solutions, and in greater confidence in and commitment to decisions. On the other hand, Schaubroeck and Jennings’ studies (1991) showed that there is a relationship between PDM and job satisfaction. However, PDM maintained the increase in individual satisfaction though indirectly (Schaubroeck and Jennings, 1991:45).
These results suggest that PDM may help promote a more tolerable work environment, thus enhancing the opportunity to remove or overcome barriers, which confront job-related goals. Moreover, it is clear that PDM aids the workers' understanding of required activities regardless of the importance of a supportive supervisor relative to general role clarity (Schaubroeck and Jennings, 1991:66). This occurs in instances where workers or subordinates have not only been involved in decision making, but have also been mentored to be independent.

In other parts of Africa, like Kenya, efforts are afoot to investigate and promote this concept as Drago and Wooden (1991) show. In countries such as USA and Netherlands, it is being practised with some measure of success.

3.3 STUDIES ON RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGERS' PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS AND PDM PRACTICES

The managers' characteristics include gender, age, experience, qualification, rank and religion. Since managers hold responsible leadership positions at universities, they have a lot of influence on issues that concern institutional decisions.
The work of Snyder and Hammer (1977:323-324) is pertinent to this aspect because the two researchers confirm the strong impact managers had in various institutions, namely, Graduate School of Business, University of Alabama and New York State School of Industrial and Labour Relations, Cornell University, on the decision making processes. In some isolated cases worker-staff were discriminated against. However, Snyder and Hammer (1977) argue that such discriminatory practices are a thing of the past.

Given this scenario one gets the impression that on the basis of some managerial characteristics, there is a possibility of these influencing PDM practices, either positively or negatively and either consciously or unconsciously. In support of the above, Drago and Wooden (1991:177-209) found evidence of this in their research on causal linkages between employees’ desire for participation at lower and/or higher managerial levels. It was found that men have a relatively greater desire for participation at lower and higher managerial levels. They experience less *de jure* (rightful) participation at higher level. On the other hand women, the results revealed, experienced *de jure* participation in high decisions. This confirms that gender, among other personal
characteristics, does strongly influence participation in decisions.

The empirical work of Vroom and Jago (1974:744-746) studied manager characteristics with focus on their leadership models at universities. The managers' behaviour and attitudes revealed that indeed leaders influence decision making processes either to the benefit or disadvantage of the subordinates. Furthermore, Tett and Jackson (1990: 178) studied these participative behaviours of managers with special interest in their delegation of decision making authority; requesting to meet with subordinates to discuss a given problem; requesting non-advisory information and asking to be kept informed as to how the problem is developing or being resolved. This confirms the power managers wield in so far as deciding on participation or not of personnel in decision making.

A sample of 89 middle and upper-level Canadian managers was studied by the above named researchers. The average respondent was 45 years old and his experience with the present company was 14 years. His managerial experience was 13, 6 years. His qualification was 22 years of post-secondary education including non-degree programmes of
the sample given. There were seven women managers in the sample.

Two methods were used to obtain data from these respondents, namely, a biographical questionnaire and an in-basket with scoring for participative decision making.

The results reflected support for continued development of the in-basket measure. Inter-rater correlations showed that participative behaviours could be reliably measured using simulation exercises. The alpha scores for individual behaviors were somewhat high. The co-variation among four most reliable participative behaviours were appreciable. However, limitations were revealed in three of the six personality traits. These were found to be unrelated to participative tendency.

Tett and Jackson's work (1990) is relevant to the study at hand in so far as management is concerned with respect to participative decision making. The sample size of managers who took part in the study is important and so are such variables as experience, age, qualification and gender. The methods used, especially the in-basket, which would not be suitable for the study being undertaken, are informative. By all probability the tool likely to suit the study at hand is the
questionnaire as partly used by Tett and Jackson (1990) to managers.

Kanter (1979), Rosenblatt and Nord (1999) shed some light on leadership after investigating Ohio State and Michigan universities. Then they used their results to identify the factors that characterise the behaviour and differences of managers. They subjected the results to factor analysis. Two different methods were developed for measuring such personality traits as consideration which is indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth and initiating structure which has to do with supervision, organizing, defining group activities. The primary instrument was called Leader Behaviour Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ) and the second related instrument was called Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ).

The outcome of these studies showed that effective leaders tend to have relationships with subordinates, which are supportive and enhance the latter’s sense of personal worth and importance. They use group rather than man-to-man methods of supervision and decision making. Such managers also tend to set high performance goals. Heller et al., (1983:3) revealed in their study that domination of participative decision making process by management
decreases the chance of satisfaction with the decision making outcome.

While some biographical data of the manager play a significant role, for example, experience, rank and qualification, the most important research issue points towards and emphasizes the manager’s leadership style in relation to participative decision making (Parker, 1999; Tett & Jackson, 1990).

The following is the précis of the surveyed studies’ findings of managers’ personal characteristics in relation to the practice of PDM.

3.3.1 **Relationship between gender and the practice of PDM**

The findings of the studies of Drago and Wooden (1991:177)-209), Belasco and Alutto (1972:43-48) and Taylor and Dunnette (1974: 288-290) revealed that gender influenced the practice of PDM. These findings further revealed that women managers embraced PDM such that they experienced a more *de jure* (rightful) participation in high order decisions than their male counterparts (Drago & Wooden, 1991, and Taylor & Dunnette, 1974).
Mergarison and Glubbe (1979:50-55) also found that women in management bring with them some important changes. However, the studies of Mohr (1977:864-8), Cotton, Froggatt, Leunick-Hall & Vollrath (1988: ) and Koslowsky et al., (1995:85), Paul and Ebadi (1989:203-7), Industrial Democracy in Europe (IDE) (1979:273-80), and Decisions in Organizations (DIO) (1979:296-299), found that gender becomes a non-issue if true PDM is practiced by an institution.

3.3.2 Relationship between age and the practice of PDM


3.3.3 Relationship between qualification and the practice of PDM

The studies of Field and House (1990:526-7) Guzzo, Maguire, Wagner, Herr and Hawley (1986:280-286) and Koslowsky et al., (1995:89), revealed that there was a
relationship between the managers’ qualification and the practice of participative decision making.

In the case of South African universities the environment is different, especially at the former technikons, where the “going-ons” and responsibilities are not completely similar to those of universities. At the former technikons a staff member who holds a diploma, for an example, can easily be a manager of a particular section or department.

In the opinion of the researcher there ought to be a relationship between qualification and PDM, for the following reason: if a manager holds a higher qualification he may stand a better chance of understanding the PDM practice, dynamics and processes. Moreover, he is in a better position to explain to those who hold lower qualifications, the dynamics and processes and the needs thereof. This does not imply that less qualified persons may not fathom the dynamics and practice of PDM.
3.3.4 Relationship between experience and the practice of PDM

The studies of Paul and Ebadi (1989:207-8) DIO (1979:297) and Koslowsky et al., (1995:89), found experience to be related to the practice of PDM at institutions.

3.3.5 Relationship between religion and the practice of PDM

The studies of Koch (2004:23-6) found religion to be significant in moulding the character of a manager into a participative decision maker and a servant leader. Moreover, Tjosvold’s (1984:135-136) and Koch’s (2004:17-20), studies revealed that managers of religious persuasion were more amenable to PDM practices.

3.3.6 Relationship between rank and the practice of PDM

The studies of Shubik (1958:289-290) and Taylor & Dunnette (1974:287-289), revealed that rank is an important attribute in participative decision making for top managers in particular who are accountable for all the decisions the institutions make. However, the studies of Parker (1999), Tett and Jackson (1990), found rank of the manager to play a significant role in PDM.

South African higher education institutions cannot be termed fully participative as yet, since though PDM may well exist but it has not yet been documented. This is so without discounting researchers in the country who may have made a contribution in so far as participative decision making is concerned.

In view of the foregoing discussion, participatory decision making (PDM) is a reality in some democratic countries’ institutions of higher education. However, some are still lagging behind especially in African countries, in spite of the fact that most opted for a democratic political route long ago. The White Paper 3 on Higher Education (1997), makes a clarion call to universities to be democratic,
participatory, transparent and accountable when it comes to decision making and implementation thereof. The manager is the main actor on the stage of participatory decision.

It has surfaced from the researcher’s literature review that PDM is a world-wide concern. This is due, in part, to the fact that it affords each participant an opportunity to contribute towards making a decision. However, more important is the fact that it empowers those exposed to it by those who manage as Tubbs and Beane (1982:49) concur that participation in decision making is considered by many to benefit not only the personnel but also the organization as a whole. The involved tend to better understand decisions they help formulate and gain a kind of “psychological ownership”.

3.4 STUDIES ON DIFFERENCES AMONG INSTITUTIONS ON THE PRACTICE OF PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM)

According to the study of Burck and Labate (1993:2-5); Kezar (2001:91,99) and Norris (2000:2-6), PDM is operational at institutions in different settings and environments, especially overseas. Notwithstanding possible
similarities, one may expect differences from the way each institution does things.

The researcher is of the opinion that the campus participatory environment and the context must be described for purposes of producing a complete picture.

While there is evidence of some differences on the practice of PDM, a study produced in Africa by Obondo (1998:13-18); Barengu (1991:20-23) and Kilemi (1996:15-17), reveal that similarities exist in both Kenyatta and Nairobi universities, in Kenya, with regard to the politics of PDM.

They identify issues such as lack of proper consultation, poor management and leadership styles which are characteristics common in African higher education institutions where there is a lack of democracy.

The Kenyan findings confirm the commonality regarding problems besieging the two above-named universities. Dissimilarities obtained when one looks at the sample size of Nairobi which is bigger than that of Kenyatta (Obondo, 1998:12). This tells a story of different circumstances and contexts in the institutions in question. According to Jackson (1983:5-7) the practice of participative decision making
cannot be expected to be the same in toto due to differences in what obtains at each institution.

On the contrary, the research work of Knight (2001:249) reveals why some American universities try to do something similar yet different from others. Their common ground is the fact that participatory decision making is one of the six attributes of democracy alongside equality, inclusiveness and equal rights. These, especially PDM, encourage everyone to be a participant by right. While on the topic of American universities, the work of Scott (2001:1-11) exposes the fact that some US universities experienced unrest thereby forcing the administration to transfer powers by restructuring. That was done and many universities restructured and PDM featured in the form of shared governance.

What further makes the US strong in universality and diversity regarding PDM practice, is the fact that it has a strong association of university professors, which monitors higher education governance. Through research survey by this association some of the items they measured in 2001 are the climate for governance, institutional communication, role players’ tasks; namely, the president (the principal), faculties and others, joint decision making and the structural
arrangement of governance (American Association of University Professors, AAUP, 2001:3).

In the South African higher education the so called, shared governance, called PDM in this study, started to surface with the dawning of democracy. While democracy resulted in a change for the better, some institutions experience further turbulence for different reasons. South Africa, unlike USA, does not have an association for professors, but it had two associations for universities’ and former technikon principals respectively. In the case of traditional university principals, the association is called “South African Universities’ Vice-Chancellors’ Association”, (SAUVCA). For former technikon principals there was a “Committee of Technikon Principals” (CTP). The functions of these bodies differ sharply when compared with those of the USA. The results of this study will indicate how far universities have gone to ensure the practice of PDM either universally or individually, that is, with some similarities and/or differences.

Participative management (Decision making), bracketed phrase the researcher’s, is a powerful antidote for employee complacency and failure in organizations that it unleashes the knowledge and skills of the people who are doing the actual work of an organization. Participatory management’s goal is to tap the unique resources of each of those individuals, create a collaborative learning
experience, and produce results that are far greater than the sum of individuals. The benefits far outweigh the risks and problems. The destination for the organization is always worth the cost of the trip - no matter how you measure success. (Plunkett & Fournier, 1992: 76).

3.5 CONCLUSION

In this chapter 3, studies on PDM with regard to universities were reviewed. The focal points were the extent to which South African universities practice PDM; the differences, if any, among institutions in relation to PDM practice; and whether the managers' personal characteristics influence PDM, have been reviewed. In the next chapter, the research design and methodology that guide this study are discussed.
CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design used in this study is a survey, which is descriptive in nature, for it describes and interprets data (Best & Kahn, 1993:105-108). The study seeks to describe and interpret data that will be obtained from universities with respect to the extent to which PDM is being practised. A descriptive study therefore aims at providing an accurate description of the phenomenon (Treece & Treece, 1986:176). It represents a range of activities that have in common the purpose of describing situations such as decision making (Mason & Bramble, 1989:35-36). This research is predicated on PDM. Furthermore, Helmstadter (1970:64) is of the view that research investigations which use a descriptive approach make use of questionnaires as data collection instruments. Cohen and Manion (1989:97) explicate descriptive research as follows:

...descriptive research is concerned with conditions or relationships that exist; practices that prevail; beliefs or points of views, or attitudes that are held; processes that are
going on; effects that are felt or trends that are developing.

Indeed this study seeks to unearth the above-cited descriptions with regard to decision making in the institutions under study and this is consonant with the works of Ryan (1999: 33 - 36); Langan – Fox; Waycott, Morizzi and McDonald (1998:249-251) and Anderson (n.d.:1-8 ) reviewed during the literature study. These researchers describe managers’ attitude and behaviour towards some aspects of PDM, Rogers’ three decision making model and the combination of factors and conditions that encouraged management or administrative leaders to embrace PDM.

4.2 SAMPLING DESIGN AND SAMPLING FRAMES

A purposive sampling design was used in this study for it was intended to solicit the views of the management at all levels at the 35 former technikons and universities, on the extent to which these institutions practise PDM in South Africa. The option of purposive sampling allows the researcher to target only managers of universities who are the final decision makers and expected implementers of policy on change.
This is against the backdrop of the route followed by some of the researchers in the literature reviewed for this study.

The studies of Kezar (2001); Drago and Wooden (1999), Tett and Jackson (1990) used random stratified sampling to determine their final samples. The option of a different sampling design for this study was based on the fact that, while it draws lessons from the ideas of other researchers’ previous work, it is being executed in a different environment. Therefore, it takes into cognizance the fact that there should be no transplanting even if similarities may exist.

However, these techniques are not without disadvantage, particularly the stratified sample, as it requires extraordinary effort to obtain more information needed for purposes of stratification. Another drawback regarding these techniques is that, like a simple random sample, a list of every element of the population is required and if the stratification variable and criterion variable turn out to be uncorrelated, there will be no gain, according to Helmstadter (1970:339), in the precision for the extra effort made.

The researcher instead, elected to employ the purposive sample technique that was mostly used to target managers
and supervisors in the reviewed studies of Schaubroeck and Jennings (1991:57); Veen (1972:291); Parnell and Bell (1994:522); Snyder and Hammer (1977:322). The use of purposive sample endeavoured to ensure representativeness by requiring the sample to match the universe in known characteristics. In this case university management at all levels became the target sample. Helmstadter (1970:336) warns that random sample must be used with caution as some individuals targeted to provide data may not be readily available. This may thus limit the accuracy of results. This caution does not affect much of the sampling method of this study.

The targeted sample of this study includes the management of all levels at these institutions who have been selected by means of purposive sample. These include principals, vice-principals, registrars, deans, heads of sections, departments and other managers. These are the officials in the institutions under study who are expected to practise or implement participative decision-making. Moreover, the fact that a large percentage of universities’ population is under their supervision, signifies the importance of selecting these officials. Therefore, opting for managers is further justifiable. There were 35 former technikons and universities combined,
before the amalgamation. These are located in only 7 of the 9 provinces of this country as shown in Table 4.1.

**TABLE 4.1  SAMPLING FRAMES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FORMER TECHNIKON</th>
<th>UNIVERSITY (OF)</th>
<th>PROVINCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Border (to be Walter Sisulu</td>
<td>Fort Hare</td>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Technology)</td>
<td>Port Elizabeth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>Rhodes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Elizabeth</td>
<td>Transkei (to be Walter Sisulu University of Technology)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State (Comprehensive University of Technology)</td>
<td>Free State</td>
<td>Free State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Gauteng (now Tswane University of Technology)</td>
<td>Medical University Of Southern Africa</td>
<td>Gauteng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretoria Tshwane University of Science and Technology (former Pretoria Technikon)</td>
<td>Rand Afrikaanse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.A. (now merged with UNISA)</td>
<td>South Africa Vista</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vaal Triangle (now Vaal University of Technology)</td>
<td>Wits</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durban Institution of Technology</td>
<td>Durban Westville (now KZN KwaZulu-Natal university)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mangosuthu Technikon</td>
<td>University of Natal (now KZN University)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zululand (Pilot study)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The North University of Venda for Science &amp; Technology</td>
<td>Limpopo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 4.1 (Continued ...)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FORMER TECHNIKON</th>
<th>UNIVERSITY (OF)</th>
<th>PROVINCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North West (now Tshwane University of Technology)</td>
<td>North West Potchefstroom for Christian Higher Education (now North West University)</td>
<td>North West</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Peninsula</td>
<td>Cape Town Stellenbosch Western Cape</td>
<td>Western Cape</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These sampling frames reflect the institutions from which the sample was determined. The fact that the researcher intended drawing the sample from all these institutions, led to the consideration of purposeful sampling as relevant for this study. This was discussed under sampling design. In view of the fact that this study targets all tiers of management in these institutions, using forty (40) as an estimated average number of respondents per university, a total of about 1240 respondents will form the final sample of the study. A sample of this size is excellent, according to Tabachnik and Fidell (1989:603).

4.3 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

In the review of literature on the study at hand, a questionnaire was used in several studies. These studies

Obondo’s questionnaire (1998), used at two Kenyan universities, was designed in such a manner that it contained both open-ended and closed-ended questions. Koslowsky *et al.*, (1995) employed the questionnaire with other tools to obtain data on PDM at Tel Aviv University in Israel. The 5-point scale was used to measure responses. This technique suited this study in that five responses were given.

The work of Heller, Koopman, Drenth and Rus (1983) focused on different forms of PDM through analysing 56 decisions. Among other methods of data collection, they designed a 3-point scale. Items were ranked as low, medium and high. The variables that were being rated are satisfaction with decision making, efficiency of solution chosen, skill utilization, that is, involvement of competent persons, achievement of goals and the amount of time spent on the entire decision making process. However, the present study consists of items that fall under the following categories: PDM in operation; Outcomes of PDM activities; and Some PDM steps.
The work of Drago and Wooden (1991) focused on distinguishing between participative decision making at a lower level and at a higher level of management. A questionnaire was administered to a mammoth randomly selected sample of 2238 non-managers. The response was such that only 928 (41.5%) questionnaires were returned. A 5-point scale was designed by Drago and Wooden (1999) to measure the participation in decisions. While the present study compares well with that of Drago and Wooden, it differs sharply on the issue of the targeted sample for it uses managers as the sample.

Literature review informed the present researcher to improve on the previous researcher's tools by developing a new scale for this study of participative decision making in higher education. While on instrumentation, Chan (1995:383) made an eye-opening statement for the present researcher when he advised that investigators should always feel free to modify and improve instruments, and to develop new ones in order to access conditions and variables, more relevant when the instruments are applied to organizational or cultural contexts different from the ones which the instruments were originally designed.
Having observed how useful the questionnaire and interview have been in the reviewed literature, it would be appropriate and convenient to create an instrument befitting this study and this is a questionnaire. The reasons for choosing the questionnaire are quite numerous. A questionnaire reaches people who are difficult to contact in person; it is impersonal, so it may elicit more candid and objective replies and thus more valid responses. Moreover, it allows for uniformity and ensures that answers are more comparable. Finally, a questionnaire covers a huge field of study in an economical way (Mahlangu, 1987:84-85; Steyn, 1981:28). This study focuses on managers who are expected to complete the research instrument called the questionnaire.

4.3.1 **Sections of the research instrument**

The questionnaire as an instrument chosen for data collection of this study, consists of sections A, B and C.

**Section A** consists of items requiring the personal information of the respondents, except for their names and surnames. This personal data includes items such as gender, age, qualifications, experience, religion, rank and the type of institution. Literature reveals that the personal variables, except for gender, influence participative decision
making (Tett & Jackson, 1990). This information will be used to determine whether there is any association between the practice of PDM in institutions and the personal data.

The most commonly used personal data are: gender, age, qualifications, experience, rank, religion and type of institution (Tett and Jackson, 1990:178; Koslowsky et al., 1995:89; Parker 1999; Rosenblatt & Nord; 1999).

**Section B** features items that are participative decision making related. Such items are based on the framework from the literature review. A 5-point Likert scale was constructed consisting of ‘strongly agree’, ‘agree’, ‘unsure’, ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ categories of responses. We observe the use of a 5-point scale questionnaire in the studies of Koslowsky et al., (1995) and Drago & Wooden’s (1991) and Parnell & Bell (1994).

There are thirty-two items in this section which address aims one and two of this study.

- The first aim which seeks to determine the extent which Universities practise PDM, is addressed by questionnaire item numbers 1; 2; 4; 3; 5; 6; 7; 8; 9; 14; 17; 28; 31; 32; 33; 45; 39; 41; 39.
• The second aim, which seeks to establish the differences among institutions on the practice of PDM, is addressed by item numbers 10; 11; 12; 13; 15; 16; 18; 19; 20; 21; 22; 23; 24; 25; 26; 27; 29; 30; 34; 36; 37; 38; 40; 41; 42; 43.

• The third aim concerns itself with the cross-tabulation of respondents’ personal characteristics with the total responses to all items.

• **Section C** seeks to establish agreement among ranks assigned by the respondents to various activities of PDM nature. This implies that there will be cross-tabulation of respondents’ characteristics with responses to items 44-50 (See Appendix A).

Since the questionnaire used a 5-point Likert scale, it was scored as follows: for all the statements worded **positively**, the scoring was 5 = **strongly agree**; agree = 4; unsure = 3; disagree = 2 and **strongly disagree** = 1. For **negatively** worded statements the scoring reversed as follows: **strongly agree** = 1; agree = 2; unsure = 3; disagree = 2 and **strongly disagree** = 5. The research instrument was subjected to a pilot study to test its validity.
This study was conducted in the form of a fieldwork-cum-survey in that the pilot study was executed as part of a fieldwork exercise at the University of Zululand while the final study involved sending the questionnaire to all universities in South Africa. The following constituted the *modus operandi* of the administration of the research instrument in both the pilot and the final study:

- The pilot study preceded the final study and is discussed overleaf in 4.5. The researcher was assisted by research assistants in administering the research instrument. This exercise aided the researcher in fine-tuning the final instrument.

- Thereafter, telephonic arrangements were made with the offices of the vice-chancellors to establish rapport and contact persons were allocated to the researcher by many institutions.
• A letter requesting the administration of the research instrument written to the principals of the universities, had the research instrument attached.

• A duplicate of the original letter to the principals was attached to all questionnaires for the use of other managers that formed the sample.

Envelopes containing questionnaires as well as self-addressed envelopes were then sent to the university principals’ offices by post and others delivered by the researcher in person.

4.5 THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The pilot study was conducted at the university of Zululand’s main campus, at Kwa-Dlangezwa, near Empangeni and at the Durban-Umlazi campus, at Umlazi, near Durban. The sample, determined purposively, included all tiers of management namely, the principal, the vice-principals, the registrars, the directors, the deans, the heads of departments or sections and other managers. The purpose of conducting a pilot study was to validate the items of the research instrument. Research assistants aided the researcher in the administration and collection of the questionnaires.
Prior to the execution of the pilot study, the research assistants were thoroughly orientated on what they were expected to do when approaching the respondents and asking them for the favour of completing and returning the questionnaires either to the researchers’ internal address at university or by allowing the researcher and his assistants to collect them in person. The majority of respondents opted for the former method of returning completed questionnaires to the researcher’s post box. No difficulties were experienced with regard to the distribution of the questionnaires.

4.6 PILOT STUDY

The research instrument was pre-tested before it was distributed to the respondents in its final form. Pilot testing has its advantages which according to Ary, Jacobs and Razavich (1996:115) and Good (1972:235) include informing the researcher whether the study is feasible, helps the researcher decide whether it is worthwhile to continue with the study, and probably leads to the revision of certain questions or statements.
The acceptability and intelligibility of questions from the respondents’ perspective, pointed out to the researcher misunderstandings of questions. A pilot study also reveals the competencies of questions for correct coding and interpretation (Good, 1972). The pilot sample included the University Principal, the Vice-Principals, the Registrars, and the Directors. All were chosen purposively. In view of being chosen for piloting the research instrument, the University of Zululand did not feature in the final sample.

4.7 RESULTS OF THE PILOT STUDY

The questionnaires that were returned were far fewer than the one hundred and fifty distributed to managers for the pilot study. Though this figure falls under “poor” in terms of the sample sizes guidelines given by Tabachnik and Fidell (1989: 603), the list of managers active at the University of Zululand, available at the time (August), could not exceed one hundred and fifty. The returned questionnaires totaled seventy-two (48%). These were returned within a period of two weeks that was stipulated. The remaining ones were never returned in spite of extending the returning period by another two weeks.
The returned questionnaires were thoroughly scrutinized to check whether they were completed accordingly. Some questionnaires had remarks “I have no authority to complete this”. The researcher followed this up and discovered that such remarks were made by officials who were manning the offices on behalf of their managers. This process resulted in the rejection of twenty-seven (37.5%) and thus retaining of forty-six questionnaires as usable (63.8%). These were then used in the analysis of data of the pilot study. The SPSS computer programme was used in the analysis of this data.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Levels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Vice-Principal</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registrars Directors</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deans Managers</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hinduism</td>
<td>02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buddhism</td>
<td>02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christianity</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorial</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honours Degree</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor's Degree</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest Degree</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.7.1 **Factor analysis**

In order to determine whether the items were homogenous, factor analysis (FA) was used as was the case in the reviewed studies of Parnell and Bell (1994). This was a necessary step since the items were selected on the basis of face validity and some items might have been invalid. By carefully choosing items with particular factor-loading patterns, a sophisticated form of content validity was established. Moreover, this form of analysis yielded the internal consistency of the scale. The scale was then regarded as a valid and reliable instrument (Sibaya, 1992:87; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983 : 375).

Factor analysis (FA) is the statistical procedure for identifying variables that have common aspects or overlap (Mason & Bramble, 1989 : 245). Furthermore, FA, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (1983 : 375), reduces a large number of variables into a smaller set or pattern of interrelationships among observed variables. Preliminary lists of items are factor analyzed and refined until a reliable and sensitive instrument that measures several factors is constructed. Here follows the results of FA analysis:
TABLE 4.3 Varimax Rotated Factor Pattern: Factor Loadings of the Items.

NB: Bold Type Indicates item Highest Loading on a Factor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factors 1</th>
<th>Factors 2</th>
<th>Factors 3</th>
<th>Factors 4</th>
<th>Estimated Communalities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>.430</td>
<td>.485</td>
<td>-.202</td>
<td>-.035</td>
<td>.462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>.682</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>.158</td>
<td>.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>.628</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td>.264</td>
<td>.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>.607</td>
<td>-.036</td>
<td>-.087</td>
<td>.258</td>
<td>.443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>.595</td>
<td>.256</td>
<td>.071</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>.463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>.568</td>
<td>.267</td>
<td>.279</td>
<td>-.217</td>
<td>.518</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>-.518</td>
<td>-.240</td>
<td>-.217</td>
<td>.290</td>
<td>.457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>.445</td>
<td>.203</td>
<td>-.249</td>
<td>.634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>.595</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.181</td>
<td>-.068</td>
<td>.391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>.474</td>
<td>.224</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>.175</td>
<td>.352</td>
<td>.250</td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.412</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>.230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.280</td>
<td>.392</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>.301</td>
<td>-.085</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td>.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.294</td>
<td>.080</td>
<td>.332</td>
<td>.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>-.381</td>
<td>-.476</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>.420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>.658</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.266</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>.543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>.207</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>.234</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>.340</td>
<td>.416</td>
<td>.223</td>
<td>.177</td>
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<td>.047</td>
<td>.038</td>
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<td>-.010</td>
<td>-.365</td>
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<td>.283</td>
<td>.239</td>
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</tr>
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<td>.118</td>
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<td>-.492</td>
<td>.313</td>
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<td>.163</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>.243</td>
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<td>-.249</td>
<td>.106</td>
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<td>.368</td>
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<td>-.278</td>
<td>-.581</td>
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Table 4.3 (Continues...)

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factors 1</th>
<th>Factors 2</th>
<th>Factors 3</th>
<th>Factors 4</th>
<th>Estimated Communalities</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>.108</td>
<td>-.040</td>
<td><strong>.600</strong></td>
<td>-.158</td>
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<td><strong>.568</strong></td>
<td>.239</td>
<td>.553</td>
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<td>-.072</td>
<td><strong>.496</strong></td>
<td>-.223</td>
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<td>.353</td>
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<td>.030</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.274</td>
<td>.085</td>
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<td>.129</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>.210</td>
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<tr>
<td>37.</td>
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<td><strong>.511</strong></td>
<td>.228</td>
<td>.341</td>
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<td>.016</td>
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<td>39.</td>
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<td>.018</td>
<td>.170</td>
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<td><strong>-.403</strong></td>
<td>-.142</td>
<td><strong>-.423</strong></td>
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<td>-.053</td>
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<td>.228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
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<td>.263</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>.115</td>
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<td>.282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
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<td><strong>.384</strong></td>
<td><strong>-.357</strong></td>
<td>.300</td>
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<td><strong>.380</strong></td>
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<td>46.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.</td>
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<td><strong>.638</strong></td>
<td>.203</td>
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<td>.459</td>
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<tr>
<td>48.</td>
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<td>.089</td>
<td>-.035</td>
<td>.523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.</td>
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<td><strong>.654</strong></td>
<td>.277</td>
<td>-.154</td>
<td>.541</td>
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<tr>
<td>50.</td>
<td>.086</td>
<td>-.002</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td>-.049</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NB:** Where loadings are unstable, negative factors are the cause

Table 4.2 reflects factor loadings as correlation coefficients between factors and items. These coefficients stand for factor loadings of items on the factors. Put the other way round, factor loadings represent the extent or degree to which an item is associated with a factor.
The very first column marked “item number” enumerates items themselves. The second, third, fourth and fifth columns, respectively, reflect loadings between factors 1, 2, 3 and 4 extracted sequentially, including items. The last column reflects an estimated communality of each item. The cut-off point established for the interpretation of correlation coefficient was initially chosen at .33 (Tabachnik & Fidell, 1983/1989; 148-149:158-159,170).

However, in view of the fact that the factor matrix was not that easily interpretable, a further rotation of the factors to achieve a more interpretable structure, became a sine qua non for successful interpretation, as Terre Blanche and Durkheim (2002: 365-366) so suggest. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, .333 was chosen as the cut-off point, since three number digits were eventually used in the factor analysis. Therefore, loadings below .333 were rejected.

Factor analysis in this study, using verimax rotated method with Kaiser normalization, accounted for 30% communality variance. It revealed major factors with the reliability coefficient of 69%.
Table 4.3 reveals items 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 17, 19, 33, and 34 as having relatively the highest loadings on the first factor and loadings below the cut-off point on the other three factors. Factor one could be termed “PDM in operation”. Items 1, 11, 12, 16, 21, 28, 43, 44, 47, 48 and 49 have the highest loadings on the second factor and relatively lower loadings on the other three factors. These factor loadings represent what could be termed “PDM and perceptions”.

Moreover, items 13, 22, 29, 30, 31, 32, 37, 38, and 45 reflect both the highest loading on the third factor and lower loading on the other three factors. Factor three is associated with measuring the “Outcomes of PDM practice”. Item numbers 24, 27, 39, 40, and 46 reveal highest loading on the fourth factor and lower in the other three loadings. Factor 4 measures what can be termed the “Decision Making Approaches”. The FA grouping of items into four factors is indicative of the fact that a certain cluster of items is homogenous.

In making sense of the factor loading yield by correlation coefficients, the interpretation of loadings stipulated by Tabachnik and Fidel (1983 : 411) are highly helpful. They are as follows:
a) Loadings of .71 (50% overlapping variance) are termed excellent. This study’s FA yielded this (.71).

b) Loadings in excess of .63 (40% overlapping variance) are deemed as very good. This study has yielded such too.

c) Loadings in excess of .55 (30% overlapping variance) are termed good. Such is the case in this study’s FA outcomes.

d) Loadings in excess of .45 (20%) fair. This study’s FA yielded this (.45) as well.

e) Loadings of .32 (10% of variance) as poor. This present study has not used these figures as its cut off point was chosen to be at .33.

In keeping with the studies of Kanter (1979) and Rosenblatt and Nord (1999), inter alia, factor analysis was done in this study. As the cut-off point for factor analysis was .333, item numbers, 14, 15, 18, 20, 23, 25, 26, 35, 36, 42, and 50 were discarded. The highest factor loadings of these
items are .301, .322, .244, .238, .283, .243, -.154, .274, .324, .263, and .100 respectively (See Appendix B). Because these item numbers are below the cut-off point, they are not eligible, therefore, 11 out of 50 were discarded from the final instrument. Thus, the ideal number of the items of the instrument for the final study is 39 (See Appendix B).

4.7.2 Description of the four factors

The four factors in question are namely, PDM in Operation; Execution of PDM; Outcomes of PDM activities and Some decision making steps. Each is described hereunder:

FACTOR 1: PDM IN OPERATION (items, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 17, 19, 33, 34).

This factor measures PDM in operation. It encompasses such items as meetings open to staff attendance and sometimes chairing these by staff; Participation of junior staff in issues, creation and existence of participation structures, commitment to PDM by participants, democratic participation and soliciting the views of other staff members as well as non-participation of other members.
FACTOR 2: PDM AND PERCEPTIONS (items 1, 8, 11, 12, 21, 28, 43, 44, 47, 48, 49)

PDM and perceptions factor covers such items as the involvement of all stakeholders in decision making; getting views of staff members; participation in PDM as providing psychological ownership, the need to train staff in PDM; collaboration; ensuring participation of staff; use of majority rule principle; participation stages; participation during communicating the action plan and monitoring it, and participation during evaluation of the plan.

FACTOR 3: OUTCOMES OF PDM PRACTICE (Items 13, 22, 29, 30, 31, 32, 37, 38, 45).

Some outcomes of PDM include participation as increasing motivation; staff taking turns in chairing a meeting, partaking in drawing up the agenda, allowing non-participation of staff when they so, choose and non-participation in staff activities.
FACTOR 4 : SOME DECISION MAKING APPROACHES (Items 24, 27, 39, 40, 46)

Some decision making steps cover such items as working in consultation with others before a decision is taken; voluntary and spontaneous communication; leader having his own way; and programming the plan of action and participation.

4.8 PLANNING FOR DATA ANALYSIS

Data of this study obtained by means of a questionnaire, was analyzed by means of a combination of statistical research tests. More specifically a computer statistical programme called Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) was employed.

In the reviewed literature the studies of Schaubroeck and Jennings ' (1991:56-57) used a Chi-square one sample test and this suits well the first research aim of this study which seeks to: determine the extent to which universities practise participative decision making (PDM). The Chi-square test for one sample test of significance, employed in the investigation, concerns categorical variables, that is comparing how many managers, in this case, fall into a
certain category (Borg & Gall, 1983:559; Ngidi, 1998:53; Bailey, 1982:405; Behr, 1983:79-80/1988:82). Similar studies which have used the Chi-square one sample test are those of Schaubroeck and Jennings (1991:56-57); Langen-Fox, Waysoth, Morizzi and McDonald (1998:256-257).

The test, which was used in the second aim of this study is also the Chi-square. It is used to test hypotheses as it measures relationships and comparable characteristics. The second research aim seeks to: establish whether PDM is influenced by certain managers’ characteristics (Martins, Loubser & Van Wyk,1996:315-316). The studies of Drago & Wooden (1990:184), have also used the Chi-square one sample test.

In the third research aim the combination of the F-test and the t-test were employed to determine whether there is any difference among institutions in the practice of participative decision making (PDM). The F-test and the t-test, were used in the studies of Koslowsky, Elizur, and Sagie, (1995:87), while the F-test and the t-test were used in the work of Parker (1999:6). The t-test measures the significant between two means of a single sample, while the F-test is suitable where more than two means are compared to determine whether groups differ significantly among
themselves and whether there are any interactions between them. Related studies that employed the above mentioned tests are those of Drago and Wooden (1991:186); Hill and Schmitt (1994:255); Koslowsky, Sagie and Elizur (1995:88); Parker (1999:6); Veen, (1972:294-297).

The **Fourth research aim** seeks to determine whether there is an association or agreement among the ranks assigned by the respondents to items 33-38 of the research instrument. The test chosen to measure this association is the Kendall W for Coefficient of Concordance (Mulder, 1987:77 & Sibaya, 2002:70). This statistical test was used in the research work of Heller; Koopman; Drenth and Rus (1983:1-3; 14) to test for associations or agreements among respondents.

### 4.9 CONCLUSION

Chapter 4 dealt in detail with the research design and methodology of this study. It also tabled, analyzed and interpreted the results of the pilot study which resulted in the validating of the 50 research instrument items using factor analysis. The outcome was that 31 items were retained for use in the final instrument, while 19 were rejected.
The following chapter details the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the empirical investigation of final study. The hypotheses postulated in Chapter 1 are tested.
CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter, explicated the research design and methodology. It also dealt with the fieldwork procedures of both the pilot and the final study. The analysis and interpretation of data are presented in detail in this chapter. Moreover, the hypotheses postulated in chapter one of this study, are tested in this chapter.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Levels</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>226</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 5.1 DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS IN THE FINAL STUDY (N=226)
5.2 DISTRIBUTION AND RESPONSE RATE OF QUESTIONNAIRES

The total returns numbered to two hundred and twenty-six (226). Drago and Wooden’s study (1991) had distributed questionnaires to 2238. Their returns totaled 928 (41.5%). The guideline for sample size given by Tabachnik and Fidell (1989:603), is a sample of 200. This is regarded as a fair sample. It is also suggested that a sample size of 100 to 200 is good enough for most purposes (Tabachnik & Fidell, 1989:603). The researcher is mindful of the fact that the completion of a questionnaire is a favour asked of persons as Behr (1983:152), correctly observes, so no one at institutions that did not co-operate is to blame (See Appendix C).

5.3 RESULTS OF THE FINAL STUDY

In the analysis of data, hypotheses are tested and the results are presented in tables. Furthermore, the appropriate statistical test for testing hypotheses for problems a to h, is the Chi-square test. This test is applied to one and k independent samples. The Chi-square test categorizes subjects along one variable having two or more categories, counting the frequencies (the number) of
subjects belonging to each category. Each subject is measured only once and can be in one category. Category membership is independent. The fact that a particular subject falls in one category does not influence the probability of any other subjects falling in any category.

The computations are based on responses of all subjects in the study. In other words, this means we would not count only the number of those who have positive perceptions, on participative decision making (PDM), but also those with negative perceptions would also be counted. In order for data to meet certain theoretical considerations, the expected frequency ($f_e$) in any category should equal at least five (Heiman, 1996: 456–459).

Moreover, the Chi-square test is the most frequently used non-parametric statistical test of significance. It is concerned with comparing differences in the actual (observed) frequencies (counts) with the expected frequencies. Furthermore, the Chi-square informs us the extent to which observed set of frequencies differ from frequencies that are expected (Borg & Gall, 1983:559; Ngidi, 1998:53; Behr, 1988:79; Bailey, 1982:405; Behr, 1983:79-80/1988:82). Similar studies which have used the Chi-square test are
those of Schaubroeck and Jennings (1991:56-57); Langen-Fox, Waysoth, Morizzi and McDonald (1998:256-257).

5.4 Analysis of Data

This study has four hypotheses to be tested. The re-iteration of the hypothesis to be tested precedes the data presentation in the form of tables.

(a) The first null hypothesis stands thus:

\[ H_0 = \text{Managers from tertiary institutions hold negative perceptions about participative decision making (PDM).} \]

\[ H_1 = \text{Managers from tertiary institutions do not hold negative perceptions about participative decision making (PDM).} \]

| TABLE 5.2 MANAGERS' PERCEPTIONS OF PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) (N=226) |
|----------------------------------------|------------------|
|                                       | Perceptions       |
|                                       | Negative  | Positive |
| Frequency                             | 108       | 118      |
| Percentage                            | 47.8%     | 52.2%    |
| \( \chi^2 = 0.79 \)                   | df = 1.     | p > 0.05. |
The Chi-square test value of .79 at df = 1, is not significant (p>.05). The hypothesis that managers hold negative perceptions about participative decision making (PDM) has been confirmed. The conclusion is that managers do not like to practise participative decision making (PDM). The differences between those who hold positive and negative perceptions are not statistically significant.

(b) The second null hypothesis stands thus:

\[ H_0 = \text{There is no relationship between gender and perception of participative decision making (PDM).} \]

\[ H_1 = \text{There is a relationship between gender and perception of participative decision making (PDM).} \]

**TABLE 5.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER AND PERCEPTION OF PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (N=226)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Perception of PDM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 11.3, \quad df = 1, \quad p<.05. \]
The Chi-square test value of 11.3 at df = 1 is highly significant (p<.001). The hypothesis that there is no relationship between gender and the perception of participative decision making (PDM), is out-rightly rejected and the alternative hypothesis is upheld. The conclusion is that there is a strong relationship between gender and the practice of participative decision making (PDM). About 74% of the female managers are favourably disposed towards the practice of participative decision making and 54% of their male counterparts are negatively disposed toward the practice of participative decision making.

(c) The third null hypothesis stands as follows:

\[ H_0 = \text{There is no relationship between age and perception of PDM.} \]
\[ H_1 = \text{There is a relationship between age and perception of PDM.} \]
TABLE 5.4  RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AGE AND PERCEPTION OF PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) (N=226)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age in years</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21-40</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51+</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \chi^2 = 5.04. \) \( df = 2. \) \( P > .05. \)

The adjacent cells of this variable involving such categories as “20 and under”, “21-30” and “31-40” were collapsed, into a new category “21-40”, for having frequencies that were less than 5 in the case of each cell (Heiman, 1996: 456 – 459).

The Chi-square test value of 5.04 at \( df = 2 \) is not significant \( (p > .05) \). Thus, the hypothesis that there is no relationship between age and the practice of participative decision making (PDM) is upheld, while the alternative hypothesis is rejected. This brings us to the conclusion that there is no
relationship between age and the practice of participative decision making (PDM). Even so, table 5.4 shows that 64.7% of the age category “21-40” are positively disposed towards participative decision making (PDM), and so are those managers of categories of “41-50” (56.2%). Only the managers of the age category “50 and above” are negatively disposed towards participative decision making (PDM). Their percentage is 55.3.

(d) The fourth null hypothesis stands thus:

\[ H_0 = \text{There is no relationship between qualification and perception of PDM.} \]
\[ H_1 = \text{There is a relationship between qualification and perception of PDM.} \]
TABLE 5.5  RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN QUALIFICATION AND PERCEPTION OF PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) (N=226)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Positive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honours</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor's</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma and other</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 2.04. \text{ df} = 4. \text{ p}>.0.5. \]

The adjacent cells of this variable involving diploma and other had to be collapsed, because their frequencies (counts) were less than 5 in the case of each cell.

The Chi-square test value of 2.03 at df = 4 is not significant (p>.05). The null hypothesis that there is no relationship between qualification of respondents and the perception of the practice of participative decision making (PDM) has been confirmed. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis is rejected.
The conclusion reached is that qualification does not influence participative decision making (PDM) differently.

(e) The fifth null hypothesis stands thus:

\[ H_0 = \text{There is no relationship between experience and perception of PDM.} \]
\[ H_1 = \text{There is a relationship between experience and perception of PDM.} \]

TABLE 5.6
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXPERIENCE AND THE PERCEPTION OF PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) (N=226)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Perception of DPM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-10</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31+</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 2.9, \quad \text{df} = 3, \quad p > .05. \]
The Chi-square test value of 2.9 at df = 3 is not significant (p > .05). The null hypothesis that there is no relationship between experience and the perception of the practice of participative decision making (PDM) has been confirmed. Members of another category of the range “11-20” are negatively disposed by 53.3%, towards the notion of participative decision making (PDM).

(f) The sixth null hypothesis stands thus:

\[ H_0 = \text{There is no relationship between religion and perception of PDM.} \]
\[ H_1 = \text{There is a relationship between religion and perception of PDM.} \]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Positive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Christianity</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Western Religions</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = .36, \ df = 2, \ p > .05. \]

Adjacent cells containing data on Judaism, Buddhism, Islam, Hinduism and Shembeism, were collapsed into a new category “Non-Western Religions”, because each cell had less than 5 frequencies. This null hypothesis endeavoured to test whether there is no relationship between religion and the perception of the practice of participative decision making on the part of managers. In order to test this null hypothesis a decision was taken to employ a Chi-square test for it is a suitable statistical test to test the difference between observed and expected frequencies as indicated earlier in this chapter. The Chi-square test value of .36 at df
= 2, is not significant \((p > 0.05)\). Therefore, the decision is to uphold the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between religion and the perception of the practice of participatory decision making. The conclusion is that managers perceive no relationship between religion and the practice of participative decision making. However, table 5.7 reflects that the category of "other" religion managers perceive, by 57.1\%, that there is a relationship between religion and the practice of participative decision making (PDM). This is followed by managers who support the religions mentioned in the opening paragraph, as well as by Christianity.

(g) The seventh null hypothesis stands thus:

\[
H_0 = \text{There is no relationship between rank and perception of PDM.} \\
H_1 = \text{There is relationship between rank and perception of PDM.}
\]
TABLE 5.8  RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RANK AND THE PERCEPTION OF THE PRACTICE OF PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) (N = 226)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Positive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top Management</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dean</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 4.16, \ \text{df} = 4, \ \text{p} > .05 \]

The adjacent cells of this variable involving the principal, the vice-principal and the registrar had to be collapsed, because their frequencies (counts) were less than 5 in the case of each cell. The new name given these cells combined is "Top Management".

The Chi-square test value of 4.16 at df = 4, is not significant (p > .05). The null hypothesis that there is a relationship between rank and the perception of the practice of
participative decision making (PDM), is upheld. The conclusion is that, the alternative hypothesis is rejected. However, table 5.8 reflects 65.6% principals, vice-principals and registrar, as having perceived that there is a relationship between rank and the practice of participative decision making practice, followed by the “managers” category, who scored 55% in the affirmative. About 54.8% of managers in the “other” category, perceived that rank and the practice of decision making, have a relationship.

(h) The eighth hypothesis stands thus:

\[ H_0 = \text{There is no relationship between institution and perception of PDM.} \]

\[ H_1 = \text{There is relationship between institution and perception of PDM.} \]
TABLE 5.9  RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INSTITUTIONS AND PERCEPTION OF THE PRACTICE OF PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM)  
(N=226)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Positive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Former Technikon</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 0.79. \quad df = 1. \quad p > .05. \]

The Chi-square value of 0.79 at df = 1, is not significant (p > .05). Therefore, the null hypotheses that there is no relationship between the type of institution and the perception of the practice of participative decision making is upheld and alternative hypothesis rejected. Table 5.10 reflects 54.2% at the former technikons are positive towards the practice of participative decision making (PDM). About 45.8% of the respondents were negatively disposed towards the practice of participative decision making. On the other hand only 47.9% of respondents from universities indicated
positive perception of the practice of participative decision making. A slight majority of 52.1% were negative towards the practice of participative decision making.

(i) The ninth hypothesis stands thus:

\[ H_0 = \text{Universities do not differ in their perceptions of PDM.} \]
\[ H_1 = \text{Universities differ in their perceptions of PDM.} \]

This null hypothesis attempts to answer the question whether universities differ in their practice of participative decision making (PDM). The most suitable tests for this null hypothesis is the combination of the F-test and the t-test. Firstly, the F-test is an appropriate statistical test which is applicable where more than two means are compared to determine whether groups differ significantly among themselves and where there are any interaction between these means (Borg & Gall, 1983:549-552; Behr, 1983:75/1978:62-70).

Likewise, the t-test was also chosen as appropriate to test this hypothesis in combination with the F-test for the same reasons advanced above, that is, the t-test measures the significance between two means for a single sample. It is
assumed that in using this test the dependent variable is the continuous variable measured at the interval or ratio scale and that the sample data are approximately normally distributed. One caution, though, is that t-test is quite robust with respect to minor violation of the assumption of normally distributed data when sample sizes are larger (N ≥ 50) (Diekhoff, 1992:116;196-208; Heiman, 1996: 356-360; 383-393).

Table 5.10 shows that the F-test of 2.5 (p>.118) and the t-test of 1.4 (p>.160) are not statistically significant. This means that we uphold the null hypothesis that universities do not differ with regard to their perceptions of participative decision making (PDM). However, it is important to indicate that differing sample sizes do not permit a bold declaration of non-differences in PDM perceptions by universities.
TABLE 5.10  MEAN DIFFERENCE BETWEEN UNIVERSITIES WITH RESPECT TO
PERCEPTION OF PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) (N=226)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Former Technikon</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>91.13</td>
<td>.634</td>
<td>.698</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>89.32</td>
<td>9.870</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.155</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>1.410</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>.160</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>1.287</td>
<td>-.721</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

127
(j) The tenth null hypothesis stands thus:

\[ H_0 = \text{There is no agreement among ranks assigned by the respondents to various instances of a PDM nature.} \]

\[ H_1 = \text{There is agreement among ranks assigned by the respondents to various instances of a PDM nature.} \]

**TABLE 5.11** THE ASSOCIATION AMONG RANKS ASSIGNED BY ADJUDICATORS TO SIX STATEMENTS (N=226)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Kendall’s Coefficient of Concordance W</th>
<th>( \chi^2 )</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>226</td>
<td>( .063 )</td>
<td>71.681</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Kendall W Coefficient of Concordance is a correlation technique that is used if variables to be compared are more than two, to test the degree of agreement among the judges or responses (Sibaya, 2002:70; Mulder, 1987:77). In this study the variables to compared are six. This statistical method was developed by Kendall for calculating rank order correlation coefficients.
Table 5.11 shows the Kendall W Coefficient of Concordance (0.063) that is associated with conversion Chi-square of value of 71.681 at df = 5. This Chi-square value is highly significant (p<.000). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there will be no agreement among ranks assigned by 226 managers to six different instances associated with the participative decision making practice, is rejected outright. Instead the alternative hypothesis is upheld, that is, there is agreement among ranks assigned by adjudicators to the six instances of the practice of participative decision making (PDM). This implies that the adjudicators make use of the same criteria in their judgement.

5.4 CONCLUSION

Chapter 5 concerned itself with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of empirical data. In the next chapter, a detailed discussion of the findings is presented.
CHAPTER SIX

6.0 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the findings, flowing from the analyzed data, are discussed. In order to determine whether the objectives of this study have been realized, the research questions and aims of the study will be examined in relation to the findings.

The aim of the study was to provide answers to the following research questions:

(a) To what extent do universities practise PDM?
(b) Do managers’ personal characteristics have influence on PDM?
(c) What are the differences, if any, among institutions under study regarding the PDM practice?
(d) Is there any agreement among the ranks assigned by the respondents with respect to PDM activities?
6.2 FINDINGS WITH RESPECT TO THE EXTENT TO WHICH UNIVERSITIES PRACTISE PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM)

The findings of the present study reveal that both the South African university managers hold negative perceptions about the practice of PDM. This findings supports the works of Obondo (1998:13-18), Barengu (1991:20-23) and Kilemi (1996:15-17). These studies reveal that very few number of managers and other personnel participated in the decision making processes at the Kenyatta and Nairobi universities. The majority of the staff in these two universities were simply informed after the decision had been made.

In the case of the finding of this present study, the negative disposition of managers towards participative decision making could suggest preference of non-participation of other personnel, especially junior members of the universities. This finding and the related studies could be accounted for by the fact that participative decision making is not practised in a number of African institutions, especially those of higher education as the study of Lauglo (1995:7) so suggested. Therefore, the negative perception towards PDM practice at South Africans universities, could possibly be in line with the practice of Kenyatta and Nairobi universities in
Kenya. These institutions, at least, serve as opponents of this PDM concept. This is not an acceptable practice, as it countenances the exclusion of other personnel from participation in decision making.


These studies reveal that participation in decision making at institutions of higher learning abroad, especially in the United Kingdom and the United States of America, ranges from low to high levels. The reason for this is that practising participative decision making is the norm of all levels of management, starting from top or executive management. The Massachusetts Alliance for Education (USA), for an example, is the driving force behind the PDM plan at institutional level (Fry and Hellriegel, 1987). Such participation makes personnel have some kind of ownership
of the institution, as well as become motivated and more productive.

Of significance as well is the fact that through a series of studies, Drenth et al., (1979) and Heller et al., (1983 & 1977) found that participation in decision making by personnel, increased change in an organization leads to job satisfaction. What was also found is that when the decision making process was dominated by management.

It would appear the finding of the present study is not only contrary to the international trend that obtains in higher education, with regard to participative decision making, but also exposes the picture that some South African institutions have been lagging behind regarding PDM. Furthermore, the finding in question brings to the fore the fact that a concerted effort needs to be done to change the negative perceptions of managers toward PDM at South African universities.
6.3 FINDINGS WITH REGARD TO MANAGERS’ PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS IN RELATION TO THE PRACTICE OF PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM)

The second question this study attempts to answer is whether managers’ personal characteristics influence the practice of PDM at South African universities. The personal characteristics referred to here are: gender; age; qualifications; experience; religion; rank and institution type. Findings pertaining to these are discussed in separate categories:

6.3.1 Findings on the relationship between gender and the practice of PDM

The findings of this study showed a strong relationship between managers’ gender and the practice of PDM at universities. What is interesting and significant, is that women managers indicated, by a high majority percentage, as opposed to their male counterparts, their positive perception of PDM at these institutions.

The finding of the present study supports those of Drago and Wooden (1991:177-209), Belasco and Alutto (1972:43-48)
and Taylor and Dunnette (1974: 288-290). The findings of these studies reveal that women managers embrace PDM such that they experienced a more de jure (rightful) participation in high order decisions than their male counterparts (Drago & Wooden, 1991; Taylor & Dunnette, 1974).

The issue of women managers' positive disposition towards the practices of PDM could explicitly carry various possible meanings and implications. It could mean women managers easily and voluntarily accept, embrace and implement change. It could also mean that some male managers resist change and are reluctant to implement it.

Could it be that women better fathom both the concept and the dynamics of PDM? Mergerison and Glubbe (1979:50-55) found that women in management bring with them some welcome changes. This may explain why they are positively disposed towards the practice of PDM, which is a management tool for synergism in organization.

Furthermore, the finding of this study goes against the findings of the Mohr (1977:864-8), Cotton, Froggatt, Leunick-Hall and Vollrath (1988:18-20) and Koslowsky et al., (1995:85). These studies found that gender had no
effect on participative decision making. According to the work of Paul and Ebadi (1989:203-7), IDE (1979:273-80), and DIO (1979:296-299), gender becomes a non-issue if the playground has equally been leveled for all participants in PDM. The leveling of the playground suggests equality, justice, same and fair rules of the game regarding the practice of PDM, apply.

It is unfortunate that people, such as women managers, who are pro-PDM, are not well or fairly represented in the top management positions at universities.

6.3.2 Findings on the relationship between age and the practice of PDM

The findings of the present study revealed that the managers’ age has no significant influence on the practice of participative decision making (PDM). This is contrary to the findings of the following studies, Koch (2004:20-24), Rus, Odar, Heller, Brown, Drenth, Koopman, Wierdsma, Rus and Kruyswisk (1977:15-20), Lock and Scheweiger (1979:266-80) and Koslowsky et al., (1995:89) who found age to be a significant factor in relation to the practice of decision making. Implicit in this finding is that fact that, though age symbolises growth or maturity, and wisdom which comes
with age, it cannot be a *sine qua non* for participation in decision making practice.

6.3.3 **Findings on the relationship between qualification and the practice of PDM**

The findings of the present study reveal that qualification does not influence the practice of participative decision making at the universities. This is contrary to the findings of Field and House (1990:526-7), Guzzo, Maguire, Wagner, Herr and Hawley (1986:280-286) as well as Koslowsky et al. (1995:89), whose studies found that there was a relationship between the managers' qualification and the practice of participative decision making.

The reason for the differences between the findings of this study and others, could be attributed to the fact that these studies were conducted at totally different settings and environments abroad and the present study in South Africa, with different settings and environments too (Kezar, 2001:20).
6.3.4 Findings on the relationship between experience and the practice of PDM

The present study has found the influence of experience to be an insignificant factor in the practice of participative decision making. This is contrary to the findings of Paul and Ebadi (1989:207-8); DIO (1979:297) and Koslowsky et al., (1995:89), who found experience to impact on the practice of PDM at institutions.

Even though an old adage goes: “Experience is the best teacher”, this study’s finding dismissed that saying. Therefore, managers’ experience has no affinity with PDM.

One cannot turn a blind eye to experience though. However, the factors such as environment and context vary from country to country and institution to institution on these issues of managers’ personal characteristics and PDM as Kezar, (2001: 91) found out. Locke and Schweiger (1979:265-269) and Schuler (1980:332-337), acting on their findings of a study that is related to PDM, suggested rules for fair PDM practice that considers important variables of participants. Experience was suggested as one of the significant factors.
6.3.5 Findings on the relationship between religion and the practice of PDM

The findings of this study showed that the issue of a relationship between religion and the practice of participative decision making (PDM) does not exist. This finding is in agreement with those of Kezar (2001:99), Butler, Hickson, Wilson, and Axelsson (1978:47-48), Witte (1972:158-161), which revealed no mention of the relationship at all between religion and PDM practice.

However, the studies of Koch (2004:23-6) and as Tjosvold (1984:135-136) found religion not only to be significant but also contributing in moulding the character of a manager into a servant kind of leader.

6.3.6 Findings on the relationship between rank and the practice of PDM

The findings of this study reveal that there is no relationship between the manager's rank and participative decision making (PDM). According to the results, therefore, the relationship between the two variables, that is, rank and participative decision making, is insignificant or non-existent. However, the results of the studies of Parker
(1999) and Tett and Jackson (1990), found rank of the manager to play a significant role.

On the contrary, while the finding of this study plays down the rank’s influence on PDM, the studies of Shubik (1958:289-290) and Taylor & Dunnette (1974:287-289), revealed that rank is an important attribute of PDM for top managers are accountable for all the decision the institutions makes. The researcher concur that this finding does overlook the significance of rank in especially the institutions studied.

6.3.7 Difference between universities regarding perception of participative decision making (PDM) practice

The question being answered here is whether universities differ from each other with regard to their perception of PDM practice. The findings of the present study dismiss the assumption that these institutions differ in their perceptions of participation in decision making practice.

This finding differs from those of Burck and Labate (1993:2-5) and Kezar (2001:99), who found that PDM is operational on campuses or in environments that truly embrace diversity
and radically transform the leadership environment. The practices of PDM at different universities will reflect similarities as well as sharp dissimilarities due to their environments and particularity. These suggest important issues of conducive environments and contexts for PDM to operate at each institution with minimal differences. According to Jackson (1983:5-7) the practice of PDM cannot be expected to be the same in toto due to differences in that obtain in each institution.

This finding of the present study agrees with those of Obondo (1998:18), Barengu (1991:20-23) and Kilemi (1996:15-17). These studies revealed striking similarities between institutions they studied. It is the view of the researcher that, though the findings reveal harmony between institutions with regard to the practice of PDM, the comparative principle of the “common and the diverse”, will always surface.
6.4 FINDINGS WITH REGARD TO ASSOCIATION AMONG RANKS ASSIGNED BY ADJUDICATORS TO SIX PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) STATEMENTS

The question being answered here is whether there is any association or agreement among the ranks assigned by 226 respondents to the six PDM-related items.

The finding of this study reveals that there is agreement or association among the ranks assigned by 226 adjudicators (respondents). The findings of the present study concur with those of Plunkett and Fournier (1992:76) on the issue of the agreement in the ranking of PDM variables. This according to the two researchers, this agreement suggests a collaborative possibility, which may produce results that outweigh the sum total of an individual.

On the contrary, the findings of the present study contrast sharply with those of Heller et al., (1983:1-3 & 1979:310), who found that there was no harmony or association in the ranking of particular PDM items, by managers.
6.5 CONCLUSION

Chapter six detailed an account of the findings of this study. Some of the findings discovered were in consonance with various previous researchers' studies. The findings of the present study agree with these other studies on the issue of the negative disposition of some managers towards the practice of PDM. This led to the conclusion that the perception on PDM at universities by managers is negative.

The findings also disclosed that managers' personal characteristics, in relation to the practice of PDM, were in accord with other studies. Such studies were confirmed by the present study in such areas as, rank qualification, age, and experience.

A sharp contrast and surprise was the significance of gender, which the findings of other studies, found to be insignificant. The findings of this study have revealed gender as highly significant, with female managers leading the pack.

The findings of this study have further revealed that similarities exist between universities in relation to the
practice of PDM. This suggests that South African institutions have a lot in common in terms of management and PDM.

Finally, the findings of this study further reveal the existence of agreement among managers on the issues that pertain to decision making statements or stages that form the backbone of PDM. One can therefore conclude that the findings of this study regarding PDM practice, indicate strong support for all the aims of the study with the exception of a few variables under personal characteristics. These are age, qualifications, experience, religion and rank, which were all found to be insignificant in relation to the practice PDM.

The next chapter presents the summary, conclusion and recommendations of this study.
CHAPTER SEVEN

7.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 SUMMARY

7.1.1 The problem

This study was designed to investigate the practice of PDM at the universities of South Africa. In order to achieve this, the research problem was formulated in the form of the following questions:

(a) To what extent do universities practise PDM?
(b) Do managers’ personal characteristics have influence on PDM?
(c) What are the differences, if any, among institutions under study regarding the PDM practice?
(d) Is there any agreement among the ranks assigned by the respondents with respect to PDM activities?

7.1.2 The aims of the study

The aims of the study were:
(a) To determine the extent to which universities practise PDM.

(b) To establish whether PDM is influenced by managers’ personal characteristics. The characteristics in question include: gender, age, qualification, experience, religion, rank, and type of institution.

(c) To determine whether there is any difference among institutions on the practice of PDM.

(d) To establish whether there is any association or agreement among the respondents on particular PDM statements.

7.1.3 **Hypotheses postulated**

The following null hypotheses were formulated:

7.1.3.1 $H_0$: Managers from tertiary institutions do no differ in their negative perceptions about participatory decision making (PDM).

$H_1$: Managers from tertiary institutions do differ in their perceptions about PDM.
7.1.3.2 \( H_0 = \) There is no relationship between gender and perception of PDM.
\( H_1 = \) There is relationship between gender and perception of PDM.

7.1.3.3 \( H_0 = \) There is no relationship between age and perception of PDM.
\( H_1 = \) There is relationship between age and perception of PDM.

7.1.3.4 \( H_0 = \) There is no relationship between qualification and perception of PDM.
\( H_1 = \) There is a relationship between qualification and perception of PDM.

7.1.3.5 \( H_0 = \) There is no relationship between experience and perception of PDM.
\( H_1 = \) There is a relationship between experience and perception of PDM.

7.1.3.6 \( H_0 = \) There is no relationship between religion and perception of PDM.
\( H_1 = \) There is a relationship between religion and perception of PDM.
7.1.3.7 $H_0 =$ There is no relationship between rank and perception of PDM.
$H_1 =$ There is a relationship between rank and perception of PDM.

7.1.3.8 $H_0 =$ There is no relationship between institution and perception of PDM.
$H_1 =$ There is a relationship between institution and perception of PDM.

7.1.3.9 $H_0 =$ Institutions do not differ with regard to the practice of PDM.
$H_1 =$ Institutions do differ with regard to the practice of PDM.

7.1.3.10 $H_0 =$ There is no agreement among ranks assigned by the respondents to various activities of a PDM nature.
$H_1 =$ There is an agreement among ranks assigned by the respondents to various activities of a PDM nature.
The questionnaire was employed as a research instrument of this study. This instrument was piloted at the University of Zululand. Section A of the instrument consisted of biographical data. Section B and C of this instrument were validated by the researcher by means of a method called factor analysis (FA). The validated final instrument was administered to 226 managers of the universities of South Africa. The University of Zululand was excluded in the final study for it had featured in the pilot study. The sample of this study had been purposively selected and it targeted strictly managers.

The statistical tests found to be appropriate for testing hypotheses were the Chi-square test which measured null hypotheses a to h, the t-test and the F-test, which tested the ninth hypothesis and Kandall W Coefficient of Concordance which tested the tenth hypothesis.
Conclusions

The findings of the study led to the following conclusions:

(a) University managers in South Africa do not differ in their perceptions of PDM.

(b) Female managers and their male counterparts differed sharply on their perception of PDM. Female managers indicated by a high margin their positive disposition towards PDM.

(c) Managers’ personal data such as age, qualification, experience, rank, and religion did not influence the perceptions of PDM.

(d) Managers from different institutions do not differ in their perceptions of PDM. The agreement or association among the ranks assigned by managers of these institutions, suggests some common ground of perception with regard to PDM issues.
7.2 GENERALIZATION

This study has endeavoured to answer the questions raised in the first chapter with regard to PDM at South African universities.

Generalization can be made with a measure of confidence because the sample size was large and was selected from all the institutions in South Africa.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

7.3.1 PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) AT SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES MUST BE ENCOURAGED

7.3.1.1 The main aim of this study was to determine the extent to which universities of South Africa practise PDM. The findings show that there is negative perceptions of PDM on the part of managers. The recommendation is that these perceptions ought to be changed for the better, so that every stakeholder can have a share in the decision making processes that affect them.
Moreover, the constitution of the country is promoting democracy.

7.3.1.2 The findings also lead to the recommendation that top management at universities need to devise mechanisms which will be used to see to the implementation of PDM, monitoring or measuring progress, and assessing from time to time the strengths and weaknesses of this approach.

7.3.1.3 The findings further lead to the recommendation that these institutions may have to view it as their responsibility to practise PDM to the fullest extent, especially during this era of democratic changes that sweep across the country South Africa.

7.3.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Though this study has achieved its objectives, several limitations exist with regard to sampling; instrument used; the administration of research instruments; the non-return of some of these completed instruments; and wide scope of study in terms of field work.
(a) The sampling method used in the study, that is purposive sampling, caused some drawbacks regarding expected respondents in that the researcher never had a picture of the number of managers per tertiary institution. This resulted in managers, either completing or not completing the research instruments for there was no physical contact with the researcher. This was the case even during pilot study which was conducted where the researcher knows managers, but co-operation in terms of returns was wanting. Some managers returned instruments long after the stipulated time.

(b) The research instruments’ section C (of the pilot study) was not easily understood by certain respondents. Some even remarked on the instrument:

“I do not know what rank ordering is”

This points to the fact that the instrument was not lucid enough. Thus improvements were effected after pilot run. Thereafter, the sample of the final study completed this rank-ordering part with ease. The validity and reliability of the instrument items were established and computed.
(c) The administration of the questionnaire in the final study had been well-planned, especially telephonically, with the principals’ and vice-principals’ offices, but in some cases, where the researcher could visit, this information appeared unknown. The outcome in some institutions was to return the questionnaires without being administered to the sample, and in other cases they kept promising to deliver these and they never did. This cost the researcher heavily. He had to wait more than three months for at least fair returns to roll in and they finally did. This questions the administration procedures of the researcher given the fact that instruments were to cover all South African tertiary institutions.

(d) The sample size was not very large. The sampling design was purposive. There is a need to increase sample size and to use random sampling design.

In spite of the limitations mentioned above, this study qualifies for a good applicability. The research topic chosen by the researcher is researchable. Moreover, variables introduced in this study lend themselves to measurement, analysis and meaningful interpretation.
7.3.3 AVENUES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The following reflects the scope to future research.

(a) Only managers of universities were the targets population of this study. More research focusing on other personnel and workers is necessary.

(b) The study had fewer female managers as respondents, yet they support PDM overwhelmingly compared to their male counterparts. There is a need of a study on the reasons for low PDM support by the male managers.

(c) The sample of this study consisted of 226 universities managers combined. Another research, with a bigger sample, would be ideal so that the findings can be generalized nationally and internationally with greater confidence.

(d) This study did not focus holistically on the attitudes of managers towards PDM. Thus, there is a need for the development of a research instrument for the measurement of attitudes towards participative decision making at tertiary institutions.
(e) This study did not make comparisons between historically advantaged and historically disadvantaged institutions. A comparative study of historically advantaged and historically disadvantaged institutions with respect to participatory decision making, could be helpful.
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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

The instrument used in the pilot study sample
QUESTIONNAIRE

1. This is a questionnaire on Participative Decision Making (PDM) at South African Universities. PDM means the Participation in Decision Making structures and processes by both the managers and the managed in an institution.

2. Do not write your name or surname on this questionnaire.

3. You are requested to note that this questionnaire has three sections namely sections A, B and C. Please respond to all items

4. Rate all statements in sections A and B according to the accompanying instructions given in these sections.

5. Rank-order all statements in section C in accordance with the instructions stated in this section.

Thanking you for assisting me with your responses!

PAN Nkosi-KaNdaba
Doctoral Candidate
University of Zululand
SECTION A
PERSONAL INFORMATION

Kindly supply the information required by making a cross (x) in the appropriate box hereunder.

1. Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Age (Years)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>20 and under</th>
<th>21-30</th>
<th>31-40</th>
<th>41-50</th>
<th>51 and above</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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</table>

3. Qualifications: Indicate the highest qualification held

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Doctoral Degree</th>
<th>Masters Degree</th>
<th>Honours Degree</th>
<th>Bachelor’s Degree</th>
<th>Diploma</th>
<th>Other (Specify)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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4. Experience at Tertiary institutions in years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0-10</th>
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<th>31 and above</th>
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5. Religion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Judaism</th>
<th>Buddhism</th>
<th>Islam</th>
<th>Hinduism</th>
<th>Shembeism</th>
<th>Other (Specify)</th>
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6. Current Rank

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Vice-Principal</th>
<th>Registrar</th>
<th>Director</th>
<th>Manager</th>
<th>Dean</th>
<th>Other (Specify)</th>
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<tbody>
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7. Type of institution

<table>
<thead>
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<th>University of Technology</th>
<th>University</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION B

NB: This section requires that you rate the statements on participative decision making at South African universities.

Please mark with an “x” in the appropriate box of your option. SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree; U = Uncertain; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree

1. Involvement of stakeholders in taking decisions affecting them is the practice I prefer.

2. The meetings that I chair are open for participation by everyone in my department.

3. I encourage the participation of junior staff members in taking decisions.

4. I have in place certain participation structures that staff members can make use of.

5. In decision making, I am committed to participation by staff members under my supervision.
6 Staff members welcome with enthusiasm participation in decisions that concern them.

7 I have no problem with employing participative strategies in my department.

8 I find it easy to participate in meetings organised by staff members to obtain their views at such meetings.

9 My department always holds meetings that are open to all staff members.

10 Participation of all concerned in taking decisions that affect them, is a good tool to use in democratizing the institution.

11 A participative approach towards taking decisions contributes towards a feeling of psychological ownership of the institution.
12 I think that it is not necessary to train staff members to participate effectively in taking decisions.

13 One is inclined to believe that participation in taking decisions increases one's motivation to work harder.

14 It is necessary in some cases to take into account the expertise of staff members before involving them in taking decisions.

15 I would involve staff members in decision making if they have a personal stake in the problem.

16 I consider commitment to the goals of the department as one of the necessary conditions for taking part in decision making.
17 I solicit the views of the entire team that I lead before making a decision.

18 My management style makes no room for taking unilateral decisions in this institution.

19 As a manager, I have grown accustomed to the fact that staff members prefer to be involved in decisions that concern them.

20 There is no room for group decisions in my leadership style.

21 I prefer working in collaboration, rather than in consultation, with the staff members in my department.

22 My experience as a manager informs me that staff members do not expect to participate in every decision.
23 It is tantamount to dictatorship to expect staff members to support decisions that have been taken without their participation.

24 Whether few or all staff members participate in decisions does not leave me cold.

25 Collaboration is not a worthwhile undertaking when it comes to taking decisions.

26 I think participation of staff members is prevented when all decisions always flow from the leader/manager.

27 I prefer working in consultation, rather than in collaboration, with the staff members in my department.

28 As a manager I have to ensure the participation of staff members in the decisions of the department.
29 I have a problem with the participation of staff members in every decision of the department.

30 It appears to me that participation of staff members in every decision is time-consuming.

31 I invite staff members to take turns in chairing our department meetings.

32 I involve staff in drawing up the agenda of a department meeting.

33 I task myself to decide on staff development issues.

34 Staff members in my department do not participate in planning the department’s routine.

35 I delegate my staff to take decisions in the department.
36 I don’t mind to be invited to participate in a meeting that has been convened by staff in order to voice their points of view or concerns.

37 It does not bother me if staff members do not participate in a meeting meant to arrive at certain decisions.

38 I do not participate in non-academic staff activities such as funeral arrangements.

39 The leader and staff members make decisions by means of voluntary and spontaneous communication. The leader plays an active role in the process. This is a non-participative way of arriving at decisions.

40 The leader wants to have his own way and he/she alone determines the policy to be followed. All decisions are taken by him/her. This is a participative method of making decisions.
41 The leader allows his/her staff to make individual or group decisions without his/her involvement or guidance in any way. This is a participative way of decision making.

42 The leader consults with his/her staff members individually. Then he/she makes a decision that may or may not reflect the opinions of staff members. This is a participatory approach to decision making.

43 The leader involves staff in decision making. Then the staff members decide by majority rule. This is a non-participative route leading to decisions.
SECTION C

Rank-order the following statements in order of importance to you by using numbers 1 – 7. NB. 1 = High; 7 = Low (Write the number in a box next to each statement).

Participative Decision Making (PDM) is acceptable to me in so far as:

- It involves staff members during the stage of establishing the criteria for a satisfactory solution.

- It allows staff members to participate during the development of strategy.

- It allows staff members to participate in the programming of the plan of action.

- It involves staff members during the communication stage of the plan of action.

- It allows staff participation in monitoring the plan of action.
- It involves staff members in the evaluation of the plan of action.

- It involves staff members in all decision making steps.
APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

The instrument used in final study sample
QUESTIONNAIRE

1. This is a questionnaire on Participative Decision Making (PDM) at South African Universities. PDM means the Participation in Decision Making structures and processes by both the managers and the managed in an institution.

2. Do not write your name or surname on this questionnaire.

3. You are requested to note that this questionnaire has three sections namely sections A, B and C. Please respond to all items.

4. Rate all statements in sections A and B according to the accompanying instructions given in these sections.

5. Rank-order all statements in section C in accordance with the instructions stated in this section.

Thanking you for assisting me with your responses!

PAN Nkosi-KaNdaba
Doctoral Candidate
University of Zululand
SECTION A

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Kindly supply the information required by making a cross (x) in the appropriate option provided.

1. Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Female</th>
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</thead>
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</table>

3. Qualifications: Indicate the highest qualification held.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Doctoral Degree</th>
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<th>21 - 30</th>
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<th>Buddhism</th>
<th>Islam</th>
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</table>

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>2</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
**SECTION B**

**NB:** This section requires that you rate the statements on participative decision making at South African Universities.

**Please mark with an "x" in the appropriate box of your option.**

- **SA** = Strongly Agree;
- **A** = Agree;
- **U** = Uncertain;
- **D** = Disagree;
- **SD** = Strongly Disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Involvement of stakeholders in taking decisions affecting them is the practice I prefer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The meetings that I chair are open for participation by everyone in my department.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I encourage the participation of junior staff members in taking decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I have in place certain participation structures that staff members can make use of.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SA</td>
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</table>
5 In decision making, I am committed to participation by staff members under my supervision.

6 Staff members welcome with enthusiasm participation in decisions that concern them.

7 I have no problem with employing participative strategies in my department.

8 I find it easy to participate in meetings organised by staff members to obtain their views at such meetings.

9 My department always holds meetings that are open to all staff members.
10 Participation of all concerned in taking decisions that affect them, is a good tool to use in democratizing the institution.

11 A participative approach towards taking decisions contributes towards a feeling of psychological ownership of the institution.

12 I think that it is not necessary to train staff members to participate effectively in taking decisions.

13 One is inclined to believe that participation in taking decisions increases one’s motivation to work harder.
14. I consider commitment to the goals of the department as one of the necessary conditions for taking part in decision making.

15. I solicit the views of the entire team that I lead before making a decision.

16. As a manager, I have grown accustomed to the fact that staff members prefer to be involved in decisions that concern them.

17. I prefer working in collaboration, rather than in consultation, with the staff members in my department.

18. My experience as a manager informs me that staff members do not expect to participate in every decision.
19 Whether few or all staff members participate in decisions does not leave me cold.

20 I prefer working in consultation, rather than in collaboration, with the staff members in my department.

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32 The leader allows his/her staff to make individual or group decisions without his/her involvement or guidance in anyway. This is a participative way of making decisions.
The leader involves staff in decision making. Then the staff members decide by majority rule. This is a non-participative route leading to decisions.
SECTION C

Rank-order the following statements in order of importance to you by using numbers 1 – 7. NB. 1 = High; 7 = Low
(Write the number in a box next to each statement).

Participative Decision Making (PDM) is acceptable to me in so far as:

- It involves staff members during the stage of establishing the criteria for a satisfactory solution.  
  
| RANK ORDER | 0.370 |

- It permits staff members to participate only during the development of a strategy.  
  
| 0.365 |

- It allows staff members to participate in the programming of the plan of action.  
  
| 0.425 |

- It involves staff members during the communication stage of the plan of action.  
  
| 0.459 |

- It allows staff participation in monitoring the plan of action.  
  
| 0.523 |
- It involves staff members in the evaluation of the plan of action.
# APPENDIX C

## DISTRIBUTION AND RESPONSE RATE OF QUESTIONNAIRES-FINAL STUDY (N = 226)

<table>
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**TOTAL**  

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<td><strong>73</strong></td>
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\[N = 226 (153 + 73)\]
FIGURE 2.1

A SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF SOUTH AFRICA AS IN THE 1990’s
ANNEXURE A

COVERING LETTER: QUESTIONNAIRE
The Principal

Dear Sir/Madam

RESEARCH ON PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) AT SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

I am a D.Ed student at the University of Zululand. My research is predicated upon the extent to which Universities practise participative decision making.

The research seeks managers’ views on PDM.

I have enclosed forty (40) copies of questionnaires for administering to and completion by your management namely the Principal, the Vice Principals, the Registrars, the Directors, the Deans, and other Managers. I would like to request as a favour the distribution to and collection of these copies from the above named officials.

Once completed and returned to you, may questionnaires be mailed back to me within preferably a week or two of receipt using the self-addressed envelope provided.

Thanking you for giving this research your soonest attention.

Yours faithfully

PATRICK A N NKOSI-kaNDABA
ANNEXURE B

A SAMPLE OF ETHICAL CLEARANCE LETTER  RE:
QUESTIONNAIRE
27 NOVEMBER 2003

MR. P. A. N. NKOSI-KANDABA
EDUCATIONAL STUDIES
(UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND)

Dear Mr. Nkosi-Kandaba

ETHICAL CLEARANCE - NUMBER: 03301A

I wish to confirm that ethical clearance has been granted for the following project:

"Participative decision making (PDM) at South African Technikons and Universities"

Thank you

Yours faithfully

Ms. Phumelele Ximba
(for) Head: Research Administration

PS: The following general condition is applicable to all projects that have been granted ethical clearance:


cc: Director of School
cc: Supervisor
ANNEXURE C

A SAMPLE OF VICE-CHANCELLOR’S MEMORANDA TO
FELLOW MANAGERS

Re: administration of questionnaires
Memo

To: ALL MANAGERS, DEANS, DIRECTORS AND HO

From: THANDIE NTENTENI
(RESEARCH SECRETARY)

Date: 16/10/03

Re: RESEARCH ON PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING AT SA TECHNIKONS AND UNIVERSITIES

You are hereby requested to complete the attached questionnaire and bring it back to Research Office not later than Thursday the 23 of October 2003.

Regards,

[Signature]

Thandie Ntene
Research Secretary
MEMORANDUM
Office of the Vice-Chancellor and CEO

To : Management Staff
From : Fiona-ann Cloete
Subject : RESEARCH ON PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING (PDM) AT SOUTH AFRICAN TECHNikonS AND UNIVERSITYs

Date : 07 October 2003

Dear colleagues

Attached find questionnaire from Mr Patrick Nkosi-kaNdaba from the University of Zululand. I sincerely hope that you could find the time in your busy schedule to complete attached and mail back to me as soon as possible.

Kind regards

Fiona Cloete
Vice-Chancellor’s Office
ANNEXURE D

A SAMPLE OF RESPONSE LETTER RE: QUESTIONNAIRES
Dear Patrick

Attached please find 14 completed questionnaires for your attention.

Regards

Prof CJ van der Walt
Chief Director Personnel
21 November 2003

Mr Patrick A N Nkosi-ka Ndaba
University of Zululand
Private Bag X1001
Kwa Dlangezwa
3886

Sir

Enclosed please find questionnaires. The number of questionnaires enclosed is what was collected from managers.

Regards

Prof M M Sibara
DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR: ACADEMIC AFFAIRS