TRANSFORMATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION:

PERCEPTIONS OF FEMALE ACADEMICS AT A DISTANCE EDUCATION INSTITUTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

by

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is own
original work and that I have not previously, in its entirety or in part, submitted it at
any university for a degree.
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ABSTRACT

Females in academia remain concentrated in lower level positions, with limited and often no decision-making power. However, this is not only a South African phenomenon but it is also evident in the position of female academics in the United Kingdom, the United States and New Zealand. Within the South African context, higher education institutions are in a process of transformation and change in order to integrate with social transformation and change. Therefore, the Department of Education mandated certain higher education institutions to transform and merge, with implications for their human resource management. Universities are regarded as complex organisations and this complicates the management and leadership of such institutions. Moreover, South Africa has passed legislation (e.g. the Higher Education Act) that impacts its human resource management and the manner in which higher education institutions are transformed and managed. Higher education institutions employ the principles of corporate management and therefore the distinction between management and leadership is highlighted. Communication is discussed as a tool thereof and the differences of males and females in this regard are emphasised. The status of female academics in South Africa is discussed and the perceptions of female academics with regard to the dimensions used in the empirical inquiry are highlighted.

The empirical inquiry gauged how females occupying academic positions at a South African distance education university perceived the management process of institutional transformation. The perceptions of female academics with regard to five dimensions: management and leadership; communication; diversity and employment equity; and transformation and change were gauged and compared to the perceptions of male academics and that of female professional/administrative personnel. It was found that female and male academics were relatively positive with only one significant difference: their perceptions of communication at the institution. There were also significant differences in the perceptions of white and of black female academics. Furthermore, when female academics were compared to female professional/administrative personnel, there were significant differences: female academics held generally more positive perceptions than those of female professional/administrative personnel. In addition, there was evidence of an ageing workforce.

OPSOMMING

Vroue in die akademiese wêreld bevind hulle steeds merendeels in laevlakposisies, waar hulle oor beperkte of dikwels geen besluitnemingsmagte beskik nie. Dit is egter nie 'n verskynsel wat net in Suid-Afrika voorkom nie, dit blyk ook voor te kom in die Verenigde Koninkryk, Amerika en Nieu-Seeland. In die Suid-Afrikaanse konteks is hoëronderwysinstellings besig met transformasie en verandering ten einde by die transformasie en veranderinge in die samelewing in te skakel. In die lig hiervan het die Departement van Onderwys aan verskeie hoëronderwysinstellings opdrag gegee smelt transformeer. implikasies om saam te en te wat vir die menslikehulpbronbestuur van hierdie instellings ingehou het. Omdat universiteite dikwels ook as kompleks beskou word, kan dit die bestuur en leierskap van sodanige instellings kompliseer, veral in die lig daarvan dat Suid-Afrika verskeie stukke wetgewing het (bv. die Wet op Hoër Onderwys) wat 'n invloed op sy menslikehulpbronbestuur uitoefen asook op die wyse waarop hierdie instellings getransformeer en bestuur word. Die hoëronderwysinstellings volg die beginsels van korporatiewe bestuur na, en daarom word die verskil tussen bestuur en leierskap beklemtoon. Kommunikasie word as 'n instrument daarvan bespreek, en die verskil tussen mans en vroue in hierdie opsig word beklemtoon. Die status van vroueakademici in Suid-Afrika word bespreek en die persepsies van vroue-akademici met betrekking tot die dimensies wat in die empiriese studie gebruik is, word beklemtoon.

Hierdie empiriese studie meet hoe vroue wat akademiese posisies by 'n Suid-Afrikaanse afstandsleer-universiteit beklee, die bestuursproses beskou waarvolgens die instelling getransformeer word. Die persepsies van vroue-akademici met betrekking tot vyf dimensies: die bestuur en leierskap; kommunikasie; diversiteit; diensbillikheid; en transformasie en verandering is gemeet en met die persepsies van manlike akademici en van vroue in professionele/administratiewe poste vergelyk. Daar is bevind dat vroue- en manlike akademici betreklik positief oor bogenoemde voel, met een beduidende verskil, naamlik hul persepsies oor kommunikasie by die instelling. Daar is verder ook verskille tussen die persepsies van blanke en swart vroue-akademici. Vroue-akademici handhaaf oor die algemeen meer positiewe persepsies as vroue in professionele/administratiewe poste by hierdie instelling. Hierbenewens is daar bewyse van 'n verouderende arbeidsmag.

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ALL THE HONOUR TO OUR HEAVENLY FATHER.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved mother and role model:

Rachel C. Minnaar

A courageous woman who displayed strength and enthusiasm and who believed in equality.

With love

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND COMPOSITION OF THE THESIS

1.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the background for this research and state the research problem and its objectives. Thereafter, the significance of the study will be articulated and an explanation of the composition of the chapters of the thesis concludes the chapter.

"Changing a university is like trying to move a cemetery; you get no help from the inhabitants". While this view of an anonymous author in Gibbon, Habib, Jansen and Parekh (2000, p. 15) begs the question of input from the 'inhabitants', it certainly captures the difficulty of changing educational institutions. Until recently, the higher education sector in South Africa was regarded as markedly stable and one that was resistant to change. However, the end of apartheid sent a clear signal that higher education, like South African society at large, must change to reflect new political and social realities. In South African society, this necessity for change is crystallised around the idea of transformation.

According to Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk and Schenk (2000, p. 752), transformation refers to the moves that an organisation makes to start virtually from scratch. This implies that all things (how it is managed, its operations, policies, strategies, structures, procedures, etc.) are to be changed. Hammer and Champy (1994, p. 2) termed this process of starting all over or starting from scratch, business reengineering. What is important for the business engineer is the question: How do we want to organise work today, given the current demands of the market and the power of the latest technology? However, real transformation can take place only when the majority of the employees in an organisation change their mindsets and

behaviour and this could be regarded as the greatest challenge of the process of transformation.

1.2 Background

In the light of the above-mentioned definition of transformation within the context of higher education in South Africa, it can be argued that managers of higher education institutions should reinvent their planning for the organisation and management of their institutions. They should abandon their old organisational and operational principles and procedures and develop entirely new ones (Hammer & Champy, 1994, p. 1).

In general, transformation is a process whereby the form, shape and/or nature of an institution are completely changed. It suggests a 'sense of radical change, a metamorphosis needs to take place' (Gourley, cited in Fourie, 1999, p. 277). Dlamini (1995, p. 39) argues that the transformation process in South African higher education institutions must be revolutionary in order to achieve radical change. Kirsten (cited in Fourie, 1999, p. 277) states that it is "a moral imperative, deeply rooted in, and driven by, the will-to-truth". Thus, transformation not only refers to physical transformation that is evident, but also includes "cognitive transcendence" (Harvey & Green, cited in Fourie, 1999, p. 277). Transformation in higher education therefore entails changes in the composition of staff and students, governance structures, course content, but most importantly, it is about the transformation of the organisational or institutional culture and the development and acceptance of new, shared values. However, this can only be achieved through fundamental changes in the mindset of all stakeholders and role-players amongst which the personnel requires particular attention (Fourie, 1999, p. 277).

The apartheid era left South Africa with a fragmented higher education system, divided along ethnic and racial lines. Therefore, the 'new' democratic dispensation in higher education in South Africa had to redress the inequalities of the past and respond to the demands of an economically competitive, "global society" (Le Grange, 2002, p. 68). Hoff (1999, p. 311) notes that the issues currently facing higher

education in South Africa are not easy. They are multidimensional and broad in scope and require complex assessment, planning, implementation and evaluation. Many of these issues are not new to the field of higher education, but societal, technological, economical and political factors alter the way in which they should be perceived. Amongst the most prominent issues in the minds of educational leaders today are the changing demographics of student and faculty populations in terms of diversity and gender and the development of policies and procedures to guide the activities for all constituencies on campus. The leaders of higher education institutions therefore need to demonstrate the unique attributes, skills and values required to function in this changing environment.

From an organisational view, universities are of the most complex structures in modern society, but increasingly archaic (Perkins, 1973, p. 3). Perkins (1973) ascribes four conflicting missions to universities: teaching, research, public service and the achievement of a democratic community. This conflict he views as partly responsible for the predicament of the university as an organisation.

When institutional combinations (mergers) of higher education institutions in South Africa were first suggested, the appointed Task Team regarded the probable benefits to be the savings that would result from an increase in the size of the institutions which would reduce unit costs, eliminate unnecessary duplication and rationalise programmes and cost benefits through the reduction of the required number of councils and senior management and administrative teams (Centre for Higher Education Transformation [CHET], 2000, p. 36). The Task Team also acknowledged that this would have personnel implications and proposed the development of a social plan to address, inter alia, the human resource implications.

Hay, Fourie and Hay (2001, p. 102) highlight the fact that little research has been done especially within the South African context on the "psychological experiences of academic staff in institutions which have merged or which are in the process of merging". At one or other stage, a merger almost inevitably entails the downsizing of staff. The people issues are assessed by Botha (cited in Wyngaardt & Kapp, 2004, p. 189) as the most important aspect of a merger. In a study done by Hay and Fourie

(cited in Wyngaard & Kapp, 2004) a survey of staff revealed two perceptions directly related to the impact of mergers, namely:

- A high level of insecurity was experienced by the respondents.
- Fear of retrenchment was uppermost among respondents.

Hay and Fourie (cited in Wyngaard & Kapp, 2004) therefore concluded that support structures should be set up and staff preparation programmes should be instituted.

The fight for survival amongst institutions has brought about major changes. If institutions do not understand how important the organisation and management of their staff are in this process, they may not survive (Beer, 1997). Management is "... the art of getting things done through people" (Follett cited in Stoner & Wankel, 1986, p. 3). It is the process of planning, organising, leading and controlling the efforts of institutional members and of using all institutional resources to achieve the institutional goals (Stoner & Wankel, 1986, p. 4). To better understand what is involved, managers should establish what their staff members think about transformation and how they experience the management of transformation.

1.3 Problem Statement and Research Objectives

Central to the vision for the transformation of the higher education system as articulated in the Education White Paper 3 was the establishment of a single, national coordinated system, which would meet the learning needs of South African citizens and the reconstruction and development needs of the society and economy. The National Plan for Higher Education (NPHE) in South Africa represents the Ministry's response to the report of the Council of Higher Education towards the New Higher Education Landscape: Meeting the Equity, Quality and Social Developmental Imperatives of South Africa in the 21st Century. Outlining the framework and mechanisms for implementing and realising the policy goals of the White Paper, the latter's main aim was to give effect to the vision of transformation (RSA, DoE, 2001).

According to this document the key challenges of the South African higher education system are to redress past inequalities and to transform the higher education system so that it to corresponds to the new social order, to meet critical national needs and to address the new realities and opportunities. To respond to challenges of this goal,

higher education must thus support the democratic ethos and a culture of human rights and contribute to the advancement of all forms of knowledge and scholarship in order to meet the national developmental needs. According to the White Paper (RSA, DoE, 1997 & RSA, DoE, 2001), the role of Higher Education is perceived to be three-fold:

- Human resource development to mobilise human talent and potential through continuous (lifelong) learning in order to contribute to the social, economic, cultural and intellectual life of a rapidly changing society.
- High-level skills training to provide professionals and knowledge workers with skills that correspond internationally, instill social responsibility and make them aware of their role to contribute to the national development effort and social transformation.
- Production, acquisition and application of new knowledge as the national growth and competitiveness relies on continuous technological advancement and innovation, it should driven by an efficient, vibrant research and development system, which integrates the research and training capacity of higher education with the needs of industry and of social reconstruction (RSA, DoE, 1997).

According to the executive summary of the NPHE, the demographic composition of South African students has changed to become more reflective of the composition of the population. Staff composition has, however, not changed in line with student composition. Blacks and women remain under-represented in academic and professional positions, especially at senior levels. They seem to be entrusted with the bulk of teaching and administrative duties, doing the 'donkey work'; white males are pre-dominantly in professorships and positions with the most decision-making power, where they are able to do research and produce research outputs (Gwele, 1998, p. 70; Mabokela, 2003, p. 129).

A report compiled by the Gender Equity Task Team at the request of the Department of Education in 1997 confirms that women remain remarkably under-represented in administrative and policy-making positions at institutions of higher education in South Africa (Pandor, 2004). This is reiterated by Mbabane (2001), who found in his analysis of employment equity plans, that the higher education sector in South Africa

has yet to prove its pre-eminence to redress gender stereotypes in terms of occupational equity: women are still crowded into the occupations regarded as "traditionally female", such as clerks, and especially black women are still crammed into the lower level occupations.

In contrast, a study conducted in the United States of America found that companies that have women in their top management structures enjoy higher earnings, greater shareholder wealth and better long-term performance (Senior, 2003, p. 6). If women in management can have such a positive influence, women, more specifically black women, are needed in higher education. It appears that this aspect of transformation has not been implemented successfully. For management to effect this policy smoothly and within a reasonable time, it needs to pay special attention to the perceptions of academic women.

The research question of this study is therefore: How do female academics at a South African distance education institution perceive the management of transformation of the institution? The aim of this study is therefore to investigate how female academics perceive transformation at a South African distance education university. The research objectives of this study are to explore the following questions:

- Do differences in the perception of female employees with regard to the leadership and management of transformation exist, based on the position, race, age and length of service?
- Do the perceptions of female academics about the implementation of policies and procedures differ based on position, race, age and length of service?
- Do perceptions of female employees about the management of diversity and equity differ based on position, race, age and length of service?

1.4 Significance of this Study

It is anticipated that this study will contribute to research and available literature on gender studies as it focuses specifically on female academics within higher education in South Africa. Furthermore, it will contribute to the database of quantitative research on female academics. It could result in the formulation of improved policies and procedures within higher education, and an increased awareness of gender and racial issues, thus leading to improved labour relations and diversity management within higher education. The results of this study would be of significant value to human resource development and management and retention of female academics and professional personnel in higher education, as it might add value to the recruitment and selection of future female academics in higher education. Furthermore, this study will identify leadership qualities that might enhance the process of transformation within higher education and it provide guidelines on how to become more people oriented in a process of transformation.

1.5 Composition of the Thesis

This study comprises an investigation of the perceptions of female academics on the management of the transformation and change process at a South African distance education university. This chapter outlined the background of the research, the research question and the research objectives of the study and revealed the significance of the study. Chapter 2 reviews the literature on the management of transformation and change in higher education in South Africa. Chapter 3 discusses females in academia and describes the theory of perception. It indicates that the transformation process has largely excluded women. Chapter 4 describes the research methodology applied in the study and introduces the hypotheses and the measuring instrument as well as the dimensions measured in this study. In Chapter 5 the results are presented and analysed, while Chapter 6 concludes the study, states its limitations and makes recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

TRANSFORMATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

2.1 Introduction

The fall of the apartheid regime has brought about many changes in South African society. Ultimately these changes have spilled over to higher education institutions. Ford (1996, p. 134) noted that higher education institutions are moving into an era in which change will be one of the few constants, if not the only one, and the institutions that best understand how to control and manage this change will prosper and take the lead.

Higher education for the purposes of this study means all learning programmes leading to qualifications higher than grade 12 or its equivalent in terms of the National Qualifications Framework as contemplated in the South African Qualifications Authority Act, 1995 (Act No. 58 of 1995), and includes tertiary education as contemplated in Schedule 4 of the Constitution (RSA, 1997). For the purpose of this literature study the definition of higher education is restricted to universities and the former technikons (now universities of technology) where the programmes offered terminate in qualifications that are equivalent or associated with a diploma, baccalaureate or higher degree. This research study will, however, focus on a distance education university.

"To provide higher education" for the purposes of this study means to:

register students for -

- i) complete qualifications at or above level 5 of the National Qualification
 Framework as contemplated in the South African Qualifications Authority Act,
 1995 (Act No. 58 of 1995); or
- ii) such part of a qualification which meets the requirements of a unit standard as recognised by the South African Qualifications Authority at or above the level referred to in subparagraph (i);

- b) taking responsibility for the provision and delivery of the curricula;
- c) assessing students regarding their learning programmed; and
- d) conferring qualifications, in the name of the higher education institution concerned (RSA, 1997).

A higher education institution for the purpose of this study refers to any institution that provides higher education on a full-time, part-time or distance basis and which is -

- merged, established or deemed to be established as a public higher education institution under this Act;
- b) declared as a public higher education institution as declared by the Higher education Act (RSA, 1997).

The aim of this chapter is therefore to provide a theoretical perspective about the management of transformation in the higher education sector. It defines and discusses transformation in higher education and addresses the legislation that forms the basis of the policies which instigated changes in this sector, including those laws that affected the gender aspects in particular. This is followed by a discussion of the complexity of academe and a comprehensive discussion of management and leadership in this regard. The chapter is concluded by highlighting the essence of good communication in higher education.

2.2 Transformation

In the discussion of transformation it is necessary to define the term 'transformation' within the context of higher education. The next issue to be raised is: What necessitated transformation in South African higher education? Thereafter, this section focuses on the requirements necessary to implement transformation successfully. The final section focuses on transformation and change in higher education in South Africa.

2.2.1 Definition of transformation within the higher education context

The word 'transformation' is often used in various contexts with different meanings attached to it. Thus, for the purposes of this study it is necessary to define transformation within the context of higher education. According to Van der Merwe

(2000, p. 82), transformation could be defined in terms of words that are often used synonymously with it. Examples are: change, renewal, reformation, restructuring and transition. A common denominator of these terms is the fact that they all implicate change (Van der Merwe, 2000, p. 82). When these terms are considered individually, the following inferences could be made. The term 'reformation' involves improvement or it could imply a change by adding on or to bring about an improvement. The resultant change is generally imposed from outside the institution. 'Renewal', on the other hand, refers to minor adjustments to goals and implications that are more modest. This kind of change usually stems from renewal within the institution itself.

Structure and infrastructure are often regarded as the design levers that are generally first when aligning the internal context of organisational transformation and they are the quickest to change. Therefore, 'restructuring', in this sense, is relatively easy. It is much more difficult to bring people, culture and core competencies into alignment. Structural change or restructuring is the primary mechanism for allocating human and financial resources for better alignment with a new vision and set of strategies. It reallocates basic patterns of authority, accountability and decision-making and generally alters the balance of power among the major units of the organisation. Thus, restructuring can be regarded as a lead element in the redesign of the internal context of organisational transformation (Miles, 1997, pp. 48-50).

The term 'transition' refers to the passage from one transformational stage to the other. It refers to the shifts in the political, social, economic, cultural and educational structures of society, which bring about complete change in the current power relations. Transitions are comprehensive processes that affect every organisation and institution in a society. These transitions within a particular society ultimately result in the transformation of the various institutions in that society. The transformation of higher education institutions in South Africa could thus be ascribed to the transition from apartheid to a democratic dispensation (Van der Merwe, 2000, p. 82).

In general, transformation is a process whereby the form, shape and/or nature of an institution are completely changed. It suggests a "sense of radical change, a metamorphosis needs to take place" (Gourley, cited in Fourie, 1999, p. 277). This term also implies that values and organisational culture should be redefined and therefore it means that transformation goes far beyond 'cosmetic changes'; it is embedded and driven by the 'will-to-truth' (Farmer & Kirsten cited in Van der Merwe, 2000, p. 82). However, in the context of higher education, transformation should be innovative in order to bring about fundamental changes that, in turn, demand further changes to that which is inherent to these institutions. Therefore, the changes needed in institutions of higher education should encompass both physical and cognitive changes (Dlamini, 1995, p. 39; Kirsten, cited in Fourie, 1999, p. 277; Harvey & Green, cited in Fourie 1999, p. 277).

Reddy (cited in Van der Merwe 2000, p. 82) highlights some of the practical manifestations of the transformation process at higher education institutions in South Africa. These include the following: a substantial and significant degree of participation in key activities at ground level; the empowerment of the powerless; addressing race and gender inequalities; the balance of power; and emphasising common interests rather than exclusive interests.

However, within South African higher education institutions transformation takes place at different levels, i.e. at the levels of governance, demographics, core function of the institution, the level of the vision/mission and organisational culture. Organisational culture is shaped by the people in the institution as it consists of values, norms and behaviours. Thus, as the composition of personnel and student population change, it will ultimately affect the organisational culture of that institution. It could therefore be argued that transformation in higher education institutions is, in essence, about the transformation of the organisational culture and the development and acceptance of new, shared values (Fourie, 1999, p. 277). This corresponds to the notion of Agar (cited in Van der Merwe, 2000, p. 82) who held that transformation can only be regarded as genuine if it results in "the development of new meaning at the level of the individual".

Therefore, transformation can only be achieved through deep-rooted changes in the mindset of all stakeholders and academic personnel and needs careful consideration (Fourie, 1999, p. 277).

2.2.2 The forces of transformation in higher education

There are various forces that impose transformation upon higher education. The resultant transformation therefore holds direct implications for the way higher education institutions are managed and led.

It is thus important to be familiar with the forces that drive transformation within the context of higher education institutions in order to form a holistic picture of the management aspects in this regard. As suggested by Kanter, Stein and Jick (1992, p. 56), a discussion about organisational change should begin with a clear understanding of the key forces that drive transformation in an institution.

Green and Hayward (1997, p. 6-25) identify the following as forces for change or transformation in higher education:

- the effects of the expansion of higher education and the push for greater access;
- the problems of declining resources and the challenge of diversifying funding resources;
- the expectation that higher education would make a greater contribution to economic and social development;
- the pressure to be accountable to an increasingly sceptical public;
- the conflict surrounding institutional autonomy and the related issues;
- the growth of technology and its impact;
- the drive for internationalisation and the challenge to be aware of the rest of the world:
- the diversity of the major actors and their quest for change or need to create change.

It could therefore be argued that these forces which trigger transformation have created an imbalance in the environment of higher education institutions and modern universities are now faced with huge demands without being sufficiently equipped to respond to them. This has resulted in a situation that has rendered the

traditional form of higher education institutions obsolete. It is thus necessary to realign higher education institutions in order to balance the demand-response equation. As Clark (1998, p. xiii) correctly states "... a tolerable balance requires a better alignment. Transforming pathways is then a means of controlling demand and enhancing response capability. To orchestrate the elements, institutional focus takes center stage."

In an investigation of the stakeholders of universities (the government, faculty members, governing boards, students and institutional leaders), Clark (1998, p. 8) concludes that change at universities could be brought about through social interaction and group processing. He states that "... transformation occurs when a number of individuals come together in university basic units and across a university over a number of years to change, by means of organised initiative, how the institution is structured and oriented. Collective entrepreneurial action at these levels is at the heart of the transformational phenomenon." To this debate, Strydom (1998) adds that the roles of institutional leaders are influenced largely by the relative importance and clout of the other stakeholders involved in the change process, but he cautions that the challenge for institutional leaders in the transformation period is to shape the future and not to let it simply happen.

2.2.3 Fundamental requirements for the successful implementation of transformation

Transformation in higher education is often imposed upon higher education institutions and it requires that various factors be implemented at the same time. These factors are displayed in the following three interactive models, namely, the structural model, the social model and the personal model. The various factors and the complex functioning of a higher education institution lay the foundation for meeting the fundamental requirements for the successful implementation of change. This must be done to reap the benefits of transformation.

Van der Merwe (2000, p. 84) notes that the complex nature of transformation in higher education is due to the fact that these institutions can be classified as organised anarchies whose functioning is characterised by multiple objectives, vague

technologies and flexible participation. In this regard he makes the following observation '...it appears as if higher education often tries to be all things for all people'. Van der Merwe (2000) considers the factors at play within the transformation process which can either advance or hamper the process and discusses these factors with the help of the three interactive models.

The structural model regards higher education (higher education) to be an organisation, which consists of a hierarchy with four levels: central top management, the institution, the various departments and the individual. Each of these levels has its own value system and 'system of tasks' and there is an interaction between two mutually related processes, i.e. the normative process and the operational process. Norms and values are enforced by the normative process whilst task performance is the focal point of the operational process. If the balance between the normative and operational processes is disturbed, it will create an imbalance between the values and task performance and might impede transformation. The implementation of transformation is regarded to be successful when external influences bring about normative changes which result in operational changes (Becher & Kogan, cited in Van der Merwe, 2000, p. 85).

The social model entails the five factors, identified by Linguist (cited in Van der Merwe 2000, p. 85) which stand out when an attempt is made to transform higher education. These factors are: (1) a connection between the essential interpersonal and informational aspects which, therefore, implies engaging all of those involved and presenting the new ideas and knowledge that emerge from this engagement; (2) the need for active openness in order to seek new ideas continuously and generate an understanding outside the familiar framework; (3) the vital presence of leadership with the ability to initiate, accompany, become involved and influence; (4) the consideration of all those whose understanding and acceptance, time and skills will be required to achieve transformation, i.e. ownership; and (5) the need for material and psychological compensation, as Agar (cited in Van der Merwe, 2000, p. 86) explains "transformation threatens the framework by which individuals make sense of, or give meaning to their lives". Therefore, all involved in the transformation process need to be compensated as they are exposed to uncertainty and a constant struggle to adjust to the changed circumstances. Berg and Ostergren (cited in Van

der Merwe, 2000, p. 86) identified the presence of authority and power as another factor to ensure the successful implementation of transformation.

The personal model is based on the 'theory-in-use' perspective and requires the presence of a set of norms and values that guides the process. It will be unique and will largely determine the actions and convictions of the specific group. Becher and Kogan (cited in Van der Merwe, 2000, p. 86) regard these norms and values as the main obstacle that prevents transformation from taking place as "... they prescribe the groups' professional convictions and proper conduct". This set of group values forms the basis of the individual academic's thoughts, actions and activities. Rutherford, Flemming and Mathias (cited in Van der Merwe, 2000, p. 86) identified three possible approaches and codes of conduct which individual academics employ together with this set of group values. The three possible approaches identified were: firstly, determining the objectives for transformation after limited consultation with all the stakeholders of the institution; secondly, viewing the individual's approach as laissez-faire and unpredictable, motivated by pragmatism rather than conviction; and, thirdly, an approach based on co-operation and mutual openness with the emphasis on offering valid information that relates to the objectives of transformation and the direction to be taken with regard to human relations.

A collective of the factors of the above three models were used by Van der Merwe (2000, p. 87) to propose the following as fundamental requirements for the successful implementation of transformation:

- Higher education institutions should become aware of the diversity of their workforce, as various groups exist within it and each group has its own justifiable, but often conflicting, objectives and priorities. Thus, the proposed plans for transformation might be interpreted differently by the different groups and this might also affect how these plans impact that a particular group's responsibilities and aspirations.
- Although there might be sufficient understanding for a problem and the most effective way to address it, the inconsistency with regard to the different values that individuals or groups endorse as they are often not guided by these values in real life, might result in failing to achieve the desired change.
- Change, in the sense of renewal, involves routine actions and is straightforward, i.e. a reasonable, obvious process. However, transformation

- Radical and basic changes which are not preceded by changes and values which are shallow turn out to be of a temporary nature at the end.
- Leadership should take a prominent role and not only initiate change, but also provide structure to the process, guidance, motivation and support in order to ensure success.
- Although the exertion of power and authority is crucial in the formal institutionalisation of transformation, sustained co-operation is also vital and can only be achieved when this power and authority are exercised with the necessary insight and care.
- In order to realise 'metamorphic change', it is critical to make special fund allocations.

2.2.4 Transformation and change in higher education in South Africa

Learning institutions can be defined as those institutions in which people expand their capacity continuously in order to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where the collective aspiration is set free and where people are continually learning how to learn together (Hoff, 1999, pp. 311-312; Senge cited in Hoff, 1999, p. 312). It is thus evident that the principle of 'the survival of the fittest' is at play in institutions of higher education today, as staying in power depends on the ability to develop and focus on taking competitive advantage of the positive characteristics and distinctive attributes of each institution. Within the broader society, it is often found that transformation results in the emergence of continuous change and new patterns in organisations and institutions, the economy, demographics, and government policies. In this context universities are faced with many challenges to become globally competitive.

While higher education institutions in South Africa were structured within certain boundaries (especially racial) in the past, these boundaries have now disappeared. The most far-reaching changes have probably been the mergers between institutions of higher education. This merging was founded in legislation such as the Higher Education Act of 1997, the Higher Education White Paper 3 (RSA, DoE, 1997) and

the National Plan for Higher Education (RSA, DoE, 2001). These laws prepared the way for the "Size and Shape" document, which suggested that the absolute numbers of institutions be reduced and that the full range of possible combinations be investigated. It further recommended the establishment of one distance education institution and the non-closure of institutions (Wyngaard & Kapp, 2004, pp. 185-186).

According to Wyngaard and Kapp (2004, pp. 187-188) and Hay, Fourie and Hay (2001, pp. 100-101), several factors contributed to the emergence of the mergers in the South African higher education sector. These factors included the following:

- The fragmented higher education systems inherited from the apartheid era. This system was fragmented vertically as well as horizontally along provincial and racial lines;
- The overwhelming inequities and distortions of these systems;
- Incoherent and poor articulation between various types of further and higher education institutions;
- Unbalanced distribution of resources and subsidy amongst further and higher education institutions;
- The low entry into higher education as a result of the poor quality of the school system;
- The quality of teacher preparation in some colleges of education;
- The regional overlap and duplication in programmes;
- The decline in student enrolments in some institutions;
- The decline in state subsidy mainly as a result of poor economic growth;
- The impact of new legislation such as the Employment Equity Act, Labour Relations Act, Skills Development Act, South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) and the National Qualifications Framework (NQF);
- The research output through published articles and postgraduate degrees;
- Increasing competition from private and international higher education institutions;
- New types of institutions and new approaches to learning and the 'production" of knowledge.

The merging and regionalisation of higher education is, however, not restricted to South Africa, but seem to be a global trend as mergers have taken place in countries such as Norway and Canada (Hay et al., 2001, p. 101; Skodvin & Stensaker, 1998; Lang, 2002).

A key issue in selecting a merging partner is measuring the compatibility of cultures of the institutions as the merger may initially create a clash of institutional cultures. Botha (2001 cited in Wyngaard and Kapp, 2004, p. 189) identifies 'people issues' to be one of the problems encountered with mergers. While Hay and Fourie (cited in Wyngaard and Kapp, 2004) found that there has been very limited research done on the psychological experiences of academic staff in potential or completed mergers. According to their study, they concluded that there was a high level of insecurity prevalent among their respondents as most feared retrenchment. Their recommendations in this regard were the establishment of support structures and the institution of staff preparation programmes.

In South Africa, higher education institutions had no choice as they were forced by legislation and little persuasion was done in the preparation for the proposed mergers (Wyngaard & Kapp, 2004, pp. 188-189 and Hay et al., 2001, pp. 102-103). As mergers can be regarded as a form of transformation within higher education in South Africa, Wyngaardt and Kapp (2004, p. 199) suggest the following factors be kept in mind when this form of transformation is anticipated:

- Proper prior planning should take place.
- Develop a well-planned and well-timed implementation plan that takes cognisance of the 'cultures' of the different institutions to be merged.
- Involve all staff in continuous and open participation and consultation.
- Institutional leadership should be strong, reliable and their authority and credentials should be respected by all the stakeholders.
- Leadership should be strategically strong and committed to the political arrangements for the mergers and should channel all energies and resources to position its staff, students and programme offerings optimally.
- Throughout the merger process institutional leadership should ensure and sustain a strong and loyal staff complement in a manner that is consistent and transparent.
- The process should be monitored and audited continuously in order to ensure that it stays on track.
- The merging of an institution with a strong and verifiable financial position, wellqualified and performing staff as well as a strong and reliable student enrolment will be less complicated.

 Post-merger management should be well-planned and contingency planning is vital to ensure that the merger efficiently concluded.

2.3 The Legislative Context of Institutional Transformation in Higher Education in South Africa

Gilley and Maycunich (2000, p. 111) relate policies and procedures of an institution to the 'human nervous system' as it is expected to provide electrical charges, protect and ensure appropriate responses. The authors describe policies to be the established set of rules that employees must follow while they define procedures as the prescriptions on how employees will execute their daily tasks. The policies and procedures of South African higher education institutions are, however, influenced by government policies and legislation. Therefore, this section discusses the major policies and legislation that have brought about institutional transformation in South Africa as they form the foundation of all other policies and procedures that guide the way in which higher education institutions manage and lead.

The challenge with which the Government of National Unity was faced in 1994 regarding higher education was to put educational policies into place that would eradicate the legacy of apartheid. The aims of these policies were to address the imperatives of transformation, such as access, development, accountability and quality. Bunting (cited in Waghid 2000, p. 102) summarises the problems that led to the formulation of these imperatives as contained in the discussion document on education and training of the African National Congress. They are as follows:

- Uneven access to higher education institutions, as white South Africans were admitted to universities and technikons with less effort than black South Africans.
- Unequal success rates of the various racially-defined student groups, who had been controlled by different education departments under the previous regime.
- Unfair employment opportunities since by 1994 whites held approximately 90% of permanent academic posts in all South African universities and technikons.
- Under-representation of women in several professional programmes and in senior academic and administrative positions in higher education institutions.

- Unequal employment resources in terms of student-lecturer ratio and better qualifications which favoured Historically White Universities (HWUs), and unfair financing which were also biased in favour of HWUs.
- An absence of responsiveness (relevance) and "democratic accountability" of higher education to the needs of the majority of South Africans.

2.3.1 The Education White Paper 3 on the Transformation of Higher Education

The Education White Paper 3 on the Transformation of Higher Education serves as the government's attempt to offer a coordinated vision for a transformed higher education that is democratic, non-racial and non-sexist (RSA, DoE, 1997). According to Eckel (2001, p. 105), the newly reformed higher education system is intended to:

- Create impartiality in access and the chances of success to all who are aim to achieve their potential through higher education, whilst at the same time eliminating all forms of unfair discrimination and advancing redress for past inequalities.
- Satisfy national developmental needs, such as high-skilled employment needs
 prevalent in a growing economy operating in a global environment through wellplanned and coordinated teaching, learning and research programmes.
- Sustain a democratic ethos and culture of human rights within educational programmes and practices that encourage, among others, critical thinking and cultural tolerance.
- Assist in the expansion of all forms of knowledge and scholarship and concentrate on the diverse problems and demands of the local, national southern African and African context and maintain rigorous standards of academic quality.

The Education White Paper distinguishes the following negative characteristics of the current higher education system:

 There is an unfair distribution of access and opportunities and students and staff along lines of race, gender, class and geography and inexcusable imbalances in the ratios of black and female staff compared to whites and males. Although the profile of students is changing, the composition of the staff in higher education fails to change in relation to it. Black people and women remain underrepresented, particularly in senior academic and management posts.

It further stipulates that institutions submit a human resource developmental plan as a component of their three-year rolling plans. The human resource development plans must contain the following:

- "Staff recruitment and promotion policies and practices;
- Staff development that includes academic development, improved qualifications, professional development and career paths, instructional (teaching) development, managerial skills, technological re-skilling and appropriate organisational environment and support;
- Remuneration and conditions of service taking into account the increasing competition from public and private sectors for well-qualified black people and women:
- Reward systems, including sabbaticals, conference attendance and academic contact visits; and
- The transformation of institutional cultures to support diversity"(RSA, DoE, 1997).

The Education White Paper (RSA, DoE, 1997) further reveals that the government is aware that:

"...the barriers to access are complex and that the building of human resources capacity poses the dual challenges of equity and development. The problem is much broader than the redress of the apartheid legacy. In the case of women, it reflects deeply embedded sexist ideologies that cut across race and class. An enabling environment is needed which overcomes the social constraints that impede the mobility of women. These include inadequate or absent childcare facilities and inadequate maternity benefits."

The White Paper (1997) recognises the importance of a favourable institutional culture to achieve equity. It therefore proposes that all institutions of higher education should develop mechanisms to:

 "Create a campus environment that is secure and safe and deters harassment or any other hostile behaviour directed towards persons or groups on any grounds

- whatsoever, but particularly on grounds of age, colour, creed, disability, gender, marital status, national origin, race, language or sexual orientation;
- Set standards of expected behaviour for the campus community, included but not limited to administrators, faculty staff, students, security personnel and service providers;
- Promote a campus environment that is responsive to racial and cultural diversity through extra-curricular activities that expose students to cultures and traditions other than their own, and academic activities that work towards this goal;
- Allocate experts to monitor progress in the above-mentioned areas" (RSA, DoE, 1997).

With these provisions, the White Paper seems to portray the dedication of the Ministry to an institutional culture in which gender equity prevails, as it states that institutions have a responsibility to create "an equitable and supportive climate for women students and staff". It stipulates the priority areas that influence women's participation, which are: "... women's representation in senior academic and administrative positions and institutional governance structures, childcare facilities at institutions, affirmative action for women's advancement and mechanisms to draw women students into postgraduate studies and into science and technology. Institutional information systems should also incorporate mechanisms for monitoring and collecting data on women students and staff". The White Paper further requires institutions to develop and circulate institutional policies that prohibit sexual harassment of students and employees and it urges institutions to establish reporting and grievance procedures that consist of sufficient support to victims, counselling, confidentiality, protection of complainants from retaliation and mechanisms that ensure due process and the safety of respondents (RSA, DoE, 1997).

The White Paper can therefore be considered instrumental in the initiation of change in higher education that deals with bringing about equity for females in general and more specifically equity for female academics. Together with the Higher Education Act, the Employment Equity Act (discussed below) and the Skills Development Act, it has made transformation in higher education inevitable.

2.3.2 The Higher Education Act of 1997

In line with the White Paper entitled A Programme for the Transformation of Higher education, the Higher Education Act, no. 101 of 1997, is crucial to the government's framing of how employment equity is to be addressed in higher education. The Higher Education Act has the following aims, namely to:

- Institute a single co-ordinated higher education system to advance co-operative governance and offer programme-based higher education;
- Redistribute and change programmes and institutions to improve their response to human resource, economic and development needs of the Republic;
- Abolish past discrimination and address the issues of representivity and equal access:
- Maximise opportunities for learning and the creation of knowledge;
- Endorse the values which underlie an open and democratic society based on human dignity, equality and freedom;
- Value freedom of religion, belief and opinion;
- Promote respect for democracy, academic freedom, creativity, scholarship and research;
- Pursue excellence; promote the realisation of the full potential of each student and employee, broad-mindedness and appreciation of diversity;
- Act in response to the needs of the country and the communities that these institutions serve;
- Enhance the development of all forms of knowledge and scholarship in keeping with international standards of academic quality (RSA, 1997).

A key provision of the Higher Education Act is the requirement that every public higher education institution must establish an institutional forum. This forum has a pivotal role to play as it must advise the council of a particular institution, amongst others, on race and gender equity policies; selection of candidates for senior management positions; codes of conduct, mediation and dispute resolution procedures and the fostering of an institutional culture which promotes tolerance and respect for fundamental human rights and creates an appropriate environment for teaching, research and learning (Kabaki & Molteno cited in CHET, 2001, p. 8).

2.3.3 The Employment Equity Act of 1998

As representivity is an important facet of the South African labour force in the post–apartheid dispensation, it demands that the workforce of an organisation should reflect the demographics a population. This notion of representivity was introduced in South Africa by the Employment Equity Act of 1998 (the EEA) (Hay & Wilkinson, 2002, p. 42). The purpose of the Act is to achieve equity in the workplace by promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination. It provides for affirmative action measures to ensure equal representation in all occupational categories and on all levels in the workforce.

According to the EEA, all organisations and institutions that employ more than 50 people are compelled to prepare and implement an Employment Equity Plan. Since most of the public institutions of higher education in South Africa employ more than 50 employees; they are also required to adhere to this Act (Thomas & Robertshaw, 1999, pp. 17-18; Hay & Wilkinson, 2002, p. 42). The EEA could therefore be regarded as the basis on which all employment related policies, procedures and strategies are established by management in higher education. Examples of such policies and procedures are the HIV/AIDS policy of the institutions, the human resource policies, procedures on recruitment and selection and the policies on sexual harassment.

These policies also play a vital role in managing institutions of higher education as their implementation holds definite advantages for the management of people in organisations. Some of these advantages are the enhancement of cooperation and professional respect, the development of innovative and creative problem solving techniques, enhancement of professional respect, ensuring responsible and rational behaviour, the reinforcement of performance accountability and behaviour (Gilley & Maycunich 2000, p. 112), and lastly, the diversification of the staff contingent. Given the history of apartheid and its discriminatory impact, the imbalances described above must be addressed or else the representativity of the lecturing staff will not change.

Managing the higher education system of South Africa can, however, not be regarded in isolation. Against the background of globalisation, the higher education

sector, both locally and internationally, needs to maintain its competitiveness. Globalisation in education has brought about sensitivity to cultural diversity. This has been taken one step further in South Africa as legislation has been put in place to enforce employment equity, which relates to cultural diversity. In this regard, Hay and Wilkinson (2002, pp. 44-45) question whether "... employment equity (should) be elevated to the most important facet of higher education transformation when facets such as quality interactive, learner-centred tuition may be regarded more important than the face of a lecturer a thousand or more kilometres away". However, Waghid (2000, p. 108) states that "...in contrast to equality which is aimed at initiating transformation, quality as transformation is inextricably linked to improvement and development of processes of change at higher education institutions, that is, enhancing the transformation processes in the higher education sector. This makes quality as transformation complementary to equality, in particular, equal access. On the basis of the complementary relationship between equality and quality, quality as transformation must clearly focus on enhancing the transformation process at institutions." Transformation is thus set in motion by improving the level of equality and this could be complemented by quality. The Centre for Higher Education Transformation (CHET, 2001, p. 87) noted that when "... equity is aligned with the mission statement of the institution it is geared towards ensuring a relevant and quality educational outcome."

The Centre for Higher Education Transformation (CHET) initiated a national workshop in November 1998 which was attended by 46 participants who represented 23 higher education institutions. The aim of this workshop was to focus on the development and professionalisation of the personnel who work directly with transformation and diversity management in higher education institutions, to form a network for these practitioners and establish a professional association (CHET, 2001, p. v). From this workshop it became apparent that each higher education institution defines or understands employment equity differently. Higher education institutions differ in the manner that they approach human resource management as they approach the planning and implementation of employment equity policies differently. Therefore, the results emerging from these different approaches are different. Higher education institutions experience the levels of representation of disadvantaged groups among managers and professionals as unchanged and in some cases even declining (CHET, 2001, p. 73).

After the workshop the following were regarded as the challenges for future action: visible, strong and committed leadership; a rationale for engaging change and understanding the Employment Equity Act; management support in steering and supporting the process; understanding and managing various kinds of resource constraints; access to reliable data and working closely with other teams mapping institutional strategy; improved co-ordination between training, staff development and career pathing; co-ordination between and among institutions to develop strategies on human resource sharing; understanding the fears and concerns of all groups involved in the equity process and the ability of the institution to mobilise external support to support its internal process (CHET, 2001, p. 84).

2.3.4 The National Plan for Higher Education

In the National Plan for Higher Education (NPHE) (2001), the Ministry of Education recognises the difficulties associated with changing the staff profiles in higher education and increasing the small proportion of black and women postgraduate students, which lead to the limited pool from which academic staff can be recruited. It is also aware of the fact that higher education institutions are not able to compete in the labour market with public and private sectors in terms of salaries. The National Plan (RSA, DoE, 2001) therefore proposes measures that institutions can take to speed up the process of obtaining academic staff equity, which include early retirement schemes, contract appointments, staff and management development programmes, staff postgraduate study opportunities, locally and internationally, scholarships for academic careers, the establishment of developmental posts and the appointment of employment equity officers. The Ministry has further raised its concern about the urgency to change institutional cultures at HWUs, where black staff and students are often alienated.

According to Hay and Wilkinson (2002, p. 46), the following accelerated evolutionary staff equity process may help the higher education sector to stay competitive:

• A thorough staff evaluation audit should be conducted to establish which academic staff members in higher education institutions perform well and are willing to adapt to the new South African realities. These academics are to be retained. Although this implies that stringent criteria will have to be negotiated between the management of institutions and the Ministry of Education, academic staff, in particular white staff, who had enough time to reach acceptable performance levels in academia and who does not perform adequately or who have not acknowledged the new realities of higher education, should be offered severance packages.

- An in-service training course on "New realities of South African Higher Education" should be developed and implemented to change the institutional cultures of institutions of higher education. This should be compulsory for all staff members.
- Personal salary scales that are comparable to that of industry (at a fixed scale and for a fixed period) should be applied to recruit senior black academics.
- Institutions should identify postgraduate black students who have the potential to become academics and offer them contract positions as junior academics, establish mentorship programmes and appoint senior academics (white and black) as mentors to support young academics.
- Institutions should create optimal opportunities (e.g. study leave, financial incentives, etc.) for the new black generation academics as soon as they demonstrate that they qualify for permanent appointments.

Notwithstanding the merits of these proposals, Jansen (2001, p. 5) questions them. According to Jansen, an "implementation vacuum" was created by the fact that the National Plan only appeared four years after the Education White Paper 3: A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education. This forced institutions to compete and gave rise to the increase of private higher education. It also intensified the inequality among institutions. Jansen (2001, p. 6) states that "... the lack of staff equity in higher education might be one of the most intractable problems facing transformation in higher education." Moreover, Jansen queries the fact that the National Plan for Higher Education ascribes this problem to a low recruitment base from a limited number of black and women students and the fact that better salaries are offered in the public and private sector. With regard to the institutional equity plans, Jansen (2001, p. 7) is of the opinion that "... there is a miscalculation of what is happening within institutions..." and proclaims that some institutions invented and implemented well-resourced internal strategies to attract and retain black staff. Jansen (2001) therefore maintains that the problem cannot be settled just by regurgitating institutional commitments to equity in the three-year rolling plans. Jansen (2001) hold that the allegation with regard to the poor levels of financial support for postgraduates does not make sense and stresses that no other third

world country provides more scholarship support for postgraduate students through bodies such the National Research Foundation (NRF) and others. Jansen (2001, p. 7) therefore, attributes the problem to the fact that insufficient numbers of black and women students apply, "... the quality of the applications from the target group are often extremely poor ..." and they are thus turned down.

Hay and Wilkinson (2002, p. 46) argue that the implementation of a policy should be considered where personal salary scales (comparative to industry) are used to recruit senior black and female staff but cautions that such a policy could create problems in institutions, unless all academics are made aware of the reasons for this policy. They state that white staff might allow such an agreement if they are assured of job security. Hay and Wilkinson (2002) criticise the proposal that black academics should be recruited from other countries in Africa, especially the SADEC countries, and regard this as an unrealistic short-term strategy. These authors further state that South African institutions of higher education have experienced too much xenophobia or foreign hatred. Jansen (2001, p. 7) agrees that to find black Africans elsewhere is racially offensive as it implies that Africans from outside the borders of South Africa can accomplish what South African scholars have not been able to do. Jansen (2001) clarifies his notion by stating that South African universities must be "internationalised" through academic appointments from elsewhere, but "... not as a cynical attempt to boost equity profiles in the face of an obvious political dilemma in the national system. This author (Jansen, 2001, p.7) upholds the question: "How can staff equity be attained in institutions, given the undersupply of black and women academics within a highly competitive labour market?" Waghid (2003, p. 94) also declared his support for Jansen and other critics regarding the implementation and possible success of the National Plan for Higher Education (NPHE).

It is thus evident that the practical implications of the measures proposed in the National Plan seem to have created an ongoing debate in higher education circles.

2.4 The Complex Nature of Academic Institutions

We have noted earlier that the functioning of a higher education institution is complex and that it lays the foundation for meeting the fundamental requirements for the successful implementation of transformation. This section, therefore, refers to the complexities of higher education institutions and explores whether academic institutions differ from corporate institutions. It also discusses the complexities with regard to the special status of higher education institutions. According to Van der Merwe (2000, p. 84) transformation in the higher education sector is complicated due to the fact that higher education institutions can be classified as organised anarchies which want to be everything to everybody.

The complex nature of academic institutions will be discussed according to three aspects namely, the complex structure of universities, the university and its environment and the changed nature of academic work.

2.4.1 The complex structure of universities

As universities increase in size and complexity on a corporate scale, they require as much skill and expertise to operate as any major business enterprise. This may have direct implications for the way these institutions are managed. According to Meek (2003, p. 10), "universities are, legally, a special form of corporation and one of the oldest forms in existence. There remain today in recognisable form about eighty-five of institutions established in the Western world before 1520. These include the Catholic Church, the Parliament of the Isle of Man, of Iceland and of Great Britain, several Swiss Cantons and seventy universities" (Kerr cited in Santos, Heitor & Caraqa, 1998, p. 89).

In Santos et al. (1998) it is argued that universities are slow to change. Yet, as mentioned earlier, Ford (1996) believes that universities are now moving into an era where the only constant in universities is that change will take place. Santos et al. (1998) however state that the university as an institution has an extraordinary capacity to survive and thrive throughout history and therefore today's university still portrays remarkable resemblances to universities founded in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. They ascribe this to the fact that universities are seen to enjoy longevity and are, to some extent, resistant to change.

Some authors believe that universities have unique organisational characteristics. Balridge, et al. (cited in Santos, et al., 1999, p. 90) note the following characteristics of universities: "[They] have unclear and contested goal structures; almost anything

can be justified, but almost anything can be attacked as illegitimate. They serve clients (e.g. students) who demand input into the decision-making process. They have a problematic technology, for in order to serve their clients the technology must be holistic and non-routine. As a result, academic organisations are important instances of professionalised organisations where professionals serving the clients demand a large measure of control over the institution's decision processes."

A further indication of the complexity of institutions of higher education in South Africa is portrayed by the special status of higher education institutions as referred to by CHET (2001, p. 10). This status involves the following:

- Under-representation of people from the designated groups is most notable in academic and senior executive-administrative managerial positions at historically advantaged institutions (universities);
- Formal qualifications generally constitute a rigid requirement for selection and promotion for academic staff;
- The recruitment pool of black academics is very small since very few black students continue into postgraduate studies;
- The inability of public higher education institutions to offer marked-related remuneration packages, due to difficult financial conditions;
- Higher education institutions constitute an environment in which there tends to be particular sensitivity around the notion of paying" market premiums" in order to attract and retain black staff;
- The management skills of heads of academic departments, who constitute a crucial managerial layer, tend to be weak;
- There is still a prevalence of a personnel-administration approach rather than a human resource management model;
- The degree of relative autonomy exercised by faculties and departments within higher education institutions.

These conditions within higher education institutions in South Africa, therefore, call for special deliberation when the management and leadership necessary for transformation are considered.

2.4.2 The university and its environment

As the university and its environment are in constant interaction, the university's environment impacts the sustainability of the institution. This ultimately influences how the institution is managed as changes in the environment will bring about changes in the way the institution is managed.

The environment of an organisation can thus be defined as the "set of institutions and factors which are external to the organisation and may have an impact on its activity" (Robbins, cited in Santos et al., 1998, p. 91). Santos et al. (1998) distinguish between the general and specific environment. The general environment is created by the set of causes and factors whose impact is the same for all organisations and not fundamental for the continued existence of the organisation. A typical example would be the level of economic growth of the country. The specific environment of an organisation is shaped by the set of elements and causes that directly impact the capacity of an organisation to achieve its goals and survival. Therefore, the specific environment of an organisation at any time consists of all the factors and external groups (stakeholders) that are vital for the success of that organisation. When Mintzberg (cited in Santos, et al., 1998, p. 91) characterised the specific environment of organisation, he used two fundamental terms: stability and complexity. Mintzberg defined stability as the degree of change in the environment, which signifies the most important source of external uncertainty of an organisation. It portrays those unexpected and unpredictable changes in the conditions that affect the organisation. Other vital sources of instability are the degree of competition and hostility of the environment as well as the dependence on strategic resources (Mintzberg, cited in Santos et al., 1998). Complexity, on the other hand, refers to the number and diversity of the environmental factors that influence the institution, and which affect the volume of knowledge that the institution should contain and apply. Factors such as the diversity of the markets that the organisation acts upon, the clients that it serves and the number of geographical areas where it is located, all contribute to the complexity of the organisation. Mintzberg (cited in Santos, et al., 1998, p. 92) further stated that the more complex the environment, the more decentralised the organisation should be, because it is impossible for a few decision-makers to integrate and understand all the complexity of the organisation. If a high degree of complexity prevails it is usually dealt with by dividing the organisation into sub-units with a degree of autonomy.

Santos, et al. (1998, p. 93) identify five subsystems, which are at play in the environment of a university. These subsystems, which are in a constant process of interaction with each other and with the environment, are: goals and values; psychosocial, structural; technical structures and management. Depending on its scope, its historical context and strategy, each university is faced with a specific environment, which can have a significant affect on its success and thus influence its organisational structure.

The question that is crucial for the purposes of this study is: What makes the environment of a university complex? Each university has its specific environment, which influences its success and organisational structure. Santos et al. (1998, p. 93) accord the complexity of universities to the high number of institutions and agents that the university has to deal with in order to perform its activities. The diversity of advanced knowledge that a university must possess adds to its complexity. The most effective way to deal with the complexity is to divide the knowledge into disciplines covered within different units - the departments – with a high degree of autonomy. This is attainable as each scientific field is relatively independent. However, this attributes to the university's assumed high degree of decentralisation.

The university environment is regarded as stable as there are no unpredictable and sudden transformations in its environment that might endanger its survival. The degree of hostility and competitiveness is not high, the scarcity of resources is not particularly critical and the environment is not very dynamic. Thus, the low degree of uncertainty leads to a bureaucratic structure based on standardisation of capacities as a mechanism of co-ordination. Within this type of structure, each member of the university, based on professional training, knows which role and functions to perform and how. Each constituent has the autonomy to make decisions in his or her area of expertise to carry out incremental innovations (Santos et al., 1998, p. 94).

Today, universities assume various roles and there has been an extraordinary increase in the number of disciplines which add to the complexity of the university environment and structure. Factors, such as limited funds, rapid technological

development and the increasing complexity to co-ordinate university activities contribute to the increase in the uncertainty and dynamism of the university environment. Santos et al. (1998) state that the implications of this scenario for the organisation and management of the universities can be analysed in terms of the evolution of the university environment from the traditional university up to modern times.

The organisation and management of universities should thus be adapted to a more complex and much more dynamic environment. The specific environment of a university tends to generate organisations that are predominantly more organic than bureaucratic. These organisations therefore have more flexible structures with less formal rules and more communal/shared adjustments. They are innovative and easily adaptable to changes in the environment. The departmental and bureaucratic structure of universities is not in line with the more organic organisation. Its structure is rather seen to complicate the development of new education programmes that are suited for the needs of the labour markets and new, interdisciplinary research programmes which demand the co-operation and combined resources of several departments. According to Santos et al. (1998, pp. 100-101), this could be regarded as one of the central problems of the modern university and therefore they suggest that a solution to this problem will most probably be to reshape the foundation of the organisation of a university. Meek (2003, p. 2) agrees and suggests that higher education institutions should not simply respond to pressures and directives that arise from their external environment, but actively participate in shaping the environment in which they must function.

2.4.3 The effect of change in academic work

The changes in the social sphere within the South African context have inevitably brought about changes in how academic work is performed. The higher education system (especially universities) embraces diverse values about academic work. According to Coaldrake (2000), these values extol individual independence and autonomy and are reinforced by secure full-time employment, the authority obtained from academic standing, local control over all academic matters, high status obtained for original research and widespread disregard for what is seen as the lesser task of

administration and management (particularly those not directly associated with research and teaching or learning).

These academic values and work practices have come into conflict with the demands of the external environment on which institutions of higher education have become more reliant. Coaldrake (2000, pp. 16-22) recognises five aspects of change in academic work that could be accorded to external pressures. Firstly there is the growing pressure on time, workload and morale. In general, the workload of an academic has extended rather than adapted to meet the challenges posed by transformation of the higher education sector. Academics are increasingly required to find time to accommodate the multitude of expectations placed on them as well as to be significantly more involved with 'non-core' work. Many academics seem to feel that they are not adequately recognised by management for performing 'administrative' tasks related to external demands for quality assurance and Secondly, there is more emphasis on performance, professional accountability. standards and accountability. Performance management of the work of academics and their support staff has become inevitable. Quality pressures such as Education and Training Quality Assurance (ETQAs) are exemplary in this regard. Coaldrake (2000) also noted that there is evidence of this trend in the United Kingdom, Australia and the United States. A third aspect is the shift of staff policies from a local control and individual autonomy to a more collective and institutional focus. Institutions of higher education respond to the growth in diversity in the enrolments by embarking on expensive student development programmes in the format of bridging and foundation initiatives. These initiatives often tend to move to the mainstream of the activities of the particular institution of higher education and this might implicate the potential to shift the locus of control for management of the curriculum from locallyoriented academic staff to teams of academic and non-academic staff whilst working within strategic institutional parameters. Even within departments and schools there is a tendency to take away the authority and control from the individual academic as academics are increasingly embarking on research and teaching in teams. Fourthly, academic work is becoming more specialised and demanding. Academics are now required to meet more diverse student groups, to teach at more flexible times and location and to master the use of information technology in teaching, to design curricula around learning outcomes and across disciplines, to teach in teams, to subject their teaching to evaluation and to develop and implement improvements, to

monitor and respond to the evaluations made by students and graduates, to improve assessment and feedback, to meet employer needs and to comprehend and apply new theories of student learning. At the same time research demand has increased and academics are required to improve post-graduate supervision, to publish, to establish links with industry and to prepare, submit or review grant applications. The fifth aspect regards the fact that new tasks are blurring old distinctions between categories of staff. The overlap of roles of academics and non-academics are increasingly noted. One study referred to by Coaldrake (2000) noted that this tendency is more evident in specialist research institutes, laboratories and demonstration work and therefore it could also occur at institutions of higher educations:

- Where staff other than academics undertake (limited) lecturing in business studies areas on the basis of being a guest lecturer in areas of special expertise;
- Where many people classified as academic staff find that the majority of their time is increasingly involved with departmental/faculty administrative tasks;
- In support areas where professionally qualified general academic staff are jointly involved in programmes that concentrate on teaching and curriculum design, development and delivery and particularly delivery associated with distance learning or electronic delivery.

Coaldrake (2000, p. 22) noted that "... the actual and potential of blurring roles is important, and will continue to grow in significance as universities move to more flexible modes of delivery of teaching and learning and as they seek to support and reward staff for their skills, performance and potential rather than on the basis of job classifications." This notion is very significant as the nature of academic and non-academic employment and career development is different. The most important difference is that non-academic work is linked to a particular position while academic work and career advancement are determined by skills and past performance and are often judged upon a required range of activities that covers teaching, research and service. Academics are also inclined to derive peer support, satisfaction, direction, recognition and work focus from membership of a discipline grouping which goes way beyond institutional or even national boundaries. Many academics also regard their discipline as their primary loyalty rather than their institution, whilst the non-academic staff directs their loyalty to the institution.

From this discussion it is therefore evident that the changes in the academic work influence and add to the complex nature of academic organisations. Thus, when higher education institutions embark on a transformation process and become more selective at institutional level, it is imperative to find ways to link the work of the individual academic with the overall direction of the institution (Coaldrake, 2000).

The complex functioning of higher education institutions therefore seem to have an impact on the management and leadership of these institutions. Therefore, the next section will look at management and leadership in higher education.

2.5 Management and Leadership in Higher Education

There is a general view that the available institutional management capacity in South Africa is limited. Over the past years it has become evident that various universities and technikons are in some crisis or other, either financially or regarding their leadership. One of the main reasons given for these crises was outstanding student fees. However, now limited capacity or mismanagement is blamed for them (Brunyee, 2001, p. 11).

The transformation and change agenda for the merging of higher education institutions in South Africa has also placed pressures on the relevant institutions. The leadership in higher education now needs the expertise to translate, plan and implement the new policies, systems and structures. In some instances it is found that leadership in the higher education sector lacks previous management experience. This may prevent a leader of an institution of higher education from having a holistic view of his/her role. The question arises whether the change agenda of higher education places unrealistic objectives and put too much pressure on the system and its people. The question that should be posed is whether the availability of the relevant human resources and the capacity of the individual institutions are sufficient (Brunyee, 2001, pp. 10-11).

Booysen (1999, p. 26) accords the primary factor that prevents institutions and organisations from growing and changing, to the fact that in many instances they are over-managed and under-led. It is therefore necessary to distinguish between managing and leading institutions of higher education. It is important to differentiate

between the management and leadership with specific reference to transformation and change processes.

2.5.1 The difference between management and leadership

The terms management and leadership are often confused and therefore it is necessary to differentiate between them.

Stoner and Wankel (1986, pp. 4-5) define management as "... the process of planning, organising leading and controlling the efforts of the organisation members and of using all other organisational resources to achieve stated organisational goals." These authors define leadership as "the process of directing and influencing the task-related activities of group members" (Stoner & Wankel, 1986, p. 445).

Therefore, Gilley and Maycunich (2000, p. 67) confirm that management and leadership are not the same thing. It is believed that people are led and processes or things are managed (Owens, cited in Hoff, 1999, p. 314). To manage means to bring about, to accomplish, to have charge of or take responsibility for, to conduct and maintain systems and processes. Leading is to influence people to follow, guiding in direction, course, actions and opinions. Managers do things right and leaders do the right thing. A further distinction is that managers are dedicated to maintaining existing institutions whereas leaders are often committed to changing an organisation (Tichy & Devanna, cited in Hoff, 1999).

Bolman and Deal (cited in Hoff, 1999, p. 318) state that "... leaders must take a spiritual journey that begins with the self, in order to be effective leaders of other souls." This therefore implies that leaders must come to grips with themselves and know their inner selves before they can effectively lead others. It should however, be emphasised that managers do not always have the qualities of leaders and leaders do not always portray qualities of managers. While some managers are also leaders and many leaders are also managers, these highly sought after people could be regarded as scarce resources.

When management initiates a change process, the focus is normally on the strategy, structure, culture or systems. Although Kotter (2003, p. 4) agrees that these areas

are important, he is of the opinion that the critical issue is always about changing the behaviour of people.

Leadership encompasses the basic skills that foster behavioural and organisational change (Booysen, 1999, p. 28). In the unstable environment of change in higher education, leadership is more important than management. However, in order to remain competitive both these elements are necessary. Booysen (1999, p. 28) provides a detailed differentiation between the two concepts in Table 1.

Table 1. Differentiation between Leadership and Management

		Leadership	Management
Focus		Producing useful	Controlling complexity
Role 1	Deciding what needs to be done	Set direction, innovate and develop Create a vision and change strategies Focus on people and strategic intent	Plan, budget, administer and maintain Set targets, goals and action plans Focus on systems and structure
Role 2	Creating a structure of networks and relationships to get things done	 Align people with shared vision Communicate vision down to all relevant people Create continuous learning opportunities Stretch leverage and resources 	 Organise and staff organisation Structure jobs Establish reporting relationships Provide training Delegate authority Apply resources
Role 3	Directing productive work	Empower peopleInstil ownershipAsk what and why	 Solve problems Negotiate compromises Ask how and when
Role 4	Ensuring performance	 Motivate, inspire and align people Look ahead – long term view Instil trust 	 Implement control systems Look at the bottom line – shot term view Rely on control

(Adapted from Booysen, 1999, p. 28)

Feigen (cited in Booysen, 1999, p. 27) argues that during the change process leaders/managers' functional skills should match their people change skills or else they will not be able to manage in an environment of great change. Kotter (2003, p. 4) adds that in highly successful change efforts, it is essential to help the people to see the problems or solutions in such a way that it influences both their thoughts and *emotions*. In this way, feelings will alter behaviour to overcome many of the barriers to sensible large-scale change. According to Kotter (2003, p. 4),"... The heart of the

matter is more a matter of see, feel and change and less a matter of analysis, think and change." Kotter (2003, p. 4) identifies five degrees of change:

- 1. Little change making goods and services with long product life cycles.
- Continuous improvement constant incremental changes in products and the way of operating.
- 3. Non-incremental change within business in addition to continuous improvement, the regular introduction of new product lines and significant improvements in how to run the business.
- 4. Whole new business in addition to 2 and 3, inventing not just new product lines but new businesses.
- 5. Whole new business models in addition to 2, 3, and 4, inventing not just new businesses, but new economic and organisational models.

To manage all five degrees of change well requires not only good management skills but also visionary leadership and a form of leadership that will unleash huge amounts of intellectual, physical and emotional energy (Kotter, 2003, p. 4). Kotter (2003, p. 4) explains that visionary leadership creates the vision and strategy, communicates the vision and strategy and acquires buy-in, motivates action and helps the organisation to grow, evolve and adapt to changing circumstances. Thus, leadership creates the system for management to manage.

With regard academic institutions, Meek (2003, p. 12) notes that although management and leadership are closely related concepts, staff that are not in formal management or in administrative positions often only give academic leadership. This could be a challenge that academic institutions face and should be considered in developing management potential in these institutions.

2.5.2 Communication as a tool for management and leadership in the higher education sector

As poor communication is often regarded as the cause of problems in organisations, managers and leaders need their communication skills to acquire the information necessary to make decisions and to transmit the results and intentions of these decisions to stakeholders (Callahan, Fleenor & Knudson, 1986, p. 128).

According to Richman and Farmer (1974, p. 21) the way communication takes place in institutions of higher education can be detrimental to the effectiveness and efficiency of these institutions. Richman and Farmer (1974, p. 21) state, however, that communication in higher education institutions does not have to take place from top down or along vertical or hierarchical lines.

Communication and leadership is critical in external relations. One of the key tasks of management (top management) is to ensure that adequate contributions are obtained from external participants or interest groups. Richman and Farmer (1974, p. 21) therefore reiterate that management has the primary responsibility to balance inducements and contributions to provide for the viability and success of the institution and thus have to maintain effective communication and agreement with external stakeholders.

Richman and Farmer (1974, p. 22) further argue that if management wants their employees to get things done, they need to provide direction, leadership, communication and motivation. This would therefore ensure that people from both inside and outside the institution work together to achieve the goals of an institution efficiently.

Therefore, management and leadership should realise that effective relationships with people whether from inside or outside, require good communication. As Davidson (1995, p. 181) states, the problem is that most of the time leaders and managers think that they communicate when they actually just inform. This author indicates that informed means to 'tell about'; to communicate means to 'impart, to share with' and states that when management and leadership communicate with the employees in the institution their primary purpose is to effect behavioural change. Within the context of transformation in higher education, management or leadership of an institution may want an instruction to be followed, to implement a plan or even want an activity to be avoided; therefore they seek a different pattern of behaviour. Therefore, the act of communication has been effective if it results in the desired action or changed behaviour. Simply sharing information is thus not sufficient as a means of communication, as people need to know the reasons why they need to change their behaviour and only then they will make up their minds and act accordingly (Davidson, 1995, p. 182).

Davidson (1995) therefore suggests that management and leadership should do three things in order to move from information sharing to communication. These are:

- (i) Educate they should realise that the people who should change behaviour should understand why it is necessary and would therefore need to be educated in order to create this understanding.
- (ii) Authenticate the message sent out should be authenticated as stakeholders in institutions are often wary about the pronouncement they hear from the leaders of the institutions.
- (iii) Motivate the questions that come to play in this instance is: What's the implications for me? Do I buy the idea? Will I be able to achieve my goals and they theirs? These questions are signs of a generation that believe in and identify with the goals of the institutions to which they belong as they want to make a real contribution and enjoy doing so.

It is only when management and leadership assist its people to understand their message, to believe it and make them see the benefits that they will reap that the message could be regarded as being truly communicated. Davidson (1995, p.183) maintains that when true communication has been achieved, that institution has achieved the most powerful competitive advantage of all — "a self-motivated workforce that shares a common vision."

2.5.2.1 Communication styles of males and females

According to Green (1997, p. 153), males and females seem to have different communication styles in which they function and realise their sense of identity and self-esteem.

Daniel (1997, p. 172) claims that males have been socialised to dominate females by using different communication styles. Typical characteristics of the communication styles of males are that they seem to overpower the soft voice of females as they interrupt each other, without pause, with their aggressive exchanges. Therefore, females seem to be reduced to an invisible and silent presence. Another communication tactic of males is to undermine the feminine presence in meetings, i.e. when a female states her idea, no one follows it up with a comment to confirm its validity. However, when a male mentions the same or similar idea in different words

and claims it as his own, male colleagues would voice their agreement (Green, 1997, p. 153).

As a result of socialisation, Daniel (1997, p. 172) found that the communication styles of males are often coupled with professionalism and power, while the communication styles of females are coupled with powerlessness. Table 2 presents the communication pattern that could be differentiated when the styles of communication of males and females are analysed.

Table 2. Communication styles of Males versus Females

	Males	Females
1	Assertiveness	1 Less assertive
2	Impersonal and abstract speech, with limited self-disclosure	2 More personal and cooperative speech
3	Competitive, devil's advocate interchanges	3 Inappropriate smiling
4	Disruptive comments, especially when females are talking	4 Gestures that express attentiveness or give encouragement to others
5	Speech that controls the topic of conversation	5 Averting eyes, especially when dealing with those in positions of authority
6	Physical gestures that express dominance and control	

(Created from Daniel, 1997, p.172)

When females communicate, they seek to reach a compromise and build consensus and are more geared to maximise the chances for an outcome that is satisfying to everyone in the group. Males, on the other hand, communicate in a manner that tend to control, dominate and move the group towards satisfying their own interests (Daniel, 1997, pp. 172-173).

There is also a racial connotation with regard to communication style. Moses (1997, p. 23) upholds that black females have been participants in higher education institutions for more than a century, but "... they are almost totally absent from research literature; and rarely is the impact of racism and sexism on black women in academe examined." Mc Kay (1997, p. 21) claims that no matter what the institution or situation, black women everywhere are discriminated against on the basis on their race, sex and class, simply because they are black and female nor does academia

provide a safe haven. Mc Kay (1997, p. 14) further states that white colleagues in higher education institutions, without any effort, "... asserted the privilege of whiteness, especially male whiteness, over those they perceive to be unequal to themselves by the authority of race and/or sex." However, this communication style is not limited to white males only as white females in academia are just as guilty.

Management and leadership in higher education should therefore be wary of the different styles and influence of communication as it affects the efficiency of the message that they would want to bring across.

This section stipulated the difference between management and leadership and how the change process might impact management and leadership. It discussed communication as a tool for management and leadership and how different communication styles might influence it. The next section will therefore focus on the aspects of management of transformation in higher education.

2.6 Management

Management is defined in terms of four elements of planning, organising leading and controlling the work of the members of the institution and of using all the other organisational resources to achieve the stated institutional goals (Stoner & Wankel, 1986, p. 4). The legislative framework professed that transformation in higher education should put emphasis on management issues such as diversity management, change and managerialism. This section will explore these management issues and discuss a suggested management model for higher education institutions.

2.6.1 Diversity management in higher education

In its attempt to redress the imbalances caused by the apartheid education system, higher education institutions have changed their policies and procedures. However, they still do not reflect the demographics of the South African society. According to Norris (1996, p. 25), South African higher education institutions need to develop a greater appreciation of diversity and how this diversity is managed. Norris (1996, p. 25) quoted Roosevelt's (1990) definition of managing diversity where he says that "...

Managing diversity does not mean controlling or containing diversity, it means enabling every member... to perform to his or her potential". From this it is evident that diversity management and employment equity hold implications for institutions of higher education.

Where the purpose of the Employment Equity Act (EEA) is to achieve equity in the workplace by promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination and provides for affirmative action measures to ensure equal representation in all occupational categories and on all levels in the workforce, it can be said that employment equity practices create the need for diversity management. According to Norris (1996, p. 27) diversity management has become vital as institutions of higher education are compelled to make quality education possible for all. This is driven by internal and external pressures. Internal pressures will be applied on these institutions in order for them to change and reflect the demographics of the country, whereas the external pressures will be from the communities in which these institutions operate or through legislation that may be applied at a national or provincial level.

Norris (1996, p. 27) identified six factors that should form part of the strategic management process for institutions of higher education in South Africa. These factors are:

- Organisational culture. This has to change to reflect a diverse culture with transformed beliefs and value system.
- Organisation/environmental change. The organisation need to be changed in order accommodate the diversity of academic and administrative staff and students.
- Total quality management. This is integral to the institution's beliefs and value systems and should become part of the strategic management process within higher education. It will ensure that the management in higher education can be enhanced by highlighting the values regarding people, knowledge and continuous improvement.
- Participative management/decision-making. Institutions of higher education will
 have to adopt a more participative and negotiated management style that involves
 all the stakeholders in the decision-making process of the institution.

- Resource development. Within higher education institutions this refers to all services that add to the development of human resources (staff and students) and it includes support resources such as bureaus of staff development, departments of public relations and human resource departments.
- Strategic planning. This factor provides the direction for the institution and is future orientated but should not be regarded as more important than the other factors neither be applied on its own.

Norris (1996, p. 27) concludes that it would take considerable commitment by institutions to recognise the diversity they create through employment equity practices and initiatives and to take corrective actions in order to achieve a climate conducive for diversity to flourish.

2.6.2 Change management in higher education

As management in all workplaces (business, government, and various institutions) face radical change within their workplaces, it is imperative that managers of academic institutions or institutions of higher education keep abreast with the new challenges facing management in business. According to Cronje and Smit (2003, p. 14), some of these changes are so radical that organisation theorists talk about a 'new' kind of up-and-coming organisation. Key characteristics of the up-and-coming organisation are that it networks, its organisation chart is flat and lean, it is flexible and diverse and it focuses on globalisation. There are many reasons why institutions change. According to systems theory, an organisation or institution is an open system, because it does not function in isolation. Pretorius (2001, p. 77) maintains that the management of higher education occurs within such a system.

Cronje and Smit (2003, p. 14) identify the following six forces that stimulate change in organisations: globalisation and the global economy, advances in technology, fundamental transformation of the world of work, increased power and demands of the consumer, the growing importance of capital and learning and the new roles and expectations of employees. These forces imply that managers of organisations have to deal with a much broader set of forces in the environment. For example, these authors stress the importance for managers of globally inclined organisations to understand the variety of cultures of the people involved in the global market. Cronje

and Smit (2003, p. 14) note that "... an appreciation of the differences among cultures is crucial and training in cross-cultural communities is essential for managers." Lane and DiStefano (cited in Cronje & Smit, 2003, p. 18) add that managers of global organisations that are often subjected to change should have or acquire the ability to develop and use global strategic skills, to manage change and transition, to manage cultural diversity, to design and function in flexible organisation structures, to work with others and in teams, to communicate effectively and to learn and transfer knowledge in an organisation. As institutions of higher education also operate in a global market, their managers will need to equip themselves with these abilities if they want to stay abreast with management in a changing environment.

2.6.3 Management and managerialism in higher education

Meek (2003, p. 11) distinguishes between management and managerialism and defines management as "... a set of good or best practices in running an organisation" and managerialism as "... a set of ideological principles and values that one group of actors imposes on another in an attempt to control their behaviour." Trow (cited in Meek 2003, p. 11) expand on the definition and explains that the 'ism' in managerialism indicates an ideology, a faith or belief in the truth of a set of ideas, which are independent of specific institutions. The 'ism' becomes critical when it implies control over the academic products of the university by those not directly involved in their creation.

In defining management in higher education, it is also important to distinguish between management and governance, as the term is often used interchangeably. Gallagher (cited in Meek 2003, p. 12) notes the following fundamental distinctions between the two terms: "Governance is the structure of relationships that bring out organisational coherence, authorise policies, plans and decisions, and account for their probity, responsiveness and cost-effectiveness..." and "...Management is achieving intended outcomes through the allocation of responsibility, resources, and monitoring their efficiency and effectiveness." Reed, Meek and Jones (cited in Maassen, 2003, p. 32) identify a common element in the conceptualisation of governance as "the notion of relationship or dynamic interaction of bodies and groups operating at different levels of a higher education system." These authors further suggest (by referring to Gallagher, 2001) that "in higher education, institutional

leadership is mainly about strategic direction giving and setting; management is about outcomes achievement and the monitoring of institutional effectiveness and efficiency in the distribution of resources and administration about the implementation of procedures."

Brunyee (2001, p. 8) states that the manager most likely to succeed in higher education is the person who can operate at institutional, regional and national levels and can comfortably manage in a working environment of continuous change and uncertainty. This author holds that such a manager cannot use a standard frame of reference to solve or address these ever-changing situations, because they create a high degree of uncertainty and call for him/her to develop a "non-static repertoire of skills" that can be altered and improved through learning from experience, through reflection. Schon (cited in Brunyee, 2001, p. 8) term the repertoire of skills "reflective practice" and the manager who applies these skills a "reflective practitioner". According to Argyris (cited in Brunyee, 2001, p. 8) managers need "...to reflect critically on their own behaviour, identify the ways they often inadvertently contribute to the organisation's problems, and then change how they act. In particular, they must learn how the very way they go about defining and solving problems can be a source of problems in its own right." In a case study of a "... previously disadvantaged technikons", Chetty (2003, p. 13) identifies one of the key lacunae as a lack of an effective, participatory and transparent style of management at the institution. The need for reflective practice in higher education is reiterated by Chetty's (2003, p. 13) observation that "... many of the management structures have been used over long periods of time without reappraisal ad rethinking strategic directions." The results are seen in the financial crises, high management turnover, poor research output and low quality graduates, which are the consequences of poor academic management.

Lately, academics often express their feelings about management as: "... the current university managers are more driven by economic than academic considerations"; and "... A higher education institution is not a shoe factory and therefore cannot be managed as a shoe factory..." (Maassen, 2003, p. 33). According to this author it has become a worrying fact that external interests have become the driving force behind the reforms in the management structures of universities and colleges and

thereby it threatens the control by academics of the internal affairs of the university. However, Trowler (cited in Meek 2003, p. 3) maintains that the responses of academics affect the directions of change just as much as formal policy does.

Intellectual products of universities were at some stage regarded as public property. However, at an increasing rate, institutions have had to assert their intellectual property rights over the knowledge produced by their staff in an attempt to survive financially in a competitive market. The movement from the public good concept of knowledge to one of commercialisation and 'private' ownership has challenged many traditional academic values. According to Meek (2003, p. 11), this is one of the basic ways in which higher education institutions are moving from the domain of management as effective administration of the institution to managerialism.

Chetty (2003, p. 14) maintains that the changing nature of academic work demands a shift from bureaucratic management strategies towards an enterprise model where the focus is on competence. Chetty (2003) therefore considers the enterprise model to be appropriate for scholarship and research and ensures devoted leadership, flexible decision-making and accountable, professional expertise. On the other hand, Lemmer (1999) is of the opinion that the increasing effect of economic imperatives, state off-loading, marketisation of universities and a new ideology of quality while widening the access to significantly larger numbers of students, brings overwhelming pressure to bear on universities to adopt business-like modes of internal operation and could be problematic. This author further states that corporate values, procedures and management techniques make universities more cost effective and productive, but result in making universities do more with less. Managerialism seems to have penetrated into the symbols and lingo of both national policy and university discourse and the apparent trend is that line managers now replace academic leaders, vice-chancellors become chief executive officers and management boards develop with senates and councils. However, as noted previously, South African higher education institutions are complex and have an peculiar environment in which they operate, therefore Lemmer (1999, p. 86) reiterates that "... universities are not entirely similar to business firms".

Restructuring of higher education into the corporate model transforms the way that higher education institutions are managed and how they influence the personal working lives of individual academics. According to Adelman (cited in Lemmer, 1999, p. 187), the time for scholarship and research is often consumed by the demands made by financial and institutional management, demands for which many academics do not have the training or the inclination. Lemmer (1999, p. 187) therefore claims that academics are now tempted to withdraw from community service or to reduce their teaching responsibilities in order to spend more time on research. Institutional efficiency is now associated with reduced running costs, rationalisation and retrenchment operations and this could thus qualify Smythe's (cited in Lemmer, 1999, p. 187) observation that "universities report a widespread demoralisation of academic staff".

An interesting observation is that although Chetty (2003) and Lemmer (1999) agree that senior administrators in higher education exert substantial power and academics are left as "statistics" (Chetty, 2003, p. 14), they differ in their opinion of higher education and the business model. Chetty views this as the solution to the management dilemma, whilst Lemmer (1999) maintains that it could be the cause of the dilemma.

As noted earlier, Chetty (2003) claims that there is a lack of an effective, participatory and transparent style of management at the institution in the case study. This leads us to another management theory, which is participative management. Bruyns (2001, p. 17) notes that "... a possible reason for the failure of participative management in the higher education system could be that managers do not take in consideration the underlying values, beliefs, preconceptions, perceptions and attitudes shared by employees. Change can be managed successfully only if employees share the vision and values of an organisation. The success of participation in an organisation therefore depends on the interaction between corporate culture and management approach adopted."

According to Bruyns (2001, p. 15) culture (i.e. norms and values) and the management philosophy constitute inherent parts of an organisation. Corporate

culture is defined as the outcome of the structural design of the organisation, its strategic objective and its resources (Peter & Waterman, cited in Bruyns, 2001, p. 15). Beer (cited in Bruyns, 2001, p. 17) maintains that as "... individuals interact with others, are supervised and are affected by policies and procedures; they develop a composite perception of their environment, which is often expressed in a specific corporate culture. From these actions, values and norms usually develop which guide the people's behaviour in the organisation. The more these values are shared, the stronger the organisation's culture becomes that influences individual and group behaviour." Therefore, Bruyns (2001) reasons that culture has a direct effect on the direction of an organisation and also an indirect influence on the structural design, management approach and the behaviour of people. Bruyns (2001, p. 16) further holds the opinion that if traditional management practices were to be replaced with participative management practices and teamwork, it would have a ripple effect thought the whole network. This will thus result in changes to structures, strategies and work practices, whilst the staff capacity for teamwork needs to be enhanced. Bruyns (2001, p. 16) warns that there will be conflict and anxieties if the existing culture, management practices, structural design and resources of the higher education system do not support its strategies. Participative management it is argued can only be successful if the culture of the higher education system is receptive to participation. This stance reiterates that management of change is located in the management philosophy and culture of the organisation. These two components should therefore be used as a fundamental viewpoint in the transformation of the higher education system and alignment of the system with its environment (Bruyns, 2001, p. 17).

In order to ensure that the culture of an institution is receptive to participative management, the following vital elements in the establishment of participative management practices are suggested by McLagan and Nel (cited in Bruyns 2001, pp. 17-18):

- Employees should know which practices and way of thinking should be followed to enhance participation.
- Employees should recognise the systems and values of both the traditional and participative management approaches.

- All stakeholders should be involved in identifying norms and values needed to support the corporate culture.
- Traditional practices should be replaced by values underlying humanity in support of the organisation's vision and mission.
- Control measures should be implemented to ensure the implementation of the new values and norms.

Many of the elements discussed in this section with regard to managerialism seem to be incorporated in the management model discussed in the next section.

2.6.4 A management model for an institution of higher education

According to Santos et al. (1998, p. 102) knowledge should be the basis for an university's power structure as its existence is based on the creation and dissemination of knowledge in a systematic and structured way. Rosovsky (cited in Santos, et al., 1998) suggested that the university authority should therefore primarily be based on knowledge. However, the diversity and complexity of the structural components of a university as well as the principle of knowledge-driven authority suggest different management styles for the different areas of the university. Therefore, Santos et al. (1998, pp. 102-104) suggest the following management model for higher education institutions (such as universities).

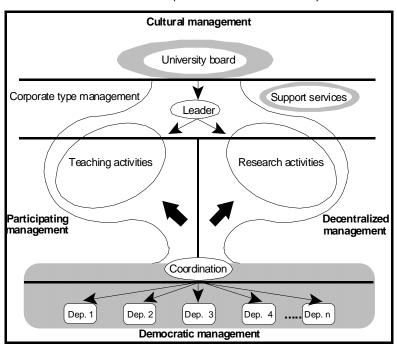


Figure 1. The Higher Education Management Model (Santos et al., 1998, p.103)

Figure 1 illustrates how and where the different management styles should be applied in a higher education institution. By using this figure, Santos et al. (1998) suggest the following:

- A democratic management style is suggested at the departmental level, which are the building blocks of the development of advanced knowledge in the disciplinary areas.
- A decentralised management system is suggested for the management of research activities, as it is critical that researchers have a high degree of autonomy as they hold the most advanced knowledge in their research field. It is assumed that research activities should function in a cluster of research teams and that university centres geared to the development and management of these activities could best operate under this type of management style. In addition, it is recommended that there be a facilitating central unit, which would supply administrative services for the facilitation of research activities (financial, administrative and legal management and counselling, protection and valorisation of intellectual property).
- For the management of education programmes, the participative management style is prescribed as all the participants share pedagogic knowledge. Scientific knowledge is, however, embodied in the faculty and the complexity of the education process (the management of schedules, students, faculty, curricula and budget) implies considerable intervention from the programme co-ordinators.
- At top management level of the university the University Council is recommended. This external board should serve as the university's link with society and will legitimise the power of the university leaders. It is suggested that the top management should develop a cultural management style. This should be understood as the communication of the vision ideals, challenges and identity of the university in a top-down approach and the channelling of expectations of society to the university members.
- The university leader, appointed by the University Council, should head the support structure level. This level includes all the administrative functions and professional management is recommended at this level. This **bureaucratic**type management should include job descriptions, formal units and defined hierarchies.

Santos, et al. (1998, pp. 103-104) further explain that, as the university is an organisation of professionals, there should exist a bottom-up approach towards decision-making. To bring consistency and harmony to the university's activities, strong and visionary leadership is needed for the university which is based on an external board and embodied in the university's leader, nominated by that board. According to the model for higher education, the different departments still form the basic units of the scientific competences. However, it is suggested that there should also be specific bodies to co-ordinate the different teaching activities and others to develop research activities. These bodies should draw their legitimacy from the University Council and not from departments. A coordination mechanism, which functions by mutual adjustment and is organised according to a set of clear and uncomplicated rules will guarantee that the scientific competencies of the departments are efficiently allocated to the development of the university activities. This inventive type of organisation for management in higher education should evidently be supported by an integrated information system and an activity based management model that includes financing, budgeting and evaluation each activity (Santos, et al., 1998).

In addition to this model, transformational management could also be appropriate as according to Kozmetsky (1985, p. 1) transformational management is the process of moving from one state and level of activity and commitment to another. It requires a focus on higher aspirations and longer-range views that not only benefit individual firms and corporations but also help provide for the general welfare. Therefore, the focus of transformational management is on social consciousness and decision-making. It involves monitoring, delineating and clarifying the possibilities for business success in conjunction with the hopes of a better future for society on the whole.

Transformational management, according to Kozmetsky (1985, p. 5), is founded on the belief that leadership makes a significant difference in the way business responds to and copes with change. It is concerned with creating real economic value and with adapting the personal aspirations of workers to the evolving objectives of the firm and to the larger goals of society. Transformational management therefore needs to be creative and innovative. These creative functions are concerned with new perceptions, ideas, methods, styles and organisational structures, which will renew existing organisations and identify emerging activities. Creative management thus,

initiates newer modes of managerial planning and control, developments, financing and marketing and future prospects of scientific advances and possible adaptation of technology.

It can be argued that both transformational management and the model for higher education suggest that a strong and visible leadership should exist in higher education institutions to ensure its successful implementation. The next section will therefore explore leadership issues in higher education.

2.7 Leadership

According to CHET (2000, p.11) the changes and transformation in higher education institutions have contributed to a degree of demand overload for institutional leaders in higher education. This is especially true since they have to deal with multiple and simultaneous transformation pressures, more participative and transparent governance, new approaches to planning, funding and qualifications, new efficiency demands, new legislation, new reporting requirements and setting new institutional priorities for competitive markets. This demand overload has changed the way South Africa higher education institutions are lead as in the apartheid era many of these institutions were managed through "administrative fiat", where the day-to day activities of the institutional managers were limited to day-to-day administrative operations rather than providing strategic leadership (CHET, 2000, p.10).

2.7.1 New directions in higher education leadership

According to Kezar, Carducci and Contreras-McGavin (2006, p. 101) literature on leadership in higher education has changed significantly over the past fifteen years. Past research on leadership focussed mainly on the principal of the institution, but in recent years, research focused more on leaders throughout the institution – deans, deputy deans, chairpersons of departments and directors (Kezar et al., 2006, p. 101). Research now also focus on people who do not hold positions of authority and power as they have a profound influence on the leadership process and literature now acknowledges that leadership can be found throughout the institution. Kezar et al. (2006) further notes that the research paradigms that applied to higher education have expanded. Research in higher education until recently focused mainly on the

functional perspective of leadership with samples that were dominated by white males. This has now changed and recent studies seem to enfold in a more social constructivist approach to leadership, where the purpose of the research has shifted to the interpretation and understanding of what people perceive or attribute as leadership in order to assist in leaders' understanding of their frameworks and how their perceptions as leaders affect the leadership process (Kezar et al., 2006, pp. 16 & 102). They are of the opinion that there is still scope in conducting research from a critical or post-modern perspective as research in this field is still limited. However, they state that "... in the limited body of work on critical leadership in higher education, the main area of research is studies that explore the experiences of women leaders and leaders of colour, documenting how their approaches to leadership are not represented in earlier leadership research that focused almost exclusively on white male samples." Another change that is evident in research on leadership in higher education relates to the representation of successful leaders. In the past the effective leaders were described to be superior, "... distant from their followers, acquired resources, wielded power and influence and acted in political ways". In modern research they are portrayed as "... individuals who work for the shared good of their organisations by collaborating by others and sharing power, balancing their orientation to people and tasks, and working to interpret and make meaning in the organisation..."(Kezar et al., 2006).

2.7.2 Leading change and transformation in higher education

According to Kotter (cited in Pretorius, 2001, p. 76), leadership should clarify the direction of change and make all stakeholders of the institution willing, even enthusiastic partners, in the change process. Middlehurst (cited in Pretorius, 2001, p. 77) shows that it is important to build the internal commitment of staff towards positive collective action in the face of external pressures or internal crises and at all times offer new insights and visions.

The dramatic changes in higher education set in motion by the mergers, new technological, economic and social realities imply the need to reallocate funds. Thus, new ideas and innovative approaches need to be considered for more efficient operations. Pretorius (2001, p. 77) suggests that both business process reengineering and continuous improvement of methods are needed. Gunn (cited in

Pretorius, 2001, p. 77) supports this and reiterates that higher education institutions require third wave management, which includes a management system, systems methodology, human-scale organisations and moral absolutes, in order to achieve high output through the academic processes. The objective should be to create a high trust environment by promoting competence and integrity. Stott and Walker (cited in Pretorius 2001, p. 77) supports this view and maintain that there is greater need for teamwork and the management of teams and emphasise that transformational leadership is more appropriate as its focus is more geared to commitment rather than control. Ingram (cited in Pretorius 2001, p. 77) also accentuates that teamwork is vital to ensure organisational improvement. Thus, in order to deal with these changes, the transformational leader needs to focus more directly on flexibility and adaptability and this requires that leaders recognise and apply contemporary management styles and approaches (Kozmetsky, 1985, p. XV).

Gunn (cited in Pretorius 2001, p. 77) suggests that as the management of higher education occurs within a system, the following principles should be considered:

- The principle of synergism, where the focus is on co-ordination rather than on subordination through open relationships in a goal-oriented management system.
- The principle of redundancy, where the accent is on integration, rather than alienation, through the free flow of timely, relevant, accurate information in the network of the computer-generated authority structure.
- The principle of symbiosis, where the emphasis is on co-operation instead of rivalry, with computer-based communication and control systems designed to provide valid competition.
- The principle of equifinality, where the accent is on diversity in outputs, instead
 of uniform performance, through compensatory efforts to achieve similar levels
 of productivity with other entities.
- The principle of holism, which emphasises a perspective of totality instead of a tunnel vision, in decision-making with the interrelated, hierarchal format of the systems approach.

Pretorius (2001, p. 79) therefore concludes that higher education needs enlightened leaders with the modesty to evaluate their own leadership, the desire to bring about change and the tenacity to venture on a sustained journey.

2.7.3 Leadership roles in higher education institutions

In the past, the focus of institutions of higher education have been on fundamental research, education and teaching. This has however, changed as these institutions need to take into consideration their links with businesses, employment, technology transfer and economic innovation. It seems therefore as if the institutional leader now has a greater responsibility (Demichel, 2000, p. 7). Leaders and managers of educational institutions have various roles to fulfil. There are also various relationships to be built and developed with the different constituents with whom the leader comes into contact in performing the duties associated with those roles (Hoff, 1999, p. 319).

According to Engwall, Levay and Lidman (1999, p. 77), universities demand a special type of leadership, as they are strongly dependent on the expert competencies of their employees. This is especially so as universities appear to be societal institutions that have been an integral part of society for many years and can be distinguished from entrepreneurial organisations by the nature of their objectives. Universities are fed from all segments by research and they allow their members substantial freedom. Another feature that recapitulates the fact that university leaders should have special qualities is the autonomy of universities, as they are multidisciplinary, have an intergenerational mix, and represent a community in which knowledge is built up and transmitted to new generations. Moreover, each university has its own historic identity that differentiates it from all others (Bayenet, Feola & Tavernier, 2000, p. 68). When university leaders were asked what role they fulfil at their institutions, most of the participants of the September 1999, Management Seminar for University Leaders held in Brussels, felt that their roles are not that of managers (Bayenet et al., 2000, pp. 68-69).

Green (1997, p. 31)) states that while others may exercise leadership in an academic institution; the institutional head should be a visible and important symbolic leader. This person carries different titles in different countries: *president* in the United States of America and some other countries; *vice-chancellor* in the United Kingdom and some British Common wealth countries; and rector in most other countries.

According to Green (1997, pp. 36-39) the following leadership responsibilities represent a common framework for considering the duties of institutional leaders and include the clarification and determination of direction which is an intricate and continuous interactive process, because leadership also requires the ability to engage followers in formulating and implementing a shared agenda. It therefore draws on the institutional head's outstanding capacity to see the whole of the institution and the aspirations and visions of various constituencies. With regard to managing change, leaders at institutions of higher education must shape the change process to enhance feasible monitoring and interpreting of the external environment in order to provide a forum for the change to be discussed, understood, debated and implemented. The role of the leader is thus to facilitate the process of 'adaptive change', to engage people in the difficult task of facing tough issues and closing the gap between aspirations and reality with all the pain, anxiety and conflict this effort necessitates. With regard to setting the tone, the institutional leader acts as the chief spokesperson for the institution both internally as well as externally and is therefore constantly verbalising institutional values and aspirations. However, leaders set the tone not simply through public speaking. The leader's own behaviours, the policies and procedures that are instituted and the way decisions are deliberated and made, are vital determinants of institutional climate. This does not imply that leaders can single-handedly control institutional climate, but they can set an example for the community through the moral force of their words and actions. Overseeing education and research - teaching, learning and research are the core functions of higher education and should be the driving concern of academic leaders. Relating the institution to its external constituencies - institutional leaders speak on behalf of the institution to many audiences that serve and support it. These audiences include students, parents, faculty members, staff, alumni, donors, government officials, employers and the business community and the general public. Leaders of institutions are also representing their institutions internationally at an increasing rate. Securing resources and overseeing their use - the role of the institutional leader varies from actually seeking funds to fostering a climate and developing policies that will enable institutional units and individuals to be entrepreneurial themselves. Leaders are realising the importance of the link between the deployment of resources and strategic planning and change, more and more. Given the growing constraints of most institutional budgets, leaders cannot afford to ignore this dimension, whatever the structural arrangements and traditions of the particular country. Overseeing

operations – senior administrators normally form part of the institutional leader's "management team" and keep this leader informed on routine matters seeking policy guidance in general and consulting on problems as needed (Green, 1997, pp. 36-39).

Mintzberg (cited in Hoff, 1999, p. 319) divides the different roles into three categories based on the tasks performed and the relationships established. The roles as figure head (performing ceremonial duties that are related to the position as head of a unit); leader (the responsibility related to the work of the unit) and liaison (contacts with people or entities outside the direct vertical chain of command) arise directly from formal authority and involve interpersonal relationships.

The second category consists of informational roles and involves the roles as monitor (conducting a continuous environmental scan); disseminator (passing on crucial information in all directions); and spokesperson (serving as the contact for internal and external constituent groups). These roles emerge as a result of the leader having access to more information than any other individual within the unit.

The third category consists of roles related to decision-making and includes four roles. These roles are: entrepreneur (voluntary initiator of change); disturbance handler (fire-fighter and conflict manager); and resource allocator (setter of priorities and allocating resources).

Apart from the roles mentioned above, the leader of the institution frequently acts as goal setter and motivator. Gardner (cited in Hoff, 1999, p. 319) stated that the role of a leader also involves sharing the vision, norms, expectations and purposes with other stakeholders. However, along with the shared vision, the leader has the duty to continually rebuild and renew ownership in the shared values; thus, creating and maintaining an environment that encourages people to be creative and innovative, and thereby creating an environment in which people are motivated to do their best.

In order to ensure the success of an institution, the leader has the important role of setting the stage for establishing an environment of trust. An environment of trust must exist in which there is trust among all groups and entities. However, Hoff (1999, p. 320) notes that the key to building relations in any environment is effective

communication. Within a traditional structure, communication channels need to flow both vertically and horizontally. "This is the only way to ensure a feeling of open ess and honesty among all departments, divisions and colleges on campus" (Hoff, 1999, p. 320).

2.7.4 Characteristics of leaders in higher education

Leaders in the changing environment of South African institutions of higher education need to display the required unique attributes, skills and values (Hoff, 1999, p. 312). However, Wills (cited in Green, 1997, p. 31) reinforced that a "... leader whose qualities do not match those of potential followers is simply irrelevant".

According to CHET (2000, p.128), leadership is regarded as one of the tools for institutional change and therefore institutional leaders need to drive the change process. They should therefore "... be accountable, transparent, visible, share the vision and be committed to the process ... " and should "...know where the money is and where it is going". Gardner's (cited in Hoff, 1999, p. 316) listed the following to be skills common to leaders today and in the past: physical vitality and stamina; intelligence and judgement-in-action; willingness and eagerness to accept responsibility; task competence; understanding of followers/constituents and their needs; skill in dealing with people; need to achieve; capacity to motivate; courage and resolution, steadiness; capacity to win and hold trust; capacity to manage, decide and set priorities; confidence; ascendance, dominance and assertiveness; adaptability and flexibility of approach. It is understandable that all leaders cannot possess nor demonstrate consistently all the skills listed above. However, Gardner (cited in Hoff, 1999, p. 316) lists the following five skills that can be regarded as critical: agreement building; networking; exercising non-jurisdictional power; institution building and flexibility.

Bennis (cited in Hoff, 1999, p. 316) lists ten personal and organisational characteristics that are critical when leaders need to cope with change; create continuous learning environments and forge a new future. These include that leaders should manage the dream; embrace error; encourage reflective backtalk; encourage dissent; possess the Noble Factor (have infinite optimism and sure that he or she could win the Nobel prize if he or she was a scientist); understand the

Pygmalion effect in management; have the Gretsky Factor (in addition to keep a thumb on the current pulse of the organisation, the leader senses where the culture is going to be and what must be done to remain viable); see the long view; understand stakeholder symmetry; and be able to create strategic alliances and partnerships.

Bennis (cited in Hoff, 1999, p. 317) found, in his study, four competencies that every leader displayed which included, the management of attention (the ability to draw others to them), the management of meaning (the ability to communicate their vision, to make their dream known to other and to align people with them), the management of trust (reliability and constancy that allow others to always know what the leaders stands for), and the management of self (knowing one's skills and deploying them effectively). Bolman and Deal (cited in Hoff, 1999, p. 318) stated that "... leaders must take a spiritual journey that begins with the self, in order to be effective leaders of others' souls."

Hoff (1999, p. 317) reiterates that the leaders and managers of higher education institutions in a transformational state must have the skills and flexibility to thrive within this volatile environment. Those who will be successful in a transformational environment have the following characteristics: they identify themselves as change agents with an intend to make a difference; are courageous but prudent risk takers; believe in people and are therefore sensitive to the needs and strengths of others and work toward empowerment; are value-driven, thus able to articulate a core set of values and role model the behaviour congruent to these values; are life long learners as they continue to learn from their mistakes; have the ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty and are therefore able to cope with and frame problems; and lastly are visionaries as they not only have dreams, but are able to share them so that others can understand (Tichy and Devanna, cited in Hoff, 1999, pp. 317-318).

From the characteristics listed, it is suggested that when gender equity is attained in management and leadership positions within higher education, it will require an optimal balance in these characteristics and qualities that would have a positive impact on both leadership and management in higher education.

2.7.5 Comparison of leadership styles of males and females

Management and leadership positions have been an enclosed men's only society for many years. Therefore, Middlehurst (1997, p. 13) is of the opinion that the concept leadership is entrenched with gender stereotypes and the leadership lingo portrays masculine connotations. This author also professes that common perceptions of the appropriate leadership behaviours hint towards masculinity and that this could have been the reason why females were kept out of these promotional positions. However, it seems that as women progress to these positions, they undergo a socialisation process whereby they become more masculine. Thereby, they receive more positive evaluations and are able to retain their positions. The profile of leadership at institutions echoes this notion as in 1999, only three of the 21 institutional leaders at universities were female and at technikons only one of the 15 was female. The profile with regard to the racial distribution was more equitable as 11 of the 21 institutional leaders at universities were black and 10 were white, whilst 9 of the 15 institutional leaders at technikons were black and 6 were white (CHET, 2000, p. 11).

These traditional masculine concepts of leadership however are soon to became outdated and this tendency seems to have been influenced by the parallel shift in the environment and operational context of organisations (Middlehurst, 1997, p.13). These changes have resulted in the shift in the approaches and attitudes to work in ways that are more responsive to the abilities and limitations of females.

Starratt (cited in Middlehurst, 1997, p.14) proclaims that in the post-modern world, leadership is grounded in the understanding of the feminine and masculine side of the human condition. As this study is aimed at gauging the perception of female academics on the management of transformation at an institution of higher education, it is necessary to focus on the difference in the leadership styles between males and females.

Effective leadership can be defined in terms of various perspectives. Booysen and Van Wyk (cited in Swanepoel et al., 2003, p. 343) describe an effective leader from a South African perspective, as "... an accepted person who displays a natural ability in a given situation to inspire others to willingly follow an ideal or vision; a person who

leads followers to believe in themselves, their own strengths, abilities and worth, who inspires followers to commitment, motivation and self-confidence; a person who is capable of paradigm shifts, who takes risks, is a facilitator of people and empowers people and who is perceived to be a trustworthy person with high morals." This distinctive description of an effective leader adds a South African flavour to the concept of leadership. Leadership can, however, also be thought of in terms of gender. When referring to management there is a perpetuated mindset to 'think manager, think male'. This is often the reinforced message to encourage women asserting themselves according to the characteristics of effective white male managers. Therefore, the notion "dress for success" is still used in South Africa (Swanepoel et al., 2003, p. 360).

According to Rossner (cited in Swanepoel et al., 2003, p. 360), the "second generation" of women in management demonstrates different styles and does not simply adopt the styles and habits proved to be successful by men. These women use the skills and attitudes that developed from their experiences as women. Their interactive leadership style is oriented towards consensus-building, is more transparent and inclusive with regard to power and information sharing, more likely to encourage participation and to boost the self-worth of others, motivating them, and tends to be more caring than their male counterparts. Robbins (cited in Swanepoel et al., 2003, p. 361) confirms this point and reaches two conclusions with regard to gender and leadership. Firstly, the similarities between men and women tend to outweigh the differences and, secondly, the differences suggest that men prefer a more directive style whereas women managers are more content with a democratic style. Table 3 illustrates the leadership styles that men and women tend to follow.

Table 3. Different Leadership Styles of Males and Females

Variables	Males	Females	
Operative style	Competitive	Cooperative	
Organisational structure	Vertical and hierarchical	Horizontal, network, egalitarian	
Objective	Winning	Quality	
Problem-solving approach	Rational and objective	Intuitive and subjective	
	- High control	- Low control	
	- Cling to power	- Power sharing/ empowerment	
Key characteristics	- Strategic	- Empathetic	
	- Unemotional	- Collaborative	
	- Analytical	- High performance	
Perceived power base	Organisational position and formal	Personal characteristics shared within a group	
	authority concentrated at the top		
Perspective on leadership	Social change in terms of	Follower-leader commitment relationship	
	transactions		

(Adapted from Swanepoel et al., 2003, p. 362)

It is necessary to stress that many men possess certain attributes that are mainly linked to the female model; therefore a probability of generalisations does exist. This model should be regarded as a synergistic model that enables people to work together in order to maximise their collective strengths and minimise their individual weaknesses (Smith & Smits, cited in Swanepoel et al., 2003, p. 361).

The American Council of Education established leadership development programmes to enhance a change in the cultural perception of women. According to Eggins (1997, p.132) the effects of these programmes were powerful as females gained a sense of worth and recognition of their own abilities by having access to leadership positions in higher education and to those who influence leaders. It also resulted in men developing renewed respect for female leadership and the awareness that there are more female leaders than they envisaged. The broader community found female leaders to be more suitable and accepted them as a '...more normal part of society'.

It is suggested that within the workplace and more specifically in institutions of higher education there is room for the leadership styles of both males and females. Females are seen to enhance cooperation and could fulfil the role of encouraging employees, they are network oriented and are quality driven and these are the skills required in building and transforming an institution.

The role and position of females in higher education specifically will be discussed in Chapter 3 which deals which females in academe and their perceptions.

2.8 Summary

This chapter provided an outline of transformation and the management and leadership issues thereof in the workplace as well as in the higher education sector. It also referred to the legislative framework and complex nature of higher education institutions that influence transformation in higher education. Thereafter, it stipulated the difference between management and leadership and highlighted the important issues with regard to management and leadership in the transformation of higher education. This chapter was concluded with the different leadership styles of men and women to accentuate the fact that when both genders occupy leadership positions, they could complement each other. These aspects were discussed in order to provide a theoretical perspective about the management of transformation in the higher education sector.

In the next chapter the position of females in academia will be discussed. A theoretical overview of how perceptions are formed will be provided, followed by discussion on the different perceptions held by females in the workplace and in particular, those held by females in the higher education sector of South Africa.

CHAPTER 3

FEMALES IN ACADEMIA AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the position of females in academia. It considers studies on the experiences and perceptions of female academics in the UK and New Zealand respectively, followed by a discussion of the position of female academics in South Africa. The chapter further endeavours to provide a theoretical framework of perceptions, how people perceive their environment and how perceptions influence behaviour. The perceptions of females in the workplace and in particular those of female academics in higher education in South Africa will also be discussed.

3.2 Females in Academia

In order to gauge the perceptions of female academics at a distance education institution of higher education, it is necessary to understand the background of females in academia in general, the perceptions and experiences of female academics and administrators in other countries as well as South Africa and the perceptions of females in the workplace in general. These aspects will therefore be explored in this section.

3.2.1 Background

According to Rendel (cited in Brooks, 1997, pp. 8 & 11) it is difficult to assess the historical position of female academics in the academy due to the lack of available statistical data. With regard to the involvement of females in academia, Rendel (cited in Brooks, 1997) noted that female academics lectured in law in Cordoba, Granada and Seville from approximately the eighth to the eleventh centuries. It was also recorded that females studied and graduated from Italian universities throughout the late Middle Ages, and some studied and taught in Bologna and other Italian universities as well as in Spanish, German and Dutch universities. A female

academic was first appointed in Britain in 1893 and to a chair in 1894. Rendel (cited in Brooks, 1997, pp. 8 & 11) also noted that the proportion of female academics in 1980 was practically the same as it was in the 1920s and with regard to female academics in senior positions, it was the same proportion as in the 1930s.

The focus of the works of Rendel (cited in Brooks, 1997) and Brooks (1997) was on female academics in Britain. From their evidence it is clear that in the period 1900-1950, the most significant struggle of females was to secure their access to education in order to gain access to middle-class occupations and professions, thus breaking into a wide range of disciplines in the academy.

According to Brooks (1997, p. 31) female academics in the United Kingdom occupied 23.3 % of the academic posts by 31 December 1991 and the percentage remains small in comparison to the percentage held by male academics. The total percentage of female academics in senior positions at universities in England and Wales was 9.0 %, thus indicating an imbalance in the proportions. Brooks (1997, p. 31) concluded that female academics continue to be poorly represented with regard to the method of employment (i.e. part-time rather than fulltime) and their rank of employment, however females are more representative than in the past.

A reflection on the history of females in the academia is vital as it opens the door to the future of the generations thereafter. In the words of Stiver Lie and O' Leary (1990, p. 17) female academics "...have the potential to play a critical role in shaping tomorrow's woman today". Stiver Lie and O' Leary (1990, p. 21) also note that the higher the position in the academic hierarchy, the fewer the females, regardless of the country. This finding stresses the continued marginalisation of female academics and it underlines the fact that the experiences of female academics are much more mutual than different at either individual or institutional level.

In trying to explain why female academics seem to evade the most senior positions in higher education, Powney (1997, p. 51) refers to Sutherland (cited in Powney, 1991, p. 51) who ascribes this trend to the fact that females are seldom visualised in positions of authority and refers to common attitudes that foster prejudice when the appointment of females in senior positions is contemplated. These include the following:

- Women seem incongruous in occupations where we are accustomed to seeing men;
- It is asserted that men would not work for a female boss;
- It is also argued that women also prefer to have a man rather than a woman in authority.

According to Powney (1997, p. 51) these arguments could also be applied to ethnic minorities as many white males and females might consider it unusual and even undesirable to have a member of a black ethnic group in a position of authority.

According to Stiver Lie and O' Leary (1990), literature often refers to networking and mentorship as solutions for the dilemma of female academics with regard to their feelings of isolation and the fact that they often feel that they do not integrated as well as males in various disciplines. It is, however, also recorded that females often do not, support and nurture other females in the workplace - the 'Queen Bee' phenomenon. Queen Bees are females who have achieved professional success but are anti-feministic in nature. They are individualistic by nature and often deny the reality that they have been discriminated against on the basis of their gender. As they occupy positions of power and have the ability to assist other females, they however refrain from offering their support. It is widely assumed that Queen Bees are not supportive because of insecurity and they feel that the success of other women could pose a challenge to their positions of power which they retain at the cost of other lower status women (Stiver Lie & O' Leary, 1990, p. 65).

In their study, Powney and Weiner (cited in Eggins, 1997, p. 58) were dismayed by the failure of policies and procedures to address the exploitation and patronage of females in management and leadership in higher education adequately. They therefore summarised the experiences of the individuals (interviewed in their study) who were either in the process of being promoted as educational managers or who held such a position as follows: "The most depressing message is that actions of discrimination and promotion of unequal opportunities are rife among the best educated people and most senior education institutions in the land. It is evident that complacency and bad practice abound ..." (Powney & Weiner, cited in Powney, 1997, p. 58).

According to Powney (1997, p. 52), a prevalent justification for the male prominence in managerial positions is that females hardly ever promote themselves. Therefore, the reasons for success provided by females who occupy senior management positions in education include:

- Personal drive and support;
- Being on an appropriate springboard for promotion; and
- Learning coping mechanisms to counter personal and institutional discrimination they encountered in their careers.

Powney (1997, p. 52) stated that all managerial aspirants should apply for positions rather than expect to be recognised as many women seem to do. Self-confidence was identified to be the key in becoming and remaining a manager. As sexism is still rife in the academe, Powney (1997) advocates that female academics, in their attempt to become effective managers, need to beware of sexism and cautions that they cannot do it by themselves without institutional policies and procedures to support them.

3.2.2 Female academics in the United Kingdom and New Zealand

The focus of the works of Rendel (cited in Brooks, 1997) and Brooks (1997) was on female academics in Britain. Brooks (1997, p. 59) accentuates the difficulty of generalising the experiences of females as if they were a coherent and unified whole. The experiences of female academics are diverse as they reflect issues such as age, nationality, class, race, ethnicity, parenthood and academic position. In her study,

Brooks (1997) found that the lack of female academics sharing their experiences on common issues such as sexism in the academia is a concern among female academics who participated in Brooks' study. It was also evident that female academics were aware of their under-representation in positions of leadership in higher education and ascribed it to a combination of power, patronage and prejudice which resulted in the advancement of white academic males (Brooks, 1997, p. 59). With regard to promotions, a large percentage (76%) of female academics in Brooks' study regarded themselves to have access to promotion. The academic position held by the respondents seems to have impacted how promotion was regarded. The academic position also influenced the perception of female academics on career

structure and appraisal and was also related to whether the positions were permanent or contractual. The productivity and therefore the promotion of female academics are directly linked to their workload and the number and range of responsibilities they hold. In many instances these additional responsibilities do not enhance their career prospects but instead consume their time and energy which could be employed to generate research and publish. Examples of such activities are committee membership in order to fulfil the demand for equitable representation as there are often not enough female academics to serve on committees. However, this does not include women's representation on decision-making bodies where female academics still remain under-represented. Discrimination against female academics is still prevalent and is often regarded as a result of applying masculine standards, priorities and practices (Brooks, 1997, pp. 59-60).

Age, nationality, ethnicity, parenting (caregiving) and feminism were significant factors influencing perceptions and experiences of female academics. The concealed nature of discriminatory behaviour of their male colleagues makes female academics often reluctant to designate these behaviours. Brooks (1997) however found that 58% of the respondents were aware of sexual harassment issues in their institutions. Various institutions in the study of Brooks (1997) recognised the need to implement policies and procedures to enable the monitoring of sexual harassment and discrimination in general.

Mentorship and role modelling for female academics seem to be complicated by the relatively low number of females in academia who can fulfil this role. This is further challenged by the subjectivity of female academics as different opinions emerged from female academics who related their own experiences of mentorship and role modelling (Brooks, 1997, pp. 59-60).

In general, female academics seem to be united in their support for equal opportunity policies within academia, but they are, however, concerned about gaps between policy and practice. Many of the respondents in Brooks' study feared that the existence of equal opportunity policies could disguise unfair and discriminatory practices and in the absence of accompanying practices may simply be a "... public relations exercise..." (Brooks, 1997, pp. 59-60).

Promotion, childcare facilities and costs, as well as maternity and pregnancy issues were identified as the issues that are the most significant with regard to equal opportunities for female academics. However, with regard to the effectiveness and impact of equal opportunity policies, female academics regarded issues of seniority, workload and opportunities for promotion to be the most significant factors. According to Brooks (1997, p. 61), there seems to be a discrepancy with regard to the perception of how female academics view equal opportunities policy in academia and their knowledge of and involvement with equal opportunities procedures. Brooks (1997) ascribed this to the recent implementation of equal opportunities policy and procedures. Female academics seemed to be disillusioned with the operation of equal opportunities policy (Brooks, 1997, pp. 59-61).

Brooks (1997, p. 62) also investigated the 'discourses' of academia in New Zealand. The author states that "... while there can be no direct comparison between New Zealand and the UK, the New Zealand findings do parallel some of the findings from the UK and noted that although the statistical profile of New Zealand was limited and clear parallels were drawn, issues emerged that related specifically to the academic community in New Zealand."

Earlier studies revealed that female academics in New Zealand are much older than their male counterparts when they are first appointed at academic institutions (Lodge; & Morris-Matthews, cited in Brooks, 1997, p. 84). Morris-Matthews (cited in Brooks, 1997) found that 19 % of the female academics whom she surveyed were first appointed after the age of 40. The age of appointment ultimately affects the level of seniority which can be achieved in higher education and therefore those who are appointed at a younger age will attain more senior positions than those who were appointed later in their life.

Brooks (1997, p. 84) noted that this age pattern in the appointment of females in academia is not enhanced by a more supportive academic culture within the academy of New Zealand. Female academics in New Zealand seem to be disadvantaged in terms of academic status, promotion, tenure, publications and with regard to a range of discriminatory practices. They also seem to be alienated by the male domination in the academy as they indicated that "... they found the 'constant sexism' exhausting on top of the heavy teaching loads and student demands." At the

prospect that the universities might change, the female academic respondents were pessimistic (Brooks, 1997, p. 84).

The factors which are considered to hamper the advancement of female academics in New Zealand seem to be underpinned by the structure of career paths, the emphasis on the traditional definitions of productivity and the prioritisation of publications above other criteria for promotion. Wilson (cited in Brooks, 1997, p. 84) concluded that although some areas with regard to structural discrimination can be resolved when universities adopt equal opportunity programmes, the problem pertaining to the undemocratic and hierarchical manner of the decision-making processes of these universities still prevails. "To remedy this would require a structural change independent of any equal opportunities programme". However, the challenge lies in monitoring and changing attitudes, prejudices and behaviour (Wilson, cited in Brooks, 1997, p. 84).

3.2.3 Female academics in South Africa

The aim of this section is to provide an overview of the position of female academics in South Africa.

Females are under-represented in senior positions and over-represented in the lower positions in South African higher education institutions. According to Phaala (2000, p. 5), women in the higher education sector in South Africa are still regarded as '... sex objects ...' even though the Constitution of South Africa is regarded as the best in the world. To an extent this is supported by Mbabane (2001), who revealed in his study on employment equity plans that the traditional "occupational crowding" syndrome is still evident in the higher education sector as females dominate (70%) the level of clerk. Gender stereotyping is therefore still prevalent as illustrated by Mbabane (2001) who found evidence of 30 % decline in female representation in the grades/level below clerk. These levels are traditionally associated with males as they entail manual and physical labour (male stereotyping).

It seems as if leadership positions evade the majority female academics as only a few females succeeded in occupying these positions of power and authority. Phaala (2000, p. 6) reflected on the institution she was associated with at the time of her

investigation, where the females in leadership positions constituted only 5 % of a staff complement of 1 100. Phaala (2000) stated that black females in South African institutions seem to be worse off as their representivity leaves much to be desired. This situation is, however, not unique to South Africa. Powney and Weiner (cited in Powney, 1997, p. 50) quoted a black female academic in the US who explained her inability to engage in standard management practices: "... University management structures are highly middle class, white and male dominated... [I find myself] as a black working class woman outside of the norm of being acceptable on three counts: class, race and gender." Black female academics in South Africa seem to share these sentiments as many are from a disadvantaged background and encounter discrimination in all three of the areas: class, race and gender.

Phaala (2000, p. 6) remarks that the staff composition of higher education institutions in South Africa fails to reflect the demographics of the South African society as the university staff profile was still predominantly (65 %) white in 1993. This was also confirmed by Mbabane (2001) who refers to the fact that the diversity of the staff especially on the professional and most senior levels at the historically Afrikaans and English universities does not correspond to the rapid increase in numbers of black students (54 % and 59 % respectively) at these institutions. In her study, Phaala (2000, p. 7) focussed on South African universities and technikons with the exception of colleges.

Phaala (2000, p. 7) referred data in a report of the Gender Equity Task Team, which shows that from 1992 in ten Historically Black Universities (HBUs) females comprised 32 % of the total staff of the 10 HBUs; males comprised 68%. African, Coloured and Indian females comprised 48 % of the total for female staff at the 10 HBUs; white females comprised 52 %. African, Coloured and Indian males also comprised 48 % of the total component of males; white males comprised 51 % of the total staff component of males. However, African, Coloured and Indian females comprised 15 % of the total staff component, whilst African, Coloured and Indian males comprised 33 % of the total staff component of the ten HBUs.

The proportion of white academic staff in permanent positions declined with 7 %, i.e. from 87 % to 80 %, in the period 1993-1998, while the proportion of black staff increased from 13 % to 20 %. The statistics of technikons revealed that the

proportion of white academic staff declined with 4 % in the period 1993-1998 and while the proportion of black staff increased from 12 % to 29 %. Thus, an increase of 17 % was observed (Phaala, 2000, p. 7). Although, the author failed to define 'black staff' in her study, it is acceptable to include African, Coloured and Indian people as defined within the boundaries of employment equity legislation in South Africa.

Table 4 represents the percentage of black academic and executive staff as depicted in 1999 and it includes permanent as well as temporary appointments.

Table 4. Black Staff as a Percentage of Full-time Staff: 1999

	Academic Staff	Executive/support professionals
Historically white (Afrikaans) universities	5%	6%
Historically white (English) universities	21%	27%
Historically black universities	60%	65%
Historically white technikons	11%	17%
Historically black technikons	67%	79%
Unisa and Technikon SA	17%	35%

(Report compiled by the Education policy Unit at UWC, cited in Phaala, 2000, p. 8)

Table 5 represents the percentage of female academic and executive staff as depicted in 1999 and it includes permanent as well as temporary appointments. These figures show that the lowest appointment rate for female academic personnel in 1999 was at historically white universities and the lowest appointment rate for females in executive or support professional positions in 1999 was at historically black technikons.

Table 5. Female Staff as a Percentage of Full-time Staff: 1999

	Academic Staff	Executive/support professionals
Historically white (Afrikaans) universities	35%	44%
Historically white (English) universities	34%	57%
Historically black universities	38%	40%
Historically white technikons	38%	37%
Historically black technikons	38%	29%
Unisa and Technikon SA	48%	51%

(Report compiled by the Education policy Unit at UWC cited in Phaala, 2000, p. 8)

According to Phaala (2000, p. 8), the black and female appointments show a remarkable decline at the senior levels when these statistics are broken down into levels of appointment. Mbabane (2001) also notes the same tendencies in his study of the employment equity plans of higher education institutions. His findings reflect that whites occupy 60 % of the most senior levels across the sectors with white males occupying 86.7 % of the senior positions whilst white females occupy 13.32 %. Furthermore, whites occupied 62.6 % of the positions described as professional level and white males comprised of 74 % of these positions. Blacks seem to occupy approximately 40 % of the positions in higher education sector and 37.4 % of the professional level.

Phaala (2000) further states that the total staff component for the ten HBUs consists of approximately 3 046 full-time academics. The ratio of female academics to male academics is 972: 2 074 (when simplified 32:68), indicating that female academics at these institutions constituted a third of the academic staff whilst male academics constituted two-thirds. Mbabane (2001) in his study recorded that females represented 22 % at the most senior levels and 40 % at the level of "professional and other related". He further revealed that within the gender domain, racial discrimination is also apparent as a further breakdown of gender into black and white racial groups reveal that black females represents 8 % of the most senior categories and white females represents 14 %. The racial difference is more prominent at the second most senior level (Professionals) where black females represent 13.6 % and white females constitute 26 % of this category. The total percentage of females in

positions below the level of clerk is 30 %; however, 25.2 % is occupied by black females.

In her paper Phaala (2000) notes statistics with regard to HWUs in 1992, which reveal the realities of employment in higher education in South Africa with regard to race and gender. The report compiled by the Gender Equity Task Team refers to this evidence "... There are striking gender imbalances relating to the employment figures." The racial and gender aspects seem to reflect real social conditions and declare the unevenness in the distribution of employment in these individual institutions (report compiled by the Gender Equity Task Team, cited in Phaala, 2000, p. 9). Mbabane (2001) also maintains that in HWUs the average percentage of white females increases significantly when compared to black females. The study revealed that white females occupy 25 % of the most senior levels at the historically English universities whilst black females occupy 5.7 %. In historically Afrikaans universities white females are 20.1 % represented and black females 7.23 %. Black female representation in senior positions is overtly low at HWUs with 0.32 % representation at historically white Afrikaans universities and 6 % representation at historically white English universities. According to Mbabane (2001), black females are better represented at senior levels of historically black institutions. The highest representation percentage of black females are found at historically black technikons (13.7 %) followed by historically black universities (9.8 %). At historically black universities black females represent 9.8 % and white females 3.98 %. Similar racial patterns are detected at the historically black technikons where black females constitute 13 % of the most senior levels and white females constitute 6.4 %.

The higher education sector in South Africa therefore still seems to be generally under-represented with regard to race, gender and disability and Mbabane (2001) maintains that these profiles are still linked to the apartheid era. Some historically white technikons have made a special effort to redress their past racial imbalances with regard to only the most senior levels. However, Mbabane (2001, p.7) cautions that this effort is not reflected at all levels and might give rise to suspicions of 'tokenism' or window dressing at top level as the majority of the staff complement still remains white. He therefore stresses that representivity should be implemented at all levels and requires proper management.

The senior levels of historically black universities and technikons seem racially representative and the gender representivity at senior levels of technikons are more convincing than at universities. Mbabane (2001) also points out that, according to the CHE annual report of 1998/1999, female students represented 52 % of the total student population and the overall percentage of females who occupied professional and senior levels was 40 %.

The under-representation of disabled people in the higher education sector should be addressed as a matter of urgency as the representation of this group was 0.88 % according to Mbabane (2001).

Mbabane (2001) also expresses concern with the regard to the role of leadership and management in the higher education sector as 14 % of the higher education institutions did not submit employment equity plans. This raises concerns with regard to the commitment of the management of these institutions to transformation and equity. The Employment Equity Act of 1998 enforces the submission of equity plans and failure to comply is therefore a violation of the law. According to Mbabane (2001), only 62 % of the employment equity plans were signed by the Vice-Chancellors. Mbabane (2001) maintains that apart from the fact that it is a violation of section 21 (4), it also signifies the level of commitment and involvement of these vice chancellors to the employment equity process in the higher education sector. Furthermore, this could be interpreted as a failure of the leadership of these institutions to attain and manage diversity and equity and it subsequently shows their inability to take responsibility for the challenges of the new South Africa. Mbabane (2001, p. 9) noted that equity is "... not a problem for the Department of Labour to solve but it is the responsibility of all the stakeholders in higher education sector".

In order to level the playing field for females in higher education, Riordan, Simonis and Shackleton (2003, pp. 4-6) describe the potential contribution of the Higher Education Resources Service in South Africa (HERS-SA) towards gender equity in South African higher education institutions. HERS-SA is an institution based in the Western Cape. HERS was founded in the US more than 30 years ago and has pioneered models of leadership development and endeavours to meet the professional developmental needs of females employed in colleges and universities. HERS-SA was established in 2003 and their approach is based on the following

principles: they concentrate on females only; participants nominate themselves; their approach is holistic; confidentiality is ensured; it is available to all females regardless of age, position, tenure, race, language, sexual orientation, physical disability or any other discriminating criteria; facilitators are females with higher education experience who are currently employed in higher education institutions, who share their knowledge and skills; role models are often included as facilitators or guest speakers; participants take ownership of the content and are encouraged to contribute their own examples and issues for discussion; workshops endeavour to be practical and participative; the case studies and exercises are drawn from real experiences; and it provides a platform for networking which is regarded as a critical element in professional development (Riordan, et al., 2003).

3.2.4 Female administrators in higher education

Although Teferra and Altbach (2004, p. 30) state that non-academic/administrative staff in African higher education institutions outnumbers the academic staff, it seems as if studies on female administrators in higher education is a topic which still lacks research, as the researcher found literature on this topic very limited.

Teferra and Altbach (2004, p. 30) note in their study that the administrative bureaucracy in African universities is disproportionately large. They accuse the administrative structures to be inefficient, ineffective and outdated. One of the reasons that they put forward is that the number of non-academic personnel and the proportion of resources allocated to this sector are disproportionate and they point out that "... the quality and performance of the administrative cadre leaves much to be desired" (Teferra & Altbach, 2004, pp. 30-31).

A woman both experienced as a university lecturer in a temporary position and a polytechnic administrator in a permanent position stated that she was accredited higher social status by her colleagues for her experience as ex-lecturer than as a polytechnic administrator. She then became aware of professional sexism as it was assumed that if one is female in polytechnic administration, one does not have a degree (Spurling, 1997, pp. 44-45). Within the South African context, women in higher education are often associated with female clerks as mentioned earlier with regard to gender stereotyping. This is supported by Zulu (2003, pp. 100-102) who

found that women in administration would rather be promoted to positions such as librarians than vice-chancellors.

Zulu (2003, pp. 100-2) refers to a telephonic survey of all South African universities done between March 2000 and May 2002. The outcome of the survey was a gender representation pattern of females within three different categories of administrative positions (Category A = Officers of the university; Category B = Deans of faculties/schools and Category C = Senior administrative officials). In this study it was found that the majority of the females were concentrated in positions with limited power and which are associated with less mobility, for example, student affairs, student fees, payroll, public relations, etc. It further revealed that women are underrepresented in senior academics positions such as deans, vice-chancellors and registrars. Ramsay (cited in Zulu, 2003, p. 100) notes that women in administration positions are more likely to advance to positions such as registrars, librarians or heads of personnel than to positions such as vice-chancellors, directors of finance or even deans of faculties. The survey showed that the number of females in top administrative positions (Category A) improved between 2000 and 2002. However, the highest number attained was in category C (120) which is at the bottom end of the administrative hierarchy. Category B has improved with only one female dean appointed in 2001. It further revealed that 13.2 % of the available senior and top positions were occupied by females between 2000 and 2002, i.e. only 217 out of 1 647 senior positions.

Thus, sufficient female representation still evades the highest administration structures in many institutions of higher education in South Africa (Zulu, 2003, p. 102). However, this overview of the position of females in academia showed that this under-representation of females does not only exist in South Africa but also in the UK and New Zealand.

In order to gauge the perceptions of female academics it is vital to discuss how perceptions are formulated and influenced. Therefore, the aim of the next section is to define the term perception, to describe the perceptual process and illustrate the factors that might influence a person's perception.

3.3 Perceptions

Perceptions help individuals to recognise things and scenes in their environment, to interpret this information and to extract meaningful and useful representations of their world from it. However, perceptions cannot take place without sensation (Ungerer, 1999, p. 116). Perceptions therefore, involve the process by which an individual selects, organises and interprets sensory stimuli such as to see, hear and touch, into meaningful information about his/her surroundings. It thus impacts behaviour through ideas and attitudes (Callahan, Fleenor & Knudson, 1986, p. 59). It can, therefore, be inferred that the perceptions of female academics, direct their ideas and attitudes and result in their behaviour. As people 'see' things differently, it can be assumed that perceptions differ. This could therefore influence people's behaviour at work, as different people respond differently to similar stimuli in the workplace. According to Swanepoel et al. (2003, p. 18), a perception is regarded a subjective and complex concept as it involves the intricacies in cognitive processes as well as the interrelationships between perception and other individually based variables such as differences in needs, emotions and previous experiences and situational factors.

In order to understand why people perceive things differently, it is important to understand what the perceptual process entails.

3.3.1 The perceptual process

It is important to understand the influence that perceptions have on an individual's relations with others. Perceptions influence behaviour through thoughts and attitudes. Flaws in the ability to sense accurate information, to select appropriate data and to correctly organise the information may therefore, might lead to misconceptions about people. These misperceptions could result in conflicts and tensions between individuals, units, stakeholders or departments and affect an organisation's performance (Callahan et al., 1986, p. 59). Figure 2 illustrates the perceptual process and indicates the three processes that could influence behaviour. These three processes involve perceptual selection, perceptual organisation and perceptual interpretation.

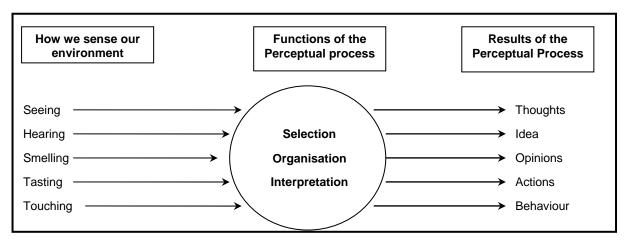


Figure 2. The Perceptual Process

(Callahan, Fleenor & Knudson, 1986, p. 60)

A great deal of the information in your surrounding is not perceived, therefore perception selection can be defined as the process by which you choose to pay attention to some things and to ignore or avoid others. Perceptual selection is therefore the filtering out of information that the individual do not want to be consciously aware of and it is influenced by his/her needs, expectations, attitudes, values and personality (Callahan et al., 1986, pp. 59-63).

Perceptual organisation refers to the fact that everyone has to try to organise a sensible and coherent world out of surroundings that may not make sense. It is the process by which individuals group the surrounding stimuli into recognisable patterns. The different methods of organising perceptions are figure-ground which is tendency to perceive any scene as consisting of objects and the space between them as background. Perceptual grouping is the tendency to group together isolated stimuli on the basis of proximity, similarity, closure and continuity (Callahan et al., 1986, pp. 59-63).

Perceptual interpretation is the way things are interpreted which depends on its surrounding or the context in which it appears. The context in which information appears influences what you think you see or hear. For example, the same message may be given to employees by the vice-chancellor and by one of the institution's union chairpersons. If the employees were to interpret the message, you would get two different interpretations. The interpretation of perceptions is also greatly affected by personal traits of the individual, such as values, attitudes, motives, past experiences, expectations and personality (Callahan et al., 1986, pp. 59-63).

3.3.2 Factors that influence perceptions

Various factors in the perceiver, perceived objects and the situation may shape and sometimes distort perceptions. These factors are illustrated by Figure 3.

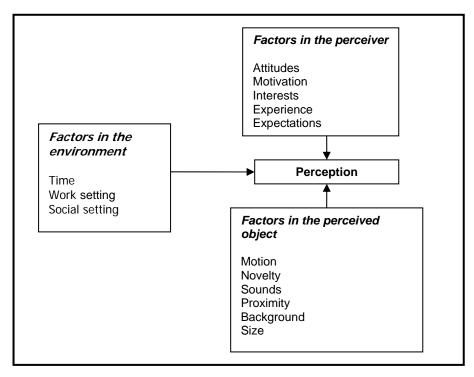


Figure 3. Factors that Influence Perception

(Adapted from Robbins, 1993 in Ungerer, 1999, p. 128)

According to Ungerer (1999, p. 127), the cliché, "Beauty is in the eye of the beholder" implies that perception is subjective. Subjective factors would include attitudes, motives, interests, prejudices, preferences, past experiences and expectations. Therefore, subjective perceptions change as social and cultural factors change.

The characteristics in the object being observed can influence what is perceived. Noisy people are more likely to be noticed in a group than quiet ones. Motion, sounds, size and other attributes of objects influence the way individuals see them. "Judgement errors in decisions to select one applicant and not the other may result from such subjective attributions of the perceiver to the perceived (Ungerer, 1999, p. 128)".

Perceptions as well as human behaviour can seldom be interpreted without considering the context in which they occur. The time at which an object or incident

is observed can affect attention and therefore perception, as well as situational factors in the work situation (Ungerer, 1999, p. 128).

3.3.3 Interpersonal perceptions

As people interact with each other, they engage in personal perception where they form an impression of the person with whom they interact. The process of forming impressions of people is the basis for further social interaction. The initial impression forms the basis for organising further information and often serves as the foundation on which a lasting impression is built (Ungerer, 1999, pp. 129-132; Callahan et al., 1986, pp. 63-67).

Impression formation is therefore a very important aspect in people's relationships with others as they regularly form opinions of each other and respond to these opinions. However, people tend to apply a number of shortcuts when judging others.

- Stereotyping takes place when an impression of a person is based upon his or her belonging to a particular group. It is often based on race, age, gender, ethnic or occupational groups, social class, etc. It saves time and effort to understand people individually, but generalises and integrates a great volume of information and leads to broad overgeneralisation that ignores the diversity within social groups. It could thus result in inaccurate perceptions of people and hold implications for the level of confidence.
- Selective perception refers to the fact that what people attend to and what they
 perceive are often partly determined by our current needs and past experiences.
 This has a major impact on the communication and decision-making processes.
 People see what they want to see and screen out other information. This could
 therefore lead to the fact that they draw unwarranted conclusions from an
 ambiguous situation.
- The halo effect is when the impression of a person is founded on one area or characteristic and this influence judgement about that person in other areas.
 Within organisations halo effects have an important impact on performance evaluations.
- Schema takes place when individuals tend to categorise one another according to a generalised idea about a frequently encountered object, event or person. This might therefore influence the confidence that you have in that person.

- Emotional state, i.e. whether people are positive or negative, will influence their view of what is happening around them. The emotional state of a female academic influences her to sense, select and organise information in harmony with her state of mind.
- Negative bias occurs when a person tends to judge or expect good people to be repeatedly good and bad people to be sometimes bad and sometimes good.
- Primacy effect takes place when early information is considered to be more important than later information.
- Effects of physical appearance occur when the judgement of people's personalities is based on their appearance, especially their physical attractiveness.
- Projection happens when a person attribute his or her own characteristics to other people.
- The in-group and out-group dynamic refers to the inclination to see people differently, depending on whether they are members of our in-group (the group that we belong to) or not.
 - Set expectations are when our expectation about a person or situation could also influence bias in perception. These expectations are derived from our experiences and therefore each individual's set expectations about a situation or a person may be different (Ungerer, 1999, pp. 129-132; Callahan et al., 1986, pp. 63-67).

When the perceptions of female academics are investigated it is essential to consider the factors that might influence the way they see, hear and touch things and also take into account their needs, emotions, experiences, background and situational factors.

In the next section the perceptions of women in the general workplace are explored. It is necessary to explore the perceptions of women in the workplace in South Africa as it will serve as a point of departure and comparison for the perceptions of female academics in higher education.

3.4 Perceptions of Females in the Workplace

Before analysing the perceptions of female academics at a distance education institution of higher education, it is necessary to investigate the perceptions of females are with regard to the general workplace. Therefore, the following discussion sets out the perceptions with regard to: management and leadership; policies and procedures and diversity and equity.

3.4.1 Perceptions with regard to management and leadership

According to Senior (2003, p. 6), a stereotypical leadership style of females is characterised by nurturing interpersonal relationships, whilst men are more geared towards relationships that are instrumental, task-oriented and autocratic. Therefore, the leadership style of female leaders is based on personal respect, mutual trust, regard for the contribution that each team member can bring and the development of individual talent. A survey by a French business magazine (Kelly, 2003, p. 22) supports this view as it revealed that females seem to be transformational leaders as they inspire their employees by transforming the self-interest of their staff members into organisational goals. While men most often verbally oppose employees, females would more readily offer their support to employees. To reiterate the contribution of females in management and leadership Kelly (2003, p. 22) also referred to a Sydney based consultancy group that proved women were better bosses as they seemed to be more competent at soliciting new and better ways to get things done. Females in leadership and management positions also seem to inspire employees to achieve higher goals and are more open to unpleasant facts. They are also regarded as major contributors of soft-skills to organisations and it seems as if the corporate world is increasingly appreciative of these skills (Kelly, 2003, p. 22).

A study done by the Hay Group (2005) also found that the most successful female managers are those who are able to combine both manly and womanly leadership styles. These female managers appropriately apply directive, authoritative styles and set the example (styles generally accepted as masculine) exactly when required. At the same time, they know exactly when to lead through nurturing and building relationships (The Hay Group, 2005).

A study by Booysen (2000, p. 23) on challenges facing black and white female managers in South Africa showed that females in South Africa are still far behind their counterparts in the US. As more and more females join the labour force and with the concurrent political, economical and social efforts to advance gender equity in the workplace, more females occupy positions of leadership in South Africa. However, there is an immense difference in the representation between white and black females in management positions in South Africa. Booysen (2000, p. 24) found that females only occupied 17% of senior management positions and of that 17% females 59% were white, 35% black, 3% coloured and 3% Indian. She also reiterated the observation that black females face a dual challenge – being a female and being black.

Booysen (2000, p. 24) further notes that the females who first enter the level of senior management had to conform to the "... dominant male corporate culture..." and in doing that, they had to reject their feminine values and cultures. But they could not dare to go too far in adopting these behaviours as they would pose a threat to the position of their male counterparts. Booysen (2000, p. 24) continues to say that African females in her study seemed to have compromised their own cultural identity as they had to operate in a white world and subscribe to the norms, values and behaviours of the business culture which is both white and male oriented. This has contributed to the fact that females and especially black females in management positions perceive themselves to be alienated and marginalised.

Molefi (2005, p. 5) argues that the principles of African leadership have always recognised and acknowledged the valuable the role of females in the socio-economic development of the continent, for example, their co-dependence, inclusivity and ubuntu. Molefi (2005) further proclaims that "... the key to developing the economy of our continent is through the development of females". According to Molefi (2005), the females of Africa have long-established their survival skills in various ways, even though they were historically (in Colonial Africa) excluded from the mainstream economy. This is manifested in the fact that many females had to provide for their families without the immediate support of their spouses, who normally worked far from their homes, i.e. the migrant labour system. Against this background it should be reiterated that African women add incredible value to and have a legitimate role to play within the workplace. Under apartheid, African females assumed various roles

in maintaining their families, for example, they acted as breadwinner, child minder, community leader, etc. These roles demanded women to engage in negotiations, conflict resolution, priority setting and budgeting, the same qualities that established their ability to be able to lead.

3.4.2 Perceptions with regard to policies and procedures

In a study to determine the status of females in information technology (IT), Stander (2002) revealed that only 19 percent of the IT executives were female. The majority of women in IT were unhappy in their job as discrimination seems to be very dominant in this working environment. This is attributed to the fact that 73 percent of the females complained of discrimination across the board; although divorced women and contract/temporary staff reported a slightly higher percentage of discrimination. Another complaint was that salaries of females were unequal to that of their male counterparts. It was also established in this study that women believe that their male counterparts sacrifice to the same extent for purposes of career advancement. The researchers in the study of Stander (2002) were concerned about the low number of black respondents, as a mere 19% of the respondents were non-whites. Less than 10 percent of the respondents fell into the age group of older than 45. Females were also seen to be under-represented in senior positions as the management positions seem to be male-dominated. However, the females who should have advanced to leadership positions left the industry and females in contract and or part-time positions perceived themselves to be exploited. This study further revealed that females regard themselves to have less opportunity for career advancement and/or promotion. Females in the IT environment pleaded for flexitime as they complained that they had fewer opportunities for self-development and training as they were most often overloaded with work. They also sought opportunities to work from home and called for respect for their technical abilities (Stander, 2002).

3.4.3 Perceptions with regard to employment equity

The study of Van Zyl and Roodt (2003, p. 19) assessed whether gender groups have different perceptions with regard to employment equity practices and revealed that females in various organisations, including higher education, across industries in South Africa seem to experience employment equity practices more positively than

males. The study upheld the perception that employment equity with regard to females in decision-making positions is yet to be accomplished.

3.5 Perceptions of Female Academics in Higher Education

In his study, Zulu (2003, p. 98) states that the gender equality is regarded as one of the main concerns in higher education during transformation within South Africa. However, gender equality in higher education has not only become a main reason for transformation, in South Africa but also globally. Yet, Higgs, Higgs and Wolhuter (2004) note that research on gender issues has taken a low profile on the agenda of the higher education academic profession in South Africa. This is evident from the few references available on gender equality in academia within the South Africa context, as most of these studies focus on crude indicators such as comparing the number of scientific articles produced by males and females (Higgs et al., 2004, p. 274).

Petersen and Gravett (2000, p. 171) found that female academics seem to have ambivalent feelings about academia. Although negative feelings amongst their respondents were still overwhelmingly predominant, female academics seemed to acknowledge that the environment had improved.

The next sections will therefore explore the perceptions of female academics in the higher education sector in South Africa with regard to dimensions identified for the purposes of this study. These dimensions include leadership and management; policies and procedures; diversity and equity and transformation; and change in higher education.

3.5.1 Perceptions of female academics with regard to leadership and management

The numerical under-representation of female academics in senior positions restrains the decision-making power of females in academia (Perumal, 2003, p. 77). This notion is supported by Zulu (2003, p. 98) who notes that "... gender inequalities have persistently dogged higher education in areas of management ... as well as faculty members... the challenge for higher education is to narrow the gender gap".

Transformation will only be completed if that goal is achieved. According to Zulu (2003, p. 99), the under-representation of females in positions of management and leadership can be ascribed to socialisation patterns since early childhood. These values and attributes are instilled in little girls and boys and they assume these roles and characteristics which are perceived as appropriate for a particular gender. Thus, we can refer to gender-stereotyping. Although there is evidence of a change in these roles, women still face a conflict in the workplace between their roles as wife, mother, homemaker and as career woman and/or leader.

Evidently, female academics perceive the higher education environment as patriarchal, i.e. male-dominated and often find that they are excluded from the "old boy's network". This informal web of networking is often where information sharing takes place and Zulu (2003, p. 99) considers the opportunity to network and to be mentored as critical for female academics seeking to be promoted to leadership positions. Petersen and Gravett (2000, p. 171) also noted that female academics perceived the academic world as a "boetie, boetie wêreld" (translated: a man's world).

Females feel pressurised to constantly prove themselves in order to be promoted to leadership positions. They feel as if they are under constant scrutiny to perform whilst their male counterparts do not experience the same pressure (Cose, cited in Mabokela, 2002, p. 197). In addition, female academics occupying senior positions are of the opinion that there is a lack of confidence in women's abilities and they find it disturbing that even other females do not have confidence in their abilities. However, the few female academics who transpire to top managerial positions perceive themselves to be isolated, overextended and under constant assessment. The perceived reason for this view is that there are only a few female academics in these positions, they tend to be on every committee and therefore end up overextended (Mabokela, 2002, p. 200).

The above notion could be linked to the perception that some female academics believe that their attempts to restore their self-concept are hampered and instead, they find that their voice draws attention to the backlash that is likely to occur. This adds to the perception of feminists that other female colleagues resent their outspokenness and independent mindset, and therefore undermine them in

allegiance with dominant males in order to gain the favour of the males. Perumal (2003) states that implicit in such resentment is the condemnation of females who challenge their patriarchally prescribed role as submissive, unassuming, silent and obedient females (Perumal, 2003, p. 77).

According to Perumal (2003, p. 77), academic institutions are still regarded as "notoriously conservative" as the majority of full professorship positions are still being occupied by men whilst females are entrenched in middle-management positions where prospects for advancement is poor. "Male deafness" therefore still prevails in higher education institutions, where a deaf ear is turned on the contributions made by females in meetings or their input is shouted down, but when the same point is raised by a male colleague, it is noted. As it is primarily at this level that policy-making decisions occur, the under-representation of females at this level limits their decision-making powers. Perumal (2003, p. 77) therefore regards this phenomenon an "infringement on the right to freedom of speech" of female academics.

There is also the perception that female academics who take up senior positions in institutions of higher education seem to emulate men. According to Mabokela (2002, p. 200), female academics seem to applaud females who take up these positions and maintain their femininity.

Potgieter (2002, p. 14) reveals that poor institutional leadership or management is one of the main reasons why black academics leave institutions of higher education. According to Potgieter's study (2002), the perceptions are activated by two primary discourses: the first discourse is associated with the recognition of institutional racism and a political discourse that focuses on transformation. The second could be linked to the conflicting views about the core functions, professionalism and responsiveness of institutions in the contemporary context.

Female academics perceive the fact that they occupy lower levels as a limitation. They perceive themselves to be overloaded with teaching and student consulting and are therefore not enough exposed to or involved in research activities. They find supervising students to be challenging. This subsequently impacts their research outputs, which in turn withholds them from being promoted to senior positions (Makobela, 2002). Zulu (2003, p. 101) supports this and reports that the majority of

females are concentrated in positions that hold "... less power and are associated with less mobility, such as student affairs, student fees, payroll, public relations, etc..."

Higgs et al. (2004) also reiterate that female academics remain under-represented on decision-making committees and positions of top management in the academic administration. The under-representation is attributed to the perception that females are not assertive enough and are too emotional (Phaala, 2000).

According to Phaala (2000), female academics in higher education are still perceived as "sex objects" even though South Africa has the best constitutions in the world; and stated that females are often forced to pay in kind in order to advance in this sector. Females are expected to play certain roles and/or to commodify their bodies by dressing and presenting themselves in certain male-determined ways. This perception was supported by Perumal (2003, p.77) as a female testified that she felt that she was typecast by the expectations of her colleagues in many subtle ways and often felt constrained by these.

3.5.2 Perceptions of female academics with regard to policies and procedures

Female academics are positive about the fact that more women have joined and are still joining the academic profession, the insistence on the part of women in academia to be treated equally with male counterparts in employment conditions and the policies legislated by the ANC government. In their study Petersen and Gravett (2000, p. 169) referred to some pertinent structural and organisational constraints mentioned, which include the following perceptions: the limited size of the recruitment pool of female academics which has serious implications for their appointments; cultural restraints which play a role in the impediment of progress of female academics; the uneven distribution of male and female academics according to rank with poor representation of females at the higher levels of the academic ladder and females mostly at the lowest level associated with the heaviest workloads. Therefore, female academics seem to regard themselves as having second-class citizenship status (Perumal, 2003; Petersen & Gravett, 2000). Female academics perceive themselves to be "preoccupied with donkey work" which often has to be

done with no prospect of extra compensation but is the result of the unequal and unfair distribution of time and money resources within academia. Even though many female academics perceive their roles and tasks to be complicated by the double workload, many have to endure as they felt the advantage of flexible working hours allows them to accommodate their personal and family responsibility (Perumal, 2003; Petersen & Gravett, 2000).

This double workload that female academics bear appears to result in feelings of frustration, stress and guilt and results in females experiencing self-doubt and a feeling of regress with regard to their positions and careers (Petersen & Gravett, 2000). According to Petersen and Gravett (2000, p. 171), female academics in senior positions are of the opinion that the 'glass ceiling' still exists and is maintained in higher education as well as the practice of 'gate-keeping' in the slow advancement and promotion of females to the levels of senior management, such as professorships.

A study by Gwele (1998) showed that staff benefits and salary structures are perceived to play an important role in the retention of staff. Gwele (1998) noted that the research output of female academics could be affected by their low salaries and they are therefore forced to supplement their income by taking second jobs. Konrad (cited in Gwele, 1998) made the assumption that female and black academics might be pressured to spend more hours per week on such activities and thereby substantially limit the time they have for research and publication.

Phaala (2000) reiterated the concern that black and female appointments showed an unacceptable decline at more senior levels at all institutions of higher education. Gwele (1998) concurs but states that women in HWUs are not as poorly represented as blacks in junior or temporary positions and female and black academics are often under-represented in full professor positions in HWUs.

Other perceptions with regard to policies and procedures at institutions of higher education include the lack of time, training, motivation and flexibility with regard to research activities which are important for promotion in academia. Female academics still operate in an environment that presents covert discrimination and where sexual harassment and violence still prevail. The lack of sufficient paternity

leave at institutions of higher education reaffirms the perception that females must take responsibility for child care (Bethlehem, cited in Gwele, 1998; Petersen & Gravett, 2000).

3.5.3 Perceptions of female academics with regard to diversity management and employment equity

According to Phaala (2000, p. 6), the demographics of South African society are not reflected in the staff composition of higher education institutions. In support of this notion, Perumal (2003, p. 77) indicates that female academics experience a combination of gendered, class and race based socialisation infringements of their right to freedom of speech. This often results in the undermining their confidence and in withdrawing into their selves. As a black female academic stated: "I withdrew into myself and became the 'silent' one thereby, confirming the multiple misconceptions about the inferiority and incapability of Blacks" (Perumal, 2003, p. 77).

Some female academics perceive that membership of various cultures (Indian, African, Jewish, etc) influences the way they are treated at institutions of higher education. Subsequently, these females withdraw voluntarily into a web of self-silencing and censorship, thereby internalising the friction that devalues their existential validity (Higgs et al., 2004, Mabokela, 2002 & Perumal, 2003). According to Mannathoko (1999 cited in Higgs et al., 2004), black female academics are marginalised and rendered powerless in the higher education sector as, throughout the history, African females have challenged their oppressive gender relations.

Female academics also feel that they are constantly expected to play certain roles and/or to dress in a particular manner as determined by males, i.e. "... the male way of doing things" (Perumal, 2003, p. 77). As a female academic stated, "As a professional woman, I am typecast in many subtle ways by the expectations of my colleagues and I often feel constrained by these" (Perumal, 2003, p. 77).

A major concern amongst female academics is the low number of females, especially black females, in senior academic positions. This has led to the perception that there is something wrong with the career development of female academics (Perumal, 2003).

Female academics also acknowledge that mentors could be influential in their professional and career development (Petersen & Gravett, 2000). There is evidence that demonstrates a blatant disproportion in the allocation of resources and female academics perceive this as gross exploitation of their time in the labour extensive execution of teaching and administrative tasks that are not inculcated with a high premium status (Perumal, 2003). Gwele (1998) is of the opinion that female and black academics need more time to do research. This is confirmed by Higgs et al. (2004) who reiterate that female academics published less often than their male counterparts.

Female academics therefore feel that they constantly embark in a struggle to demonstrate that they are good as men or even better. Research output is linked with the production of academic publications, which is the activity that earns academic credibility, visibility and attracts funding. Therefore, female academics consider two issues to be attached to the cooperation, negotiation over the distribution of resources and the activities of production and reproduction. The first issue concerns the access to information. Many females claim to have experienced isolation and lack of mentorship as well as non-communication of information regarding access to research opportunities and funding (Perumal, 2003, p. 78).

The double workload in comparison to men impacts on the personal/family life and career development of female academics and is embedded in the perception or reality that most females are employed at the lowest levels of the hierarchy which are often associated with the heaviest workloads (Petersen & Gravett, 2000).

Female and black academics seem to spend more time on activities such as student advising, departmental administration and teaching than white male academics. As female and black academics are employed in junior ranks, they are often allocated first-year and foundation courses and therefore end up with large student volumes. These academics therefore perceive that they are thereby prevented to do research and publish as they have considerably less time available (Konrad; & Bethlemen, cited in Gwele, 1998, pp. 76-77).

The second issue which female academics consider to be attached to the cooperation, negotiation over the distribution of resources and the activities of production and reproduction regards teaching as an activity of production and reproduction of knowledge. It could be assumed that as female academics carry most of the teaching duties, they would enjoy immense freedom with regard to these duties. This would empower them to recast themselves as producers of knowledge rather than as mere channels for reproducing raced, gendered and classed discriminatory theories of knowledge. However, in their view their power is challenged and contested by both students and/or management. A female academic in Perumal (2003, p. 79) stated "A recent audit of Black staff of the Faculty of Humanities exposed, I am not alone in experiencing an assortment of tactics accompanied by (often stated) scepticism about our ability to function as credible professionals." However within HWUs, females are not as poorly represented as blacks in junior and/or temporary positions and evidently it seems as if the positions of full professorships still evade females as well as black academics (Gwele, 1998). Phaala (2000) was of the opinion that black females are even worse off as they are expected to be highly qualified before they can be appointed to such positions.

3.5.4 Perceptions of female academics with regard to communication

The phenomenon of "male deafness" encapsulates the communication style of males towards female input. A female academic in the study of Petersen and Gravett, (2000, p. 171) felt that younger men were more easily accepted in the "old boys' club" as they were listened to and granted more opportunities to express themselves than females. Another perception was that only when a female is recognised outside the institution is she recognised by her own institution. There is a perception that the needs and voices of female academics are disregarded and Petersen and Gravett (2000, p. 171) state that females are blatantly asked to assume a traditionally female role such as to act as the secretary or their input is simply ignored. A respondent emphasised that it has all to do with body language, attitude and asking females to pour the tea.

3.5.5 Perception of female academics with regard to transformation and change in higher education

Petersen and Gravett (2000, p. 171) found that female academics perceive the changes over time to be positive and noticeable. They regard the previously obvious and blatant discrimination to be much less evident although it might be superficial. Females entered academia much later than men and their position has improved over the years. As some female academics regard themselves to have limited access to information, in their opinion no real change have taken place with regard to the situation of female academics. Female academics perceive subtle discrimination to be prevalent in the senior ranks such as professor and in decision-making teams, where females lack sufficient representation. Changes have taken place in the composition of teams and committees, but gender discrimination still seems to prevail as Petersen and Gravett (2000, p. 171) conclude that "... there has in effect been no real or tangible change ... as regards to the situation of women academics". This is gathered from the fact that the opinion of female academics is often still disregarded and they are often blatantly asked to adopt a traditional female role such as to act as secretary (Petersen & Gravett, 2000, p. 171).

A participant in the study of Perumal (2003, p. 79) noted that white males occupy the top positions at their institution and white females the middle positions; non-white members of staff hold lower level positions. This participant therefore perceived that if she (as a non-white staff member) was to be promoted, she would remain in middle management for the foreseeable future. Another black respondent held the perception that "... blatant racism and sexism are construed as normal..."(Perumal, 2003, p. 79). These perceptions could be regarded as outcomes of the process of change and transformation in HEIs (Perumal, 2003).

3.6 Summary

This chapter explained the role of females in academia by reflecting on studies done on the experiences and perceptions of female academics in the UK and New Zealand respectively, and thereafter the position of female academics in South Africa. Thereafter, a theoretical framework of perceptions was provided to illustrate

that the way people perceive their environment influences their behaviour. This chapter was concluded with a discussion of the perceptions of females in the workplace and in particular of female academics in higher education in South Africa. The perceptions of female academics in South Africa were discussed in relation to the dimensions on which the empirical study is based. These dimensions include the following: leadership and management, policies and procedures; diversity management and employment equity, communication and transformation and change. These perceptions will form the basis for the conclusions drawn from the results of the empirical study.

In the next chapter the research methodology of the empirical study will be discussed.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

In Chapters 2 and 3 a literature study was conducted on the transformation in higher education in South Africa and the perceptions of female academics within the higher education. The purpose of the literature study was to develop a theoretical framework with regard to the aim of this research study which is to gauge how females occupying academic positions at a South African distance education university perceive the management of transformation in the institution.

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the research methodology. The research objectives of the study will be restated and the hypotheses of the study outlined. Thereafter, the methodological approach will be discussed by presenting the research context and data source. This will be followed by a discussion of the measuring instrument which will entail background information thereof as well as a brief description of the content of the questionnaire used in the primary study. The chapter will be concluded with a brief description of the dimensions measured in the secondary study and a summary of the chapter.

4.2 Research Objectives

With reference to the problem statement and the purpose of this study as mentioned in Chapter 1, the research objectives are embedded in the following questions:

- Do differences in perceptions of female employees with regard to the leadership and management of transformation exist, based on position, race, age and length of service?
- Do the perceptions of female academics about the implementation of policies and procedures differ based on position, race, age and length of service?
- Do perceptions of female employees about the management of diversity and equity differ based on position, race, age and length of service?

4.3 Research Hypotheses

This study is inferential in nature as secondary data is used to test the hypotheses. These hypotheses are stated with regard to the problem statement, the research objectives and the literature study.

Hypothesis 1

There is no difference in perceptions about the management of transformation between male and female academic personnel.

Hypothesis 2

There is no difference in perceptions about transformation between female academics and female professional/administrative personnel.

Hypothesis 3

Older (41 years and older) female academic personnel hold more negative perceptions about the transformation and change process at the university than younger (40 years and younger) female academic personnel.

Hypothesis 4

There is no difference in perceptions regarding transformation between female academic personnel with 10 or less years of service and female academics with 11 or more years of service.

Hypothesis 5

Black female personnel hold more positive perceptions about the management of transformation and change processes at the university than white female personnel.

Hypothesis 6

Female academics in lower-level (junior lecturer and lecturer) positions at the institution hold more positive perceptions about the management of transformation at the institution than female academics in higher level (senior lecturer and above) positions.

Hypothesis 7

Female professional/administrative personnel in lower-level (grade 7-16) positions at the institution hold more positive perceptions about the management of transformation at the institution than female professional/administrative personnel in higher level (grade 1⁺⁺ - 6) positions.

Hypothesis 8

Female academics in lower level academic positions hold more negative perceptions about the management of transformation than female professional/administrative personnel in higher level positions.

Hypothesis 9

Female academics in higher level academic positions hold more positive perceptions on the management of transformation and change process than female personnel occupying lower level professional/administrative positions.

4.4 Methodological Approach

In Chapter 1 the research problem was introduced. The research problem of this study is to gauge how females occupying academic positions at a South African distance education university perceive the management process of transforming the institution. This research problem is therefore regarded as the idea on which this study is built and is a determining factor in the methodological approach. The methodological approach is the process that was followed in order to solve the research problem. It incorporates the tools to be applied and the procedures employed (Babbie & Mouton, 2004, p.75).

It is argued that the methodological approach is determined by the research problem and the nature of the data. Leedy (1993, p.139) states it very simply: if the data is verbal, the methodology would be qualitative and if it is numerical, the methodology is quantitative. The available data for this study will be presented numerically and therefore this study can be classified as a quantitative study.

In this study, secondary data, at times also referred to as available-data have been analysed to address the research problem. Singleton, Straits and Straits (1993, p.

365) stated that "... the analysis of available data is well suited for studies of social change and cultural change". Therefore, the researcher found the use of secondary data suitable for purpose of this study.

4.5 The Research Context

The primary study was conducted within a distance education university. This university was destined to merge with two other distance education institutions in January 2004. However, the primary study was initiated by one of the institutions before the merger, from January to March 2003.

4.5.1 Background of research environment

The institution where the primary study was conducted can be regarded the oldest university in South Africa. It could be argued that the internal transformation process of this institution of higher education was already sparked by the country's transition towards democracy after 1994.

The South African government's National Plan on Higher Education prescribed the rationalisation of South Africa's state-funded tertiary institutions. This institution therefore, was set to play a vital role in the establishment of a "single comprehensive distance education-institution" through its merger with the two other institutions.

The management of this institution therefore embarked on a period of preparation for the merger during 2002-2003, as the merger was scheduled for January 2004. According to Sidzumo-Mazibuko (2004, p. 8), the preliminary planning stages swarmed with "... expressions of anxieties, fears of loss of identity, domination and inferiority complex politics and politicking as well as dissonance among partners..." and shareholders at the level of conceptualisation as well as operational levels.

The primary study was therefore initiated within the phase of preparation for the merger in January 2004. This was a period where transformation seemed to be inevitable, where anxieties were rife and uncertainties prevailed. As part of this preparation phase, the management of the distance education university engaged independent consultants to conduct an Institutional Culture Change Audit, as part of

the Institutional Culture Change project in November 2002. The purpose of the audit was to assess the perceptions of staff on the management of the transformation process, the existing work environment at the institution and staff's views on the way to improve.

This audit was done prior to the merger with other institutions of higher education and only within the one institution. The audit process was designed in three phases: phase 1 was the online and manually self-administered questionnaire; phase 2 was more qualitative with focus groups and individual interviews and phase 3 included a review of documents.

The researcher found the results of phase 1 of the primary study to have the potential for more studies to be conducted with the available data and decided to embark on a secondary analysis of the available data. Permission to use this data was requested and granted from the Principal of the institution and the independent consultants and the study commenced thereafter.

4.5.2 Data source

To conduct the primary study, the independent consultants surveyed the population, i.e. all staff members employed at the institution that was audited. For purposes of the secondary study, a subset of the data consisting of responses from male and female academics as well as female professional/administrative personnel was selected.

4.6 The Measuring Instrument

This research study is inferential in nature and will be based on the Institutional Culture Change Audit Questionnaire (see Appendix 1) which was compiled and used to gather data in the primary study, conducted by the independent consultants. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2003, p. 15), the survey is the most commonly used descriptive methodology in research on education. It is a method applied where researchers normally summarise the characteristics of individuals, groups or physical environments.

The next section provides a background of the measuring instrument used in the primary study.

4.6.1 Background

As stated earlier, the management of the distance education university engaged the independent consultants in November 2002 to conduct an Institutional Culture Change Audit, as part of the Institutional Culture Change project. The purpose of the audit was to assess staff perceptions on the management of the transformation process, the existing work environment at the institution as well as the ways to improve. This audit was done prior to the merger with the other institutions of higher education as stipulated by the National Plan for Higher Education.

Selected items in the questionnaire used in the audit were found to be suitable to address the research problem and hypotheses of this research study. This questionnaire was also the data source for the secondary analysis. With the intent of developing measures that approximate variables of interest, the researcher selected only the dimensions and items in the questionnaire that were relevant to the research problem and the hypotheses which were constructed for the purposes of this study. The questionnaire addressed the appropriate items and only in some instances the researcher re-defined the dimensions according to the requirements of this study, in order to maintain data quality.

4.6.2 The original questionnaire

The original questionnaire (Appendix 1) used in the primary study consisted of the following sections and dimensions. The first section contained a general discussion of instructions, the respondents were thanked for their willingness to complete the questionnaire and assured of the complete confidentiality of their responses. A request was made to answer all the questions and to choose only one answer per question. An indication of the time that the completion might take was also provided and respondents were requested to leave options blank should it not apply to them or their department. Thereafter, the scale of the questionnaire was explained in detail and an example of how to complete the questionnaire was provided. A 5-point Likert

scale was employed for each statement. The following represents the range of the scale:

Completely Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Completely Agree
1	2	3	4	5

An explanation of the key terms followed and the respondents were further made aware that the questionnaire contained some negatively phrased questions. The biographical data followed directly after the instructions and the respondents were asked to indicate their location; administration or professional or academic department; their position; their age, gender, race and length of service at the institution.

4.6.3 The contents of the original questionnaire (with regard to the items)

The primary study was based on the Institutional Culture Change Audit questionnaire which consists of 119 agreement- and 8 demographic- items. The 119 items were ordered on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "completely disagree" to "completely agree". The midpoint of the scale was the "undecided" option. The items were categorised under the following ten dimensions, namely: Vision, mission and values; Leadership; Teamwork; Trust; Loyalty and belonging; Performance management and rewards; Policies and procedures; Diversity and equity; Skills development and retention; Institutional excellence; Institutional support; Communication; Change and transformation.

4.7 Dimensions Measured in this Study

For purposes of this study and in accordance with the theoretical framework of the literature study, 61 items were initially selected from the original questionnaire and subjected to a factor analysis. The Cronbach Alpha indicated that 46 items were reliable, while the exploratory factor analysis confirmed 35 items to be valid. The 46 items, considered as reliable, were therefore applied for the purposes of this study. Appendix 2 discloses the 61 items initially selected and subjected to an exploratory factor analysis. The items were selected from the 10 different dimensions of the primary study which were re-defined and merged into five dimensions in order to

optimise reliability and validity. Appendix 3 contains the 46 items which was found to be the most reliable in the determining the Cronbach Alpha coefficients.

The five dimensions used in this study are explained below.

Dimension 1: Leadership and management

The following dimensions of the original questionnaire study were merged in order to define this dimension for the purposes of this study: Vision, mission and values (four of the six original items of this dimension in the original questionnaire were selected); Leadership (five of the thirteen original items of this dimension in the original questionnaire were selected); and Loyalty and belonging (four of the original nine items of this dimension in the original questionnaire were selected).

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Dimension 2: Policies and procedures

In order to measure this dimension for the purposes of this study, two dimensions of the original questionnaire were merged: Policies and procedures (seven of the fifteen original items of this dimension in the original questionnaire were selected); and Skills Development and retention (two of the eight original items of this dimension in the original questionnaire were selected).

Dimension 3: Diversity and equity

The dimensions Diversity and equity (all twelve of the original items from this dimension in the original questionnaire were selected) and Institutional support (three of the six original items of this dimension in the original questionnaire were selected) were merged in order to measure this dimension appropriately with respect to the aims of this study.

Dimension 4: Communication

This dimension was not merged with another dimension. Four of the eight items of this dimension in the original questionnaire were selected for the purposes of this study.

Dimension 5: Change and transformation

The dimensions Change and transformation (all four of the original items from this dimension in the original questionnaire were selected) and Institutional excellence (one of the original twenty items of this dimension in the original questionnaire was selected) were merged in order to measure this dimension appropriately with respect to the aims of this study.

4.8 Summary

This chapter outlined the research objectives of the study and introduced the hypotheses that were tested. It described the methodological approach followed and outlined the research context and data source. An explanation of the original questionnaire followed. Thereafter, the dimensions used in the study, namely Leadership and management, Policies and procedures, Diversity and equity, Communication and Change and transformation, are discussed.

The next chapter will contain the data analysis and a discussion of the research results.

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to portray the data analysis methods and to present the results of this study. In the first section of this chapter, the data analysis methods employed, i.e. factor analysis and analysis of variance (ANOVA), are discussed. The purpose of the factor analysis was to determine the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument, whilst the analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the hypotheses. Thereafter, a discussion of the research results follows and the chapter concludes with a discussion of results with regard to the testing of the hypotheses. The statistical analysis for this study was performed by using the SAS package to import, transform and analyse the data.

Female academics, for the purpose of this research study, refer to women who occupy academic positions at a public higher education institution and who have been appointed to teach and/or to do research. Male academics refer to men who occupy academic positions at a public higher education institution and who have teach and/or do been appointed to to research. Female professional/administrative personnel refer to women who support the higher education system at a public higher education institution either in their professional capacity, for example, as an accountant or as an administrator, who supports the academic system of the public higher education.

5.2 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a technique often used by researchers to explore the relationship between theoretical concepts and empirical indicators; it is thus a method used to determine the general factors that exist within a set of concrete observations (O'Sullivan & Rassel, 1999, p. 302). The aim of the factor analysis was to affirm the reliability and validity of the items used in this study.

According to Thompson (2004, p. 5), there are two major classes of factor analysis, namely exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). In EFA it is possible that the researcher may not have any specific expectations with regard to the number or the nature of the underlying constructs or factors. Even though the researcher might have expectations, EFA does not oblige the researcher to declare these expectations and the analysis is not influenced by these expectations. CFA requires the researcher to have specific expectations regarding: a) the number of factors, b) which variables reflect given factors, and c) whether the factors are correlated. CFA explicitly and directly tests the fit of factor models and Thompson (2004, p. 6) states clearly that "... researchers without theories cannot use CFA, but researcher with theories usually find CFA more useful than EFA". It is further noted that CFA seem to be more valuable when theories are presented as: a) the theory is directly tested by the analysis and b) the degree of model fit can be quantified in various ways.

For the purposes of this study a questionnaire (Appendix 1) consisting of 15 biographical/demographical variables and 132 variables (items), with the latter presenting responses on a 5-point Likert scale was used. Although 629 participants responded to the original Institutional Culture Change Audit Questionnaire (Appendix 1), the responses of 454 respondents were used for the purposes of this study. The 454 respondents consisted of the male and female academic personnel as well as the female professional/administrative personnel at an institution of higher education. the demographic information and of the Thus, responses male professional/administrative personnel were omitted for the purposes of this study. All the respondents whose responses are used in this study were permanently employed at the same institution.

Sixty one of the items (Appendix 2) were re-arranged into five (5) dimensions. These items were selected after the literature study was completed and the most important dimensions were identified. Thereafter, these items were subjected to a factor analysis to affirm the internal consistency of each dimension. The Cronbach alpha correlations of each item were calculated. Items that correlated negatively were rescored after inspection of the questionnaire. Forty six (46) items as portrayed in Appendix 3 were found to be reliable. The Cronbach alpha for this study ranged from .6409 to .8665. The coefficient of .6409 was regarded as reliable, although the

frequently used rule of thumb for reliability is for the coefficient to be at least .70. However, there are different benchmarks that could be employed between a coefficient of .00 and 1.0, and an alpha coefficient of .6409 was judged to be adequate for the purposes of this study (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 168). Tables 6-10 show the results of the reliability analysis as per dimension.

Table 6. Reliability Analysis - Dimension 1: Leadership and management

Item no.	Description of Item	Correlation with Total	Cronbach alpha			
V16	I am familiar with the institution's new vision	0.5025	0.8588			
V18	The direction set by the Principal of the institution is clear to	0.5733	0.8548			
	me.					
V20	Most staff members have ownership of the new vision of the	0.4667	0.8607			
	institution.					
V21	The institution has a strategic plan with clear goals, which all	0.5595	0.8555			
	staff members can all identify with.					
V22	I am satisfied with the overall leadership of the institution.	0.6682	0.8492			
V23	The Rectorate provides clear leadership, strategic direction	0.7024	0.8473			
	and focus to this institution.					
V31	The Senate is playing its role effectively in transforming this	0.4279	0.8626			
	institution.					
V32	Leadership is about confidence building and I believe this is	0.3912	0.8679			
	what is currently being demonstrated by the Principal of the					
	institution.					
V33	The Principal is accessible and visible to members of staff.	0.6561	0.8497			
V43	I have a strong 'sense of belonging' to the institution.	0.5040	0.8588			
V45	I am proud to work for the institution.	0.5648	0.8560			
V46	There is nothing to suggest that I should be insecure about	0.5007	0.8599			
	my position in this university.					
V51	I am as loyal to the institution now as I was a few years ago.	0.5159	0.8582			
	Cronbach alpha of the SCALE 0.8665					

Table 7. Reliability Analysis - Dimension 2: Policies and procedures

Item	Description of Item	Correlation	Cronbach
no.	•	with Total	alpha
V60	The current policies are fairly simple and understandable.	0.3283	0.7386
V63	The recruitment and selection procedures used in the	0.3563	0.7370
	Institution are clear to me.		
V64	Everyone at the institution follows the correct procedures	0.4147	0.7262
	when appointing staff in their respective areas.		
V65	In my area the advertising of vacant positions is done	0.3554	0.7361
	procedurally and transparently.		
V69	The disciplinary code and procedure is working effectively in	0.4634	0.7191
	this Institution.		
V70	There are good conflict resolution mechanisms in my	0.6281	0.6887
	faculty/department.		
V71	When conflict arises in my faculty or department, it is often	0.5501	0.7026
	settled fairly.		
V98	The institution has done its best to attract the best skills to		
	serve the Institution.		
V102	There are adequate opportunities for training and	0.3462	0.7382
	development of staff in my faculty/department.		
	Cronbach alpha	of the SCALE	0.7476

Table 8. Reliability Analysis - Dimension 4: Communication

Item	Description of Item	Correlation	Cronbach
no.		with Total	alpha
V131	The institution has an effective internal communication	0.4701	0.5941
	system.		
V132	There is transparency and openness in this institution on	0.4918	0.5793
	matters that are relevant to me.		
V140	The current newsletter of the institution serves my needs	0.4440	0.6125
	adequately.		
V141	The institution's external communication is effective in	0.4099	0.6348
	marketing and promoting the institution.		
	Cronbach alpha	of the SCALE	0.6719

Table 9. Reliability Analysis - Dimension 3: Diversity and equity

Item no.	Description of Item	Correlation with Total	Cronbach alpha
V75	There has been sufficient consultation between management	0.3653	0.7979
	and staff about Employment Equity.		
V76	The Top Management of the institution is committed to	0.2940	0.8020
	establishing Employment Equity in the institution.		
V77	Women are provided with a fair and equitable chance to	0.4995	0.7879
	compete for senior positions in The institution.		
V78	There is no 'glass ceiling' for women in the institution.	0.4755	0.7897
V79	The authority of women in management is respected by all.	0.4276	0.7934
V80	Different racial groups interact comfortably with each other at	0.3668	0.7980
	an informal level.		
V81	Differences in pay for similar type jobs are based on	0.3644	0.7987
	qualifications and experience, not race and gender.		
V91	There are ample avenues to raise issues regarding unfair	0.3876	0.7964
	discrimination practises in the institution.		
V93	Employees at the institution have been educated on how to	0.3464	0.7993
	treat those who are disabled with dignity and respect.		
V94	I am satisfied that everyone in the institution is treated fairly	0.5589	0.7830
	regardless of their race, gender, disability, religion or sexual		
	orientation.		
V95	Management and staff show respect for cultural practices that	0.4690	0.7906
	differ from their own.		
V97	Different racial groups are working well together in this	0.4598	0.7914
	university.		
V126	I am provided with all the information, equipment and	0.3834	0.7971
	physical facilities needed to provide an excellent service to		
	my client.		
V127	I am satisfied with the regular feedback I receive from those	0.5033	0.7877
	who provide a service to me.		
V130	There is a healthy relationship between the unions and	0.3235	0.8006
	management at the institution.		
	Cronbach alpha	of the SCALE	0.8054

Table 10. Reliability Analysis - Dimension 5: Change and transformation

Item no.	Description of Item	Correlation with Total	Cronbach alpha
V144	I will do my best to ensure that transformation at the	0.4627	0.5711
	institution is successful.		
V145	The institution has put in place the appropriate systems	0.2848	0.6385
	required to support change.		
V146	Change is happening so rapidly at the institution that it is	0.3811	0.5961
	difficult to adapt.		
V147	I know that the long-term benefits of change and	0.5168	0.5201
	transformation at the institution outweigh the current hurdles		
	and difficulties we may experience.		
V109	The research output of the 'old the institution' was impressive	0.3630	0.6028
	and more highly regarded than it is.		
	Cronbach alpha	of the SCALE	0.6409

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) yielded a five-factor solution after the eigenvalue greater-than-one-rule was implemented. A scree test was also performed, which was followed by the factor procedure, the rotation method: Oblique Varimax. Oblique means that the factors are correlated (Hatcher, 1994, p. 63). These results are shown in Table 11 and it is indicated as the Rotated Factor Pattern (Standardised Regression Coefficients). This table therefore represents the factor loadings of the EFA. A factor loading is technically a coefficient that appears in either a factor pattern matrix or a factor structure matrix. However, when you conduct an oblique factor analysis, the loadings in the pattern matrix will have a different definition than the loadings given in the structure matrix (Hatcher, 1994, p. 64). However, the pattern matrix and the structure matrix provide different information about the relationships between the observed variables and the underlying factors. The factor pattern reveals the unique contribution that each factor makes to the variance of the variable. The pattern loadings in this matrix (Table 11) are thus in essence standardised regression coefficients comparable to those obtained in multiple regression. The factor structure (Table 12), on the other hand, reveals the correlation between a given factor and variable. It helps you understand the bigger picture of how the variables are really related to the factors (Hatcher, 1994, p. 95).

The items which had a correlation lower than 0.30 (the cut off correlation recommended by Lambert and Durand, 1975) were excluded. The result of

screening items according to these two rules was that the lowest correlation between an item and the corresponding dimension (considering all items and dimensions) is .2848 (see Table 10). The number of items as suggested per dimension and the total number corresponding to the EFA solution were counted. This resulted in a correspondence of $\frac{35}{46}$ = 76.1% . This is an indication that the dimensions as selected can be regarded as appropriate for measuring the construct, management of transformation.

Table 11. Validity analysis – Rotated Factor Pattern (Standardised Regression Coefficient)

ltem no.	Description of Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
V130	There is a healthy relationship between the Unions and management at the institution.	0.54489				
V22	The Rectorate provides clear leadership, strategic direction and focus to this institution.	0.53750		0.37819		
V132	There is transparency and openness in this Institution on matters that are relevant to me.	0.51089				
V31	Leadership is about confidence building and I believe this is what is currently being demonstrated by the Principal of the institution.	0.50159				
V21	I am satisfied with the overall leadership of the institution.	0.50102				
V23	The Senate is playing its role effectively in transforming this Institution.	0.49749		0.38541		
V98	The institution has done its best to attract the best skills to serve the institution	0.49381				
V141	The institution's external communication is effective in marketing and promoting the institution.	0.44598				
V20	The institution has a strategic plan with clear goals, with which all staff members can identify.	0.43455				
V60	The current policies are fairly simple and understandable.	0.42651			0.31689	
V145	The institution has put in place the appropriate systems required to support change.	0.42148				
V69	The disciplinary code and procedure is working effectively in this institution.	0.40797	0.33307			
V33	The Principal is accessible and visible to members of staff.	0.40600		0.39699		
V131	The institution has an effective internal communication system.	0.39698				0.33910
V64	Everyone at the institution follows the correct procedures when appointing staff in their respective areas.	0.39633	0.36626			
V127	I am satisfied with the regular feedback I receive from those who provide a service to me.	0.36083				
V118	I believe that this university is trying hard enough to reinvent itself to meet the needs of the country.	0.33954				
V95	Management and staff show respect for cultural practices that differ from their own.	0.31215				
V140	The current newsletter of the institution serves my needs adequately.	0.30512				
V91	There are ample avenues to raise issues regarding unfair discrimination practises in the institution.					
V78	There is no 'glass ceiling' for women in the Institution.		0.64527			
V77	Women are provided with a fair and equitable chance to compete for senior positions in the institution.		0.63094			
V71	When conflict arises in my faculty or department, it is often settled fairly.		0.58616			
V70	There are good conflict resolution mechanisms in my faculty/department.		0.57766			
V79	The authority of women in management is respected by all.		0.56597			
V32	Leadership is about confidence building and I believe this is what is currently being demonstrated by the Principal of		0.49659			

Item no.	Description of Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
	the institution.					
V65	In my area the advertising of vacant positions is done procedurally and transparently.		0.47768			
V94	I am satisfied that everyone in the institution is treated fairly regardless of their race, gender, disability, religion or sexual orientation.	0.39030	0.41668			
V81	Differences in pay for similar type jobs are based on qualifications and experience, not race and gender.		0.41150			
V97	Different racial groups are working well together in this University.		0.40655			
V80	Different racial groups interact comfortably with each other at an informal level.		0.38936			
V102	There are adequate opportunities for training and development of staff in my faculty/department.		0.36566			
V43	I have a strong 'sense of belonging' to the institution.			0.73845		
V45	I am proud to work for the institution.			0.69318		
V51	I am as loyal to the institution now as I was a few years ago.			0.64609		
V44	I always do my best to ensure the success of this institution.	-0.34752		0.55681		
V16	I am familiar with the institution's new vision.			0.49425		
V18	Most staff members have ownership of the new vision of the institution.			0.48748	0.30247	
V46	There is nothing to suggest that I should be insecure about my position in this university.	0.33658		0.37343		
V74	I am familiar with the spirit, intent and objectives of the Employment Equity Act.				0.70014	
V76	The Top Management of the institution is committed to establishing Employment Equity in the institution.				0.54130	
V75	There has been sufficient consultation between management and staff about Employment Equity.				0.50354	
V67	The institution is adhering to the Preferential Procurement Act when procuring services from outside providers.				0.46116	
V144	I will do my best to ensure that transformation at the institution is successful.			0.30096	0.45642	
V147	I know that the long-term benefits of change and transformation at the institution outweigh the current hurdles and difficulties we may experience.				0.45207	-0.30848
V96	Policy documents and other important information are provided in a language that I understand.				0.43973	
V62	I have personally taken time to read and understand those policies that have an impact on me.				0.43798	
V63	The recruitment and selection procedures used in the Institution are clear to me.				0.42217	
V72	The development of a Diversity Management Policy will enhance effective Disability Management at the institution.				0.38531	
V146	Change is happening so rapidly at the institution that it is difficult to adapt.				0.36537	
V100	I believe a good retention strategy must be put in place to ensure that the institution retains the best skills.				0.31990	
V92	The development of a Diversity Management Policy will enhance effective Disability Management at the institution.					0.57527
V113	I believe academics in the institution have struck a healthy balance between using ideas from foreign writers and those from African writers in their teachings.					0.53776
V93	Employees at the institution have been educated on how to treat those who are disabled with dignity and respect.					0.50267
V112	Most academics have begun to integrate the concept of African Renaissance into their teachings.					0.49553
V66	I am fully aware of the institution's HIV/AIDS policy.			0.35643		0.44146
V68	I am fully aware of the university's Sexual Harassment Policy.					0.41437
V109	The research output of the 'old the institution' was impressive and more highly regarded than it is.				0.31225	-0.41673

Table 12. Validity analysis – Factor Structure (Correlations)

Item	Description of Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
no.	There is a healthy relationship between the Unions and					
V130	management at the institution.	0.57245				
V22	The Rectorate provides clear leadership, strategic direction and focus to this institution.	0.62355		0.51897	0.30509	
V Z Z	There is transparency and openness in this Institution	0.62333		0.51697	0.30309	
V132	on matters that are relevant to me.	0.61036	0.37344	0.30923		
	Leadership is about confidence building and I believe this is what is currently being demonstrated by the					
V31	Principal of the institution.	0.54635				
\/21	I am satisfied with the overall leadership of the	0.50000		0.20570		0.21150
V21	institution. The Senate is playing its role effectively in transforming	0.58820		0.38579		0.31158
V23	this Institution.	0.61205		0.55103	0.38949	
V98	The institution has done its best to attract the best skills to serve the institution	0.56471				
V 30	The institution's external communication is effective in	0.00471				
V141	marketing and promoting the institution.	0.48039				
V20	The institution has a strategic plan with clear goals, which all staff members can all identify with.	0.50262		0.34600		
	The current policies are fairly simple and	0.000				
V60	understandable. The institution has put in place the appropriate systems	0.49321			0.40076	
V145	required to support change.	0.51464		0.34791		
1,400	The disciplinary code and procedure is working	0.40554	0.44044			
V69	effectively in this institution. The Principal is accessible and visible to members of	0.49554	0.44344			
V33	staff.	0.54277		0.54931	0.38386	
V131	The institution has an effective internal communication system.	0.47776				0.42520
V 13 1	Everyone at the institution follows the correct	0.47776				0.42320
	procedures when appointing staff in their respective					
V64	areas. I am satisfied with the regular feedback I receive from	0.45995	0.44892			
V127	those who provide a service to me.	0.48412	0.39925			0.36487
1/440	I believe that this university is trying hard enough to	0.40005				
V118	reinvent itself to meet the needs of the country. Management and staff show respect for cultural	0.42835				
V95	practices that differ from their own.	0.40669	0.35415			0.34381
V140	The current newsletter of the institution serves my needs adequately.	0.37639				0.34956
V 140	There are ample avenues to raise issues regarding	0.07000				0.04000
V91	unfair discrimination practises in the institution.	0.39552	0.32180			
V78	There is no 'glass ceiling' for women in the Institution. Women are provided with a fair and equitable chance		0.63511			
V77	to compete for senior positions in the institution.		0.63781			
\/71	When conflict arises in my faculty or department, it is		0.60705			
V71	often settled fairly. There are good conflict resolution mechanisms in my		0.62705			
V70	faculty/department.	0.38503	0.64424			
V79	The authority of women in management is respected by all.		0.57464			
775	Leadership is about confidence building and I believe		0.07 707			
1/00	this is what is currently being demonstrated by the		0.54000	0.04757		
V32	Principal of the institution. In my area the advertising of vacant positions is done		0.54926	0.31757		
V65	procedurally and transparently.		0.49004		0.30691	
	I am satisfied that everyone in the institution is treated fairly regardless of their race, gender, disability, religion					
V94	or sexual orientation.	0.51443	0.53565			
1/04	Differences in pay for similar type jobs are based on				0.00000	
V81	qualifications and experience, not race and gender. Different racial groups are working well together in this		0.45455		0.30880	
V97	University.		0.48532			0.31708
V80	Different racial groups interact comfortably with each other at an informal level.		0.43895			0.36008
V 0 U	There are adequate opportunities for training and		0.43695			0.30008
V102	development of staff in my faculty/department.		0.43696	0 = 0 = 0		
V43 V45	I have a strong 'sense of belonging' to the institution. I am proud to work for the institution.			0.72282 0.71939		
V40	I am as loyal to the institution now as I was a few years			0.11838		
V51	ago.		0.31687	0.66757		

Item						
no.	Description of Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
\/44	I always do my best to ensure the success of this			0.54054		
V44 V16	institution. I am familiar with the institution's new vision			0.51654 0.57988	0.40747	
V 10	Most staff members have ownership of the new vision			0.57 300	0.40141	
V18	of the institution.	0.30551		0.59570	0.44243	
V46	There is nothing to suggest that I should be insecure about my position in this University.	0.45164	0.34867	0.46547		
	I am familiar with the spirit, intent and objectives of the					
V74	Employment Equity Act.				0.69314	
	The Top Management of the institution is committed to					
V76	establishing Employment Equity in the Institution.		0.31762		0.56862	
\/75	There has been sufficient consultation between	0.07047			0.50004	
V75	management and staff about Employment Equity. The institution is adhering to the Preferential	0.37947			0.56661	
	Procurement Act when procuring services from outside					
V67	providers.		0.30018		0.47893	
	I will do my best to ensure that transformation at the		0.000.0		0111000	
V144	institution is successful.			0.40270	0.51533	
	I know that the long-term benefits of change and					
	transformation at the institution outweigh the current					
V147	hurdles and difficulties we may experience.	0.33894		0.40062	0.52349	
1/00	Policy documents and other important information are				0.45000	
V96	provided in a language that I understand. I have personally taken time to read and understand				0.45600	
V62	those policies that have an impact on me.			0.33474	0.46643	
V 02	The recruitment and selection procedures used in the			0.33474	0.40043	
V63	Institution are clear to me.	0.30741			0.47873	
	The development of a Diversity Management Policy will					
	enhance effective Disability Management at the					
V72	institution.				0.42705	
	Change is happening so rapidly at the institution that it					
V146	is difficult to adapt.	0.30623			0.38764	
V/400	I believe a good retention strategy must be put in place				0.20225	
V100	to ensure that the institution retains the best skills. The development of a Diversity Management Policy will				0.30235	
	enhance effective Disability Management at the					
V92	institution.					0.59253
	I believe academics in the institution have struck a					0.00000
	healthy balance between using ideas from foreign					
V113	writers and those from African writers in their teachings.		0.31138			0.58548
	Employees at the institution have been educated on]]			
\/00	how to treat those who are disabled with dignity and]			0.55000
V93	respect. Most academics have begun to integrate the concept of	1				0.55022
V112	African Renaissance into their teachings.]			0.52342
V112 V66	I am fully aware of the institution's HIV/AIDS policy.			0.42380		0.32342
700	I am fully aware of the University's Sexual Harassment	1	1	0.12000		0.10077
V68	Policy.]			0.43434
	The research output of the 'old the institution' was					
V109	impressive and more highly regarded than it is.				0.35384	-0.30582

5.3 Analysis of Variance

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) are regarded by O'Sullivan and Rassel (1999, p. 491) as a primary statistical tool to analyse experimental data and the difference between the means of more than two groups (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 241).

In this research study this method was applied and performed to test the hypotheses by comparing mean values of the dimensions for different groups e.g.

gender. The data was transformed to conform to the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance for the ANOVA results to be valid.

All the ANOVA analyses were performed using the mean value of all the items of a particular dimension per respondent. This would ensure that the scores per dimension can be interpreted on the same scale as the scores of the items, namely on the 5-point Likert scale.

5.4 Validity

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2003, p.158), validity refers to the ".... appropriateness, correctness, meaningfulness and usefulness of inferences researcher make based on data they collect." Thompson (2004, p. 4) refers to the typical questions that validity normally answers for example: "Does the tool produce scores that seem to measure the intended dimensions?" and "Are items intended only to measure a given dimension actually and only measuring that dimension?" According to Thompson (2004, p. 4), factor analysis was created to deal with exactly these kinds of questions.

The type of validity found to be appropriate for this study is construct validity. Leedy (1987, p. 41) defines a construct as a concept which cannot be directly observed or isolated. Construct validity therefore refers to the degree to which that construct is actually measured. Kerlinger (1986, p. 420) mentioned that the most significant point of construct validity is '... its preoccupation with theory, theoretical constructs, and scientific empirical inquiry involving the testing of hypothesized relations'. Kerlinger (1986) also refers to Cronbach, who argued that there are three parts of construct validation which are: 1) suggesting which constructs might account for test performance; 2) derive the hypotheses from the theory involving the construct and 3) testing the hypotheses empirically. Therefore, factor analysis seems to be the 'refined method' to address construct validity, as it shows which measures measure the same thing and to what extent it measures what it is supposed to measure. Kerlinger (1986, p. 427) regards factor analysis as a "... powerful and indispensable method of construct validation..." and claim that it is a method used to reduce a large number of measures to a smaller number called factors by discovering which ones belong together. Further, it seems as if factor analysis and construct validity have

such a history together that construct validity was in the past often referred to as 'factorial validity' (Thompson, 2004, p. 4).

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted in order to determine whether the selected items measured a single construct. The literature study was done prior to the selection of the items and the re-definition of dimensions. However, the researcher had no specific expectations. The outcome of this exploratory factor analysis in Table 13 shows that 35 items of the 46 items (i.e. 76 % of the items) corresponded to the EFA. The factor analysis yielded a five-factor solution with 35 factor loadings above .30, which is an acceptable minimum loading recommended by Lambert and Durand (1975).

Table 13. Results of Factor Structure - Validity

Dimension	Lowest Correlation of an item	Proportion of items corresponding to EFA – Factor Structure
Leadership and management	0.3912	12 of 13
Policies and procedures	0.3283	6 of 9
Diversity and equity	0.2940	11 of 15
Communication	0.4099	2 of 4
Change and transformation	0.2848	4 of 5
	TOTAL	35 of 46

5.5 Reliability

According to Leedy (1993, p. 42) reliability deals with accuracy and therefore this author defines reliability with the questions: How accurate is the instrument that is used to make the measurement; and a more specific question: With what accuracy does the measure (instrument, test, etc), measure what it is intended to measure?

Singleton, Jr., Straits and Straits (1993, pp. 114-115) define reliability in terms of its relation to stability and consistency. They propose that the operational definition should measure the variable(s) consistently and dependably whatever the variables

may be. They hold that the repeated application of the operational definition under similar conditions should yield consistent results.

In this study the items were merged and dimensions were re-defined. It is therefore essential to establish reliability through the internal consistency technique. This technique involves the simultaneous testing of the relationship among all the items of a dimension. The basic question that this technique addresses is: To what extent do all the items measure the same concept or construct? A factor analysis was conducted to investigate and confirm the internal consistency.

In order to establish the internal consistency of this study the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was determined. This coefficient reflects the degree to which the item content (of the items or statements) in the scales is similar. In internal consistency emphasis is on the degree to which the individual items are correlated with each other and is often referred to as homogeneity (Singleton, Jr. et al. 1993, p. 120). The Cronbach alpha scores for this study according to the five dimensions are summarised by Table 14.

Table 14. Internal Consistency - Reliability

Dimension	Cronbach alpha
Leadership and management	0.8665
Policies and procedures	0.7476
Diversity and equity	0.8054
Communication	0.6719
Change and transformation	0.6409

According to Table 14, the subscales have a moderate to high level of internal consistency as measured by Cronbach's alpha (.64 – .87). The highest score (.87) was obtained for dimension 1: Leadership and management and the lowest score (.64) was obtained for dimension 5: Change and transformation. The scores therefore fall within an acceptable range and the reliability of the measuring instrument could be affirmed. The details the items that comprise each dimension are summarised in Table 6-10.

5.6 Presentation of Research Results

5.6.1 Biographical data

The research subjects of this study consisted of female and male academics and female professionals and/or administrative staff who responded to the questionnaire used in the primary study. The total number of the participants for this secondary study was (n) = 454 which comprised of 115 male academics (25%), 137 female academics (30%) and 202 female professionals/administrators. Figure 4 is a graphical presentation of the total number of research subjects or participants of this study.

Figure 4 illustrates the research subjects in relation to three categories, namely, male academics, female academics and female professional/administrative personnel.

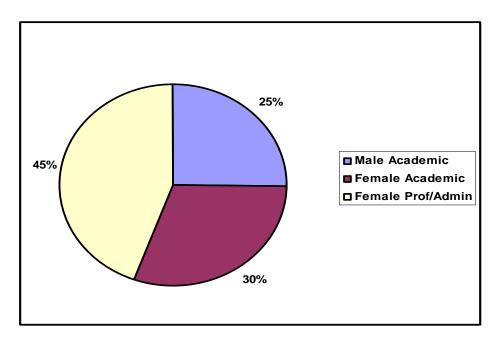


Figure 4. The Distribution of Research Subjects

From this presentation, it is evident that the female professionals/administrators who responded to the primary study were 15% more than the female academics who responded and 20% more than the male academics who responded, whereas the female academics who responded were 5% more than their male counterparts. For the purposes of this study, therefore, academics comprised 55% of the total research subjects.

Table 15. Description of Response Rate of the Research Subjects

Group	No. of responses	No. of permanent personnel employed	Response rate (%)
Female academics	137	547	25.05%
Male academics	115	520	22.12%
Female professional/ administrative personnel	202	1095	18.45%
Total	454	2162	21%

Table 15 also reveals the statistics of the research subjects with regard to their response rate. It shows that although the female professional/administrative personnel represent the largest number of responses. Their response rate in relation to the number of permanent female professional/administrative personnel employed at the time to the primary study was the lowest.

The following tables (Tables 16-21) present the details of the demographic information of the three subgroups, namely academic females, female professional/administrative personnel and academic males. These tables are used in conjunction with the illustrative figures relating to the demographics to discuss the composition of the research subjects who responded to the primary study.

Table 16. Demographic Information (Age, Ranks, Race) of Female Academics

	AGE		≤	25			26	-30			31	-35			36	-40			41	-45			46	-50			≥	51	
	RACE	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α
RANK	TOT																												
Dean	2																					1						1	
Dep Dean	3																									2		1	
HOD	4																							1				3	
Professor	12																			4		1		2				5	
Ass. Prof	12															1		1		3			1					6	
Snr Lect	48					2		2	1	1		5				6	1			9				6				15	
Lecturer	42	1		1				3	2	3		8	1	1	1	9				3				4				5	
Jnr Lect	9					1		1				2								1				3				1	
Ass Lect.	4			1		1																						2	
TOTAL	136	1	0	2	0	4	0	6	3	4	0	15	1	1	1	16	1	1	0	20	0	2	1	16	0	2	0	39	0

B = Black; W = White; C = Coloured; A = Asian

Table 17. Demographic Information (Age, Ranks, Race) of Female Professionals/ Administrative Personnel

	AGE		≤.	25			26-	-30			31	-35			36	-40			41	-45			46	-50			≥.	51	
F	RACE	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α
RANK	TOT																												
1++ - 1	2																			2									
2-3	3																							1				2	
4-6	46			1		1		1		3		3		2		4				11	1	2		7		2		8	
7-9	113	2				3		4	2	5		15	1	6		5		2		17				22				29	
10-12	32			1		2		3		6	1	1				2		2		4								10	
13-16	4													1				1		1								1	
17-19	3																					1				2			
TOTAL	203	2	0	2	0	6	0	8	2	14	1	19	1	9	0	11	0	5	0	35	1	3	0	30	0	4	0	50	0

B = Black; W = White; C = Coloured; A = Asian

Table 18. Demographic Information (Age, Ranks, Race) of Male Academics

	AGE		≤	25			26	-30			31	-35			36	-40			41	-45			46	-50			≥!	51	
	RACE	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α
RANK	TOT																												
Dean	3																	2	1										
Dep Dean	2																			1			1						
HOD	19																			2				2				15	
Professor	24																			1				6		1		16	
Ass. Prof	15													1		2	1			1				5				4	1
Snr Lect	20	1				1						1				2				7				2				6	
Lecturer	13					1		2		3						1		1		1				1				3	
Jnr Lect	6						1		1	1	1	1										1							
Ass Lect.	6			1		2		1		1														1					
TOTAL	108	1	0	1	0	4	1	3	1	5	1	2	0	1	0	5	1	3	1	13	0	1	1	17	0	1	0	44	1

B = Black; W = White; C = Coloured; A = Asian

Table 19. Demographic Information (Tenure, Ranks, Race) of Female Academics

TE	NURE		<	(2			2	-5			6-	10			11	-15			16	-20			21	-25			≥2	26	
F	RACE	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α
RANK	TOT																												
Dean	2									1										1									
Dep Dean	3									1								1										1	
HOD	4																			1				2				1	
Professor	11							1		1						2				2				2				3	
Ass. Prof	12			1						1	1	1				1				4				3					
Snr Lect	48			5	1	3		5	1			4				11				12				5				1	
Lecturer	42	2		7		1	1	9	3	2		9				4				3				1					
Jnr Lect	9			2		1		2				2				1				1									
Ass Lect.	4	1		2				1																					
TOTAL	135	3	0	17	1	5	1	18	4	6	1	16	0	0	0	19	0	1	0	24	0	0	0	13	0	0	0	6	0

B = Black; W = White; C = Coloured; A = Asian

Table 20. Demographic Information (Tenure, Ranks, Race) of Female Professionals/Administrative Personnel

TEN	IURE		<	<2			2	-5			6-	10			11	-15			16	-20			21	-25			≥2	26	
F	RACE	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α
RANK	TOT																												
1++ - 1	2			1				1																					
2-3	3							1																1				1	
4-6	46	3		5		3		2		4		4	1			11				5				5				3	
7-9	113	6		4		3		7	3	7		12		2		33				13				18				5	
10-12	32	1				6	1	3		2		5				8				3				2		1			
13-16	2					1														1									
17-19	7	1								3		1		2															
TOTAL	205	11	0	10	0	13	1	14	3	16	0	22	1	4	0	52	0	0	0	22	0	0	0	26	0	1	0	9	0

B = Black; W = White; C = Coloured; A = Asian

Table 21. Demographic information (tenure, ranks, race) of male academics

TE	NURE			<2			2	-5			6-	-10			11	-15			16	-20			21	-25			≥2	26	
	RACE	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α	В	С	W	Α
RANK	TOT																												
Dean	3					1					1			1															
Dep Dean	2														1					1									
HOD	19															4				3				6				6	
Professor	24			1				2		1		3				3								5				9	
Ass. Prof	16							2	1	1		2				2				4				1	1			2	
Snr Lect	20	2		1				1				4				6				3				2				1	
Lecturer	12	2		3		2				1		1				1				2									
Jnr Lect	7	1			1	1	2					1								1									
Ass Lect.	5	2		1		1		1																					
TOTAL	108	7	0	6	1	5	2	6	1	3	1	11	0	1	1	16	0	0	0	14	0	0	0	14	1	0	0	18	0

B = Black; W = White; C = Coloured; A = Asian

Figure 5 below, illustrates the racial composition of the research subjects in terms of the total of the research subjects and Tables 16-21 summarise the details of the racial distribution.

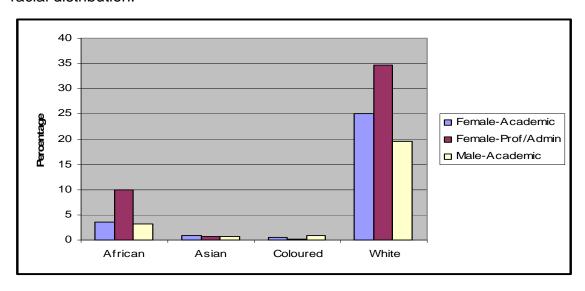


Figure 5. The Racial Composition of Research Subjects

Figure 5 and Tables 16 and 19 indicate that the racial composition of *female* academic respondents consisted of 15 black (3.4% of total research subjects), 5 Asian (1.1% of total research subjects), 2 coloured (0.5% of total research subjects) and 114 white (25.5% of total research subjects) respondents. The percentage in terms of the composition of the representation of female academics reveals that 11% of the female academic respondents were black, 3.7% of the respondents are Asian, 1.5% of the female academics respondents were coloured and 83.8% of the female academic respondents were white.

The racial composition of the *female professional/administrative personnel* as revealed in Tables 17 and 20 consisted of 45 black (10.1% of total research subjects), 4 Asian (0.9% of total research subjects), 1 coloured (0.2% of total research subjects) and 155 white respondents (34.7% of total research subjects). The percentage in terms of the composition of the representation of female professional/administrative personnel reveals that 22 % of the female professional/administrative respondents were black, 2 % Asian, 0.5 % coloured and 75.6 % were white.

According to Tables 18 and 21, the *male academic respondents* comprised of 16 black (3.6% of total research subjects), 3 Asian (0.7% of total research subjects), 5 coloured (1.1% of total research subjects) and 84 white males (18.8% of total research subjects). The percentage in terms of the composition of the representation of the subgroup: male academics reveal that 14.8 % of the male academics who responded to the primary study were black; 2.8 % Asian; 4.6 % coloured and 77.8 % were white males.

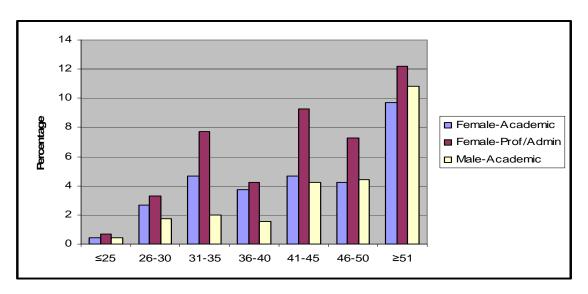


Figure 6. Composition of the Age Groups of the Research Subjects

Figure 6 and Tables 16-18 illustrate and summarise the composition of the age of the research subjects. Figure 6 illustrates the percentages in terms of the total of the research subjects with regard to the composition of the different age groups of research subjects.

The age composition of *female academics* are depicted in Table 16 and showed that of the total of the sub-sample, the age of 3 (0.7% of the total research subjects) fell in the range ≤25 years; while 13 (2.9% of total research subjects) fell in the age range 26-30 years; 20 (4.5% of the total research subjects) in the age range 31-35 years; 19 (4.3% of total research subjects) fell in the age range 36-40 years; 21 (4.7% of total research subjects) in the age range 41-45 years; 19 (4.3% of total research subjects) in the age range 46-50 years and 41 (9.2% of total research subjects) in the age range ≥51 years. The percentage in terms of the total composition of the female academic respondents is therefore as follows: 2.2% fell in the age range ≤25 years; 9.6% in the age range 26-30 years; 14.7% in the age range 31-35 years; 14% in the age range 36-40 years; 15.4% in the age range 41-45 years; 14% in the age range 46-50 years and 30.1% in the age range ≥51 years.

The age of the *female professional/administrative personnel* exhibited in Table 17 portrayed the following results: 4 (0.9% of total research subjects) fell in the age range ≤25 years; 16 (3.6%) of total research subjects in the age range 26-30 years; 35 (7.8% of total research subjects) in the age range 31-35 years; 20 (4.5% of total research subjects) in the age range 36-40 years; 41 (9.2% of total research subjects)

in the age range 41-45 years; 33 (9.6% of total research subjects) in the age range 46-50 years and 54 (12.1% of total research subjects) in the age range ≥51 years. percentages in terms of the total composition of professional/administrative personnel present the following: 2% of the female professional/administrative respondents fall in the age range ≤25 years; 7.9% in the age range 26-30 years; 17.2% in the age range 31-35 years; 9.9% in the age range 36-40 years; 20.2% in the age range 41-45 years; 16.3% in the age range 46-50 years and 26.6% in the age range ≥51 years.

Table 18 represents the age composition of *male academics* and revealed the following: 2 male academics (0.5% of the total research subjects) fell in the age range ≤25 years; 9 (2% of total research subjects) in the age range 26-30 years; 8 (1.8% of the total research subjects) in the age range 31-35 years; 7 (1.6% of total research subjects) in the age range 36-40 years; 17 (3.8% of total research subjects) in the age range 41-45 years; 19 (4.3% of total research subjects) in the age range ≥51 years. The percentages in terms of the total composition of the male academics presented the following: 1.9% of the female professional/administrative respondents fall in the age range ≤25 years; 8.3% in the age range 26-30 years; 7.4% in the age range 31-35 years; 6.5% in the age range 36-40 years; 15.7% in the age range ≥51 years.

In the three subgroups the white group seems to be the most predominant in the age range ≥51 years.

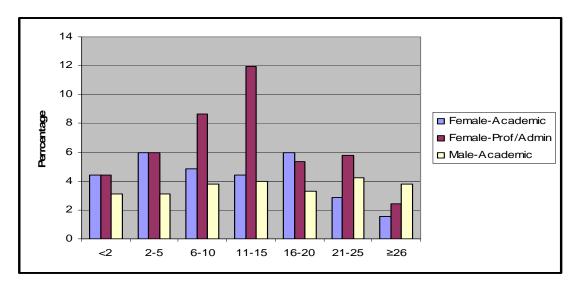


Figure 7. The Tenure or Years of Service of the Research Subjects

Figure 7 illustrates the tenure or the years of service of all the research subjects in the three categories. Tables 19-21 summarise the tenure or years of service of the research subjects in more detail.

The tenure or years of service of *female academics* falls in the range of 1.3% and 6.25% of the total research subjects as illustrated in Figure 7. Table 19 displays a summary of the tenure of female academics and revealed the following: 21 female academics (4.7% of the total research subjects) were employed at the institution for <2 years; 28 (6.3% of the total research subjects) for 2-5 years; 23 (5.1 % of the total research subjects) for 6-10 years; 19 (4.2% of the total research subjects) for 11-15 years; 25 (5.6% of the total research subjects) for 16-20 years; 13 (2.9% of the total research subjects) for 21-25 years and 6 (1.3% of the total research subjects) for \geq 26 years. With regard to the percentage of the subgroup female academics following was evident: 15.6% of the female academics were employed by the institution for <2 years; 20.7% for 2-5 years; 17% for 6-10 years; 14.1% for 11-15 years; 18.5% for 16-20 years; 9.6% for 21-25 years and 4.4% for \geq 26 years.

The years of service or tenure of *female professional/administrative personnel* is displayed in Table 20 which revealed the following: 21 female professional/administrative personnel (4.7% of the total research subjects) were employed at the institution for <2 years; 31 (6.9% of the total research subjects) for 2-5 years; 39 (8.7 % of the total research subjects) for 6-10 years; 56 (12.5% of the total research subjects) for 11-15 years; 22 (4.9% of the total research subjects) for

16-20 years; 26 (5.8% of the total research subjects) for 21-25 years and 10 (2.2% of the total research subjects) for ≥26 years. With regard to the percentage of the subgroup female professional/administrative personnel the following was evident: 10.2% of the female academics were employed by the institution for <2 years; 15.1% for 2-5 years; 19% for 6-10 years; 27.3% for 11-15 years; 10.7% for 16-20 years; 12.7% for 21-25 years and 4.9% for ≥26 years.

The tenure or years of service of *male academics* of the total research subjects are illustrated in Figure 7. Table 21 displays a summary of the tenure of male academics and revealed the following: 14 male academics (3.1% of the total research subjects) were employed at the institution for <2 years; 14 (3.1% of the total research subjects) for 2-5 years; 15 (3.3 % of the total research subjects) for 6-10 years; 18 (4% of the total research subjects) for 11-15 years; 14 (3.1% of the total research subjects) for 16-20 years; 15 (3.4% of the total research subjects) for 21-25 years and 18 (4% of the total research subjects) for ≥26 years. With regard to the percentage of the subgroup male academics following was evident: 13% of the male academics were employed by the institution for <2 years; 13% for 2-5 years; 13.9% for 6-10 years; 16.7% for 11-15 years; 13% for 16-20 years; 13.9% for 21-25 years and 16.7% for ≥26 years.

The percentage of male academics with the years of service or tenure of ≥26 years is significantly higher than that for female academics and female professional/administrative personnel.

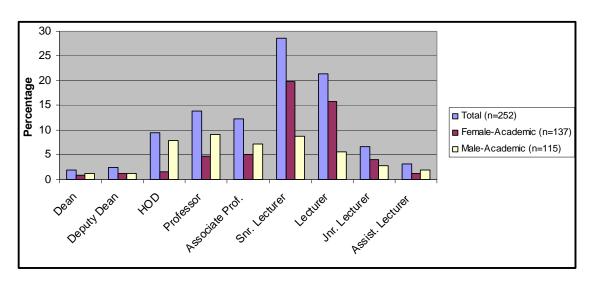


Figure 8. Composition of the Academic Ranks Held by Research Subjects

Figure 8 portrays the gender representations in the different academic positions at the institution. According to this figure female academics are the overwhelming majority in the positions of lecturer and junior lecturer while males are the most dominant in the positions of associate professor, full professor and HODs.

Figure 9 displays the racial distributions of the academic positions. The white racial group seems to be dominant in most groups. According to Table 18 and 21 there were no responses of white male deans to the primary study. One white male deputy dean and one white female deputy dean responded to the questionnaire in the primary study.

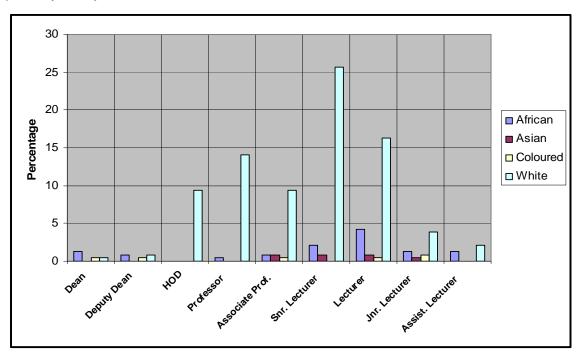


Figure 9. Racial Composition of Academic Ranks of Research Subjects

Tables 16 and 19; and 18 and 21 reveal the following with regard to the composition of the academic positions:

Five deans (3 male and 2 female) responded to the primary study. The three male deans consisted of two black and one coloured. All three of the male deans who responded fell within the age range of 41-45 whilst the female deans fell within the age range of 46-50 and \geq 51 respectively. The tenure (years of service) of the deans revealed that one black male dean worked at the institution for 2-5 years, the coloured male dean worked at the institution between six and 10 years and the other black male dean worked at the institution for 11-15 years. The tenure of female

deans revealed that the black female dean had worked for a period between 6-10 years and white female dean who responded had worked at the institution between 16-20 years. The deans comprised 2% of the total research subjects of academic positions. The two female deans represented 1.5% of the female academics and the three male deans 2.8% of the male academics.

For the position of deputy dean it was evident that the five deputy deans consisted of three females and two males. The female deputy deans seem to be older as they all fall within the range of ≥ 51 and their tenure ranges from 6-10 years for the one black female deputy dean; 16-20 years of service for the other black deputy dean and ≥ 26 years of service for the white female deputy dean. The two black male deputy deans fall within the age range of 41-45 years and 46-50 years, respectively. Only one black male professor responded whilst (23) white male professors responded. The deputy deans represented 2.1% of the total research subjects for academics positions. The three females represented 2.2% of the female academics and the two male deputy deans 1.9% of the male academics.

The representation for the HOD positions showed that 19 of the research subjects were white male academics and four of the research subjects were white females (i.e. 17 % were female). None of the other racial groups were represented in this academic position. One of the four female HODs fell in the age range of 46-50 years and the other three were \geq 51 years. The age of male HODs showed that two fell in the range 41-45; another two were 46-50 and 15 were \geq 51 years. The years of service (tenure) of male HODs range between 11- \geq 26 years and that of female HODs 16 - \geq 26 years. It seems as if white male academics were the most dominant in this position at the time of the primary study. The HODs represented 9.4% of the research subjects for academics positions. The four females represented 2.9% of the female academics and the 19 male HODs 17.6% of the male academics.

The full professor representation reveals that there are 24 male professors and 12 female professors. The racial composition shows that one male professor is black and 23 are white and of the 11 female professors only one is black and 11 are white. The age range for both males and females occupying this position is the same and range between 41- \geq 51 years. Seventeen of the male professors and 5 of the female professors, thus 22 of the 36 (61 %) fall in the age range \geq 51 years. The full

professors represented 14.8% of the total research subjects for academics positions. The 12 females represented 8.8% of the female academics and the 24 males 22.2% of the male academics.

The composition of the position of associate professor revealed that 16 males and 12 females responded to the primary study. Apart from the one black and one coloured female associate professors, 10 of the 12 were white. With regard to the males, it showed that thirteen of the 16 were white, one was black and two were Asian. The age range for males and females occupying this position is similar, i.e. between 36 and \geq 51 years. The years of service (tenure) for females range from < 2 to 25 years and for males the range is 2 - \geq 26 years. The associate professors represented 11.5% of the total research subjects for academics positions. The 12 females represented 8.8% of the female academics and 16 males 14.8% of the male academics.

The scenario for senior lecturers is significantly different. Forty-eight females occupying this position responded to this study and twenty males. Thus, 71 % of the respondents for this position were female and male representation, 29 %. The racial composition of the male respondents consisted of 2 blacks and 18 whites whilst the female respondents consisted of 2 Asians, 3 blacks and 43 whites. With regard to the age of the respondents it showed that the 2 black males are the youngest occupants of this position as one seems to be \leq 25 years and the other fall in the age range 26-30 years, the age range of the white male senior lecturers is 31- ≥51 years. With regard to females the following was evident: the age range 26-30 years consist of two black, two white and one Asian female, the age range 31-35 years consist of one black and five white of the females, the age range 26-40 years, while the age range 41-≥51 years consisted of only white females. The years of services (tenure) of the females revealed that for the period < 2 years, five white and one Asian were appointed in this position, in the range of tenure 2-5 years three black, five white and one Asian female were appointed in this position, whilst in the tenure range 6-≥26 years only white females occupied this position. With regard to the years of service of the males occupying this position, the tenure range < 2 years consisted of two black and one white senior lecturers and the tenure range 2- ≥26 years showed that it was occupied by white males only. The senior lecturers represented 27.9% of the

total research subjects for academics positions. The forty-eight females represented 35.3% of the female academics and the twenty males 18.5% of the male academics.

The position of lecturer also showed a significant difference. The female representation was overwhelming at 76 % (42) with male representation, 24 % (13). The racial composition of the males occupying this position shows that five black (i.e. 38 %) and eight white (i.e. 62 %) males occupy this position. The racial composition of the females revealed that it consisted of five black, one coloured, thirty three whites and three Asian females. The age of the females in this position ranges from $\leq 25 - \geq 51$ years and $26 - \geq 51$ years for the males. The years of service of females displays a range of ≤ 2 - 25 years and that of males ≤ 2 - 20 years. The lecturers represented 22.5% of the total research subjects for academics positions. The 42 females represented 30.9% of the female academics and the 13 males 12% of the male academics.

The position of junior lecturer seems to be more equally represented by the genders and consist of 7 males (44%) and 9 females (56%). The racial composition of males in this position consists of two black, two coloured, two white and one Asian, the racial representation of females consists of one black and eight white respondents. The age of females in this position range from 26 - ≥51 years, whilst the age range of the males is 26-35 years and one respondent falls in the age range, 46-50 years. The tenure for males is involve the range <2-5 years for five, 6-10 years for one and 16-20 years for one of the male junior lecturers. The range of the years of service (tenure) for females is broader and range between <2-20 years. The junior lecturers represented 6.6% of the total research subjects for academics positions. The nine females represented 6.6% of the female academics and the seven males 6.5% of the male academics.

The lowest academic position is that of assistant lecturer. The gender composition consists of four females (40%) and six males (60%). The racial composition of the females in this position is one black and three white whilst the males consist of three white and three black. The age range of the females revealed that two females fall between $\le 25 - 30$ years and two falls in the range ≥ 51 years. The males' age range from $\le 25 - 35$ years for five respondents and one falls in the range 46-50 years. The tenure of both the females and males fall in the range of <2-5 years. The assistant

lecturers represented 4.1% of the total research subjects for academics positions. The four females represented 2.9% of the female academics and the six males represented 5.6% of the male academics.

5.7 Discussion of Research Results

In this study the data were used to test the hypotheses and to explain the existing perceptions of female academics regarding the management of transformation. The results are presented in table format per hypothesis followed by an explanation. At the end of the presentation of the result a summary of the research findings follows.

Each hypothesis is stated, followed by a brief description of the analysis that was done and the number of respondents used. Thereafter, a table with the results is displayed and an explanation of the results follows.

The interpretation of the mean scores is based on the following scoring table (Table 22) used by the independent consultants in the primary study. This scoring table used a cut-off point of 3.20 (64%) of the mean (as recommended by the Human Sciences Research Council) to distinguish between negative and positive perception.

Table 22. The Scoring Table

EXCELLENT	5.00	No indication for intervention
	4.00	
POSITIVE	3.20	Pro-active Intervention Point
DEVELOPMENT	2.50 1 2.00	Intervention Point
CRITICAL	0%	Unfavourable

(Mandate Molefi, 2003)

Hypothesis 1: There is no difference in perceptions about the management of transformation between male and female academic personnel.

In order to test Hypothesis 1, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 23. The total number of the research subjects used in testing this hypothesis was n = 252. This hypothesis implied a comparison of the male (n = 115) and female (n = 137) academic personnel who responded to the primary study.

Table 23. ANOVA of Academics by Gender about their Perceptions on the Management of Transformation

Gender	Dimensions											
Gender	Leadership and Management		Policies and Procedures		Diversity and Equity		Communication		Change and Transformation			
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation		
Male (n=115)	3.28 ^a	0.70	3.16 ^a	0.56	3.30 ^a	0.50	3.06 ^a	0.76	3.55 ^a	0.59		
Female(n=137)	3.26 ^a	0.63	3.16 ^a	0.64	3.21 ^a	0.56	3.27 ^b	0.71	3.47 ^a	0.64		
P-value	0.6534		0.9920		0.1670		0.	0367*	0.3287			

^{a, b} = means with common characters are not significantly different (interpret column-wise within a Factor e.g. Gender)

The results in Table 16 indicate that one dimension, i.e. the dimension on Communication, implies a significant difference between the gender perceptions of academic personnel. A difference is regarded as significant when the p-value (probability) is less than 0.05. In this instance, the mean score for female academics (mean = 3.27, p = .037) is significantly higher than the mean score of the male academics (mean = 3.06). All scores resulted in mean values which fall in an interval of (3.06, 3.55). This shows that according to the scoring table used by the independent consultants in the primary study, most respondents held positive perceptions, except for male academics on the dimension Communication. It could, therefore, be concluded that the hypothesis is not affirmed as the male and female academics do have a significant difference on the dimension: Communication. This implies that female academics perceive this dimension significantly more positive than their male counterparts.

^{*} p < .05.

Hypothesis 2: There is no difference in perceptions regarding transformation between female academics and female professional/administrative personnel.

To test this hypothesis an ANOVA was performed. Table 24 represents the results applicable to this hypothesis. The total number of the research subjects used for this analysis is n = 321. This hypothesis was applicable to the female personnel, both academic (n = 129) and profession/administrative (n = 192) who responded to the questionnaire of the primary study. A comparison was made between the perceptions of female academics the perceptions of female versus professionals/administrators.

Table 24. ANOVA for Female Personnel in Different Job Categories about the Management of Transformation

Female		Dimensions												
Personnel	Personnel Leadership and Management		Policies and Procedures		Diversity and Equity		Communication		Change and Transformation					
	Mean Standard deviation		Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation				
Academic (n=129)	3.26 ^a	0.64	3.15 ^a	0.65	3.20 ^a	0.57	3.27 ^a	0.71	3.49 ^a	0.64				
Professional/ Admin (n=192)	3.14 ^a	0.63	2.95 ^b	0.60	3.09ª	0.54	3.19ª	0.80	3.32ª	0.58				
P-value	C).1583	0.0062**		0.1746		0	.5042	0.2188					

^{a, b} = means with common characters are not significantly different (interpret column-wise within a Factor e.g. Female personnel)

The mean score for the dimension Policies and procedures was significantly higher for the female academics (mean = 3.15, p = .006) in comparison to the female professional/administrative personnel (mean = 2.95). It can therefore be accepted that there is significant difference in perceptions between these two groups of female personnel. The mean scores of both groups fell within the parameters of (2.95 and This is an indication that, according to the scoring table used by the 3.49). independent consultants in the primary study, female academics hold more positive perceptions than female professional/administrative personnel with regard to this The mean scores for the other dimensions also indicate that female dimension. academic hold positive perceptions than female personnel more professional/administrative personnel, although there are no significant differences. The result of mean scores further revealed that female professional/administrative

^{**} p < .01.

personnel need more development and/or intervention in the dimensions: Policies and procedures (mean = 2.95); Diversity and equity (mean = 3.09); and Leadership and management (mean = 3.14). Therefore, it appears as if the perceptions of female academics are generally more positive compared to the female professional/administrative personnel. It could thus be argued that the hypothesis is not affirmed, as the results revealed that there is a significant difference on the dimension Policies and procedures.

Hypothesis 3: Older (41 years and older) female academic personnel hold more negative perceptions about the transformation and change process at the university than younger (40 years and younger) female academic personnel.

This hypothesis was tested by conducting an ANOVA and is based on the age of female academic personnel. The results of this analysis are displayed in Table 25. The total number of research subjects for this hypothesis is n = 128 and consisted of all the female academics who responded to the questionnaire in the primary study. The group of female academic respondents was divided into two groups, one group 40 years and younger of age (n = 51) and the other group as can be described as those 41 years and older (n = 77), and then compared with each other.

Table 25. ANOVA for female academics of different ages on the management of transformation

Age					Dime	ensions					
(Yrs)		Leadership and Management		Policies and Procedures		Diversity and Equity		Communication		ange and nsformation	
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	
≤ 40 (n=51)	3.19ª	0.67	3.19 ^a	0.68	3.17 ^a	0.63	3.33ª	0.71	3.48 ^a	0.61	
≥ 41 (n =77)	3.30 ^a	0.63	3.13 ^a	0.63	3.23 ^a	0.54	3.23 ^a	0.72	3.50 ^a	0.66	
P-value	0.0698		0.6055		0.6671		0	.6227	0.2615		

^{a, b} = means with common characters are not significantly different (interpret column-wise within a Factor e.g. Female personnel)

According to this results there are no significant differences in the perceptions of the two different age groups of the female academics for any of the dimensions as the lowest score/coefficient is (p = .0698) for the dimension: Leadership and management (see Table 18). No clear pattern was evident in the results. However,

all mean scores fell within the interval (3.13, 3.50) and were generally positive according to the scoring table used by the independent consultants in the primary study, except for the mean score of the older group of female academic on the dimension: policies and procedures (mean = 3.13). Although there is no significant difference in the results, female academics in the group: 40 and younger, scored more negative (lower) on three dimensions: Leadership and management, Diversity and management and Change and transformation.

The hypothesis was, therefore, not affirmed as the two age groups seem to have relatively positive perceptions about the management of the transformation process.

Hypothesis 4: There is no difference in perceptions regarding transformation between female academic personnel with 10 or less years of service and female academics with 11 or more years of service.

Hypothesis 4 was tested by means of an ANOVA. Table 26 presents the results of the analysis of this hypothesis. The total number of the research subjects used for the analysis of this hypothesis is n = 128. The hypothesis is founded on the comparison of female academics with the length of service of 10 years (n = 66) and less and the length of service with 11 years and more (n = 62).

Table 26. ANOVA for Female Academics with a Length of Service ≤ 10 Years Compared to Female Academics with a Length of Service of ≥ 11 Years

Service					Dime	ensions		Dimensions											
(Yrs)	Leadership and Management		Policies and Procedures		Diversity and Equity		Comn	nunication	Change and Transformation										
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation									
≤ 10 (n=66)	3.32 ^a	0.55	3.15	0.68	3.19	0.60	3.29	0.69	3.55	0.58									
≥ 11 (n=62)	3.19	0.74	3.16	0.62	3.23	0.55	3.25	0.75	3.43	0.69									
P-value	0.6964		0.3932		0.9570		0	.7245	0.6392										

a, b = means with common characters are not significantly different [interpret column-wise within a Factor e.g. Service (Yr)]

The result of the testing of this hypothesis shows that the lowest p-value = .3932 for the dimension Policies and procedure. This proves that there is no significant difference in the perception of the two groups of female academics categorised by

the years of service. The mean scores fall within the parameters 3.15 and 3.55 and this implies that according to the scoring table used by the independent consultants in the primary study, the female academics in these groups hold generally positive perceptions on all the dimensions. It could therefore be concluded that this hypothesis is affirmed, as the mean scores are very similar. It therefore seems as if the length of service is not a determining factor that impacts the perceptions of female academics as there is no significant difference in the perceptions of female academics.

Hypothesis 5: Black female academic personnel hold more positive perceptions about the management of transformation and change process at the university than white female academic personnel.

Hypothesis 5 was analysed by means of an ANOVA. Table 27 portrays the results of the testing of this hypothesis. The total number of the research subjects used for the analysis of this hypothesis is n = 128. The hypothesis is based on the comparison of the different racial groups within the female academic group. For the purposes of this study the racial group black includes all black, coloured and Asian female academics who responded to the primary study (n = 21) and racial group whites includes all the white female academics who responded to the primary study (n = 107).

Table 27. ANOVA for the Female Academics of Different Races on their Perception of the Management of Transformation

					Dime	ensions				
Race		ership and agement	Policies and Procedures		Diversity and Equity		Communication		Change and Transformation	
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
black + coloured + Asian (n=21)	3.62 ^a	0.66	3.32 ^a	0.69	3.16 ^a	0.67	3.39ª	0.72	3.82ª	0.60
white(n=107)	3.19 ^b	0.62	3.12 ^a	0.64	3.22 ^a	0.55	3.25 ^a	0.72	3.43 ^b	0.63
P-value	0.	0.0020**		0.1539		0.7686		.6566	0.0085**	

^{a, b} = means with common characters are not significantly different (interpret column-wise within a Factor e.g. Female personnel)

^{**} p < .01.

There is a significant difference between the perceptions of black female academics and white female academics in the dimensions Change and transformation (p = .0085) and Leadership and management (p = .0020). In the instance of Leadership and management, the mean score for black female academics is (mean = 3.62) whilst it is (mean = 3.19) for white female academics. With regard to Change and transformation, the mean score for black female academics is (mean = 3.82) whilst the mean score for white female academics is (mean = 3.43). The mean score of this hypothesis testing fall within the range of (3.12 and 3.82). This indicates that according to the scoring table used by the independent consultant in the primary study, on all of the dimensions most female academics of the two racial groups, hold positive perceptions, except for the dimension: Policies and procedures where the white female academics attained a mean score of (mean = 3.12).

As two of the results indicate a significant difference it could be argued that the hypothesis is affirmed. According to the results of the analyses black female academics seem to hold more positive perceptions on four of the five dimensions, namely: Leadership and management; Policies and procedures, Communication and Change and transformation. The only dimension on that black female academics seem to perceive more negatively than their white female colleagues is the dimension: Diversity and equity. However, the significant differences appear to be on Leadership and management and Change and transformation on which black female academics appear to be significantly more positive.

Hypothesis 6: Female academics in lower level (junior lecturer and lecturer) positions at the institution hold more positive perceptions about the management of transformation at the institution than female academics in higher level (senior lecturer and above) positions.

To test this hypothesis an ANOVA was performed. Table 28 represents the results applicable to this hypothesis as part of this analysis. The number of the research subjects used for this analysis is n = 137. This hypothesis was intended to gauge the perceptions of female academic personnel, who responded to the questionnaire of the primary study, with regard to the level of their academic position. Therefore, a comparison was made between the perceptions of female academics in positions of

lecturer and below (n =53) versus the perceptions of female academics who hold positions in Senior lecturer and above (n = 84).

Table 28. ANOVA for the Perceptions on the Management of Transformation of Female Academics Occupying Different of Academic Positions

		Dimensions												
Academic Position	Leadership and Management		Policies and Procedures		Diversity and Equity		Communication		Change and Transformation					
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation				
Lecturer & below (n=53)	3.23 ^a	0.49	3.15ª	0.67	3.19ª	0.59	3.36ª	0.67	3.39ª	0.54				
Snr Lecturer & above (n=84)	3.27ª	0.71	3.16ª	0.63	3.23ª	0.55	3.21ª	0.73	3.52ª	0.70				
P-value	C).6274	C	0.9302	O	.6073	0	.2216	C	0.1360				

^{a, b} = means with common characters are not significantly different [interpret column-wise within a Factor e.g. Position.

The results reveal that none of the dimensions appear to be significantly different on a 5% level. The lowest mean score seems to be on the dimension Change and transformation ($p \ge .1360$). In this instance, the female academics in the lecturer and below group attained a mean score of (mean = 3.39) and the female academics in the senior lecturer and above group attained a mean score of (mean = 3.52). All the mean scores fall within the interval of (3.15 and 3.52) which indicates that according to the scoring table used by the independent consultants in the primary study, both groups of female academics in the different positions hold positive perceptions on all of the dimensions.

Since there is no significant difference in the perceptions of female academics in lower level and those holding higher level positions, this hypothesis was not affirmed. However, even though there is no significant difference, there seem to be a pattern as the female academics in lower ranking positions seem to score lower than their colleagues in higher ranking positions on four of the five dimensions. It could therefore be deduced that the female academics in lower ranking positions seem to be more negatively inclined. The only dimension on which this lower level group of female academics scored higher was on Communication and it could therefore be presumed that they are more positive about this dimension.

Hypothesis 7: Female professional/administrative personnel in lower level (grade 7-16) positions at the institution hold more positive perceptions about the management of transformation at the institution than female professional/administrative personnel in higher level (grade 1⁺⁺ - 6) positions.

This hypothesis was tested by conducting an ANOVA and is based on the level of appointment of female professional/administrative personnel. The results of this analysis are displayed in Table 29. The total number of research subjects used for this hypothesis is n = 192. The group of female professionals/administrative personnel who responded to the primary study was divided into two groups; one group holding positions in grades 1-6 (n = 44) and group in grades 7-19 (n = 148). This hypothesis then compared the perceptions of these two groups.

Table 29. ANOVA for the Management of Transformation of Female Academics Occupying Lower Levels Positions and Female Professional/Administrative Personnel Occupying Higher Level Positions

Drof/	Dimensions												
Prof/ Admin		ership and nagement	Policies and Procedures		Diversity and Equity		Communication		Change and Transformation				
Position	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation			
Grade 1 to 6 (n=44)	3.15 ^a	0.67	2.95 ^a	0.56	3.12 ^a	0.56	3.21 ^a	0.82	3.47 ^a	0.57			
Grade 7 to 19 (n=148)	3.13ª	0.62	2.96 ^a	0.61	3.08 ^a	0.54	3.18 ^a	0.79	3.28 ^a	0.57			
P-value	0.8821		0.8540		0.6426		0	.9448	0.0534				

^{a, b} = means with common characters are not significantly different (interpret column-wise within a Factor e.g. Position)

The dimension with the lowest probability result is Change and transformation (p = .0534) which is on the border and technically speaking above .05. In this instance, the mean score for female professional/administrative personnel in grade 1-6 was (mean = 3.47) whilst the mean score for female professional/administrative personnel was more negative (mean = 3.28). It could therefore be argued that none of the dimensions were significantly different on a 5% level. The mean score of the results fall in the range of (2.95 and 3.47). This is an indication that according to the scoring table used by the independent consultants in the primary study, the female professional/administrative personnel generally hold positive perceptions. However, the result of the mean scores in Table 29 shows that, according to the scoring table,

the following dimensions could benefit from developmental interventions: (i) Policies and procedures where both lower and higher professionals/administrative personnel perceptions could be developed, as in this instance female professionals/administrative personnel in Grade 1-6 attained a mean score (mean = 2.95) and those in grade 7-19 attained a mean score (mean = 2.96); (ii) Diversity and equity where both lower and higher level female professionals/administrative personnel perceptions leave room for development, as in this instances female professionals/administrative personnel in Grade 1-6 attained a mean score (mean = 3.12) and those in grade 7-19 attained a mean score (mean = 3.08); and (iii) Leadership and management where the perceptions of female professionals/administrative personnel could benefit from interventions as the a mean score is 3.13).

However, generally the results on the perceptions of the female academics holding different levels of positions as professional/administrative personnel are very similar and technically speaking there is no significant difference in their perceptions. However, there is an inclination for female professionals/administrative personnel in the lower levels to have higher mean scores in four of the five dimensions (thus, except for Policies and procedures), even though it is not significantly different. This hypothesis was therefore not affirmed. However, the lowest result (.0534) was on the dimension Change and transformation, where the female personnel in the lower levels attained higher than higher level female mean score professional/administrative personnel.

Hypothesis 8: Female academics in lower level academic positions hold more negative perceptions than female professional/administrative personnel in higher level positions.

An ANOVA was performed to test this hypothesis. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 30. The number of the research subjects used, was n=90. This hypothesis compared the perceptions on the management of transformation and change of females in lower level academics positions (n=53) with the perceptions females in higher level professional/administrative positions (n=47). The lower level academic positions are defined as those positions that include positions of lectureship and lower while the higher level professional/administrative positions are

level 1-6 positions. Therefore, the perceptions of female personnel holding positions at these levels were compared.

Table 30. ANOVA for Female Professional/ Administrative Personnel Occupying Higher Level Positions and Female Academics Occupying Lower Level Positions

					Dime	ensions				
Position		ership and nagement	Policies and Procedures		Diversity and Equity		Communication		Change and Transformation	
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Grade 1 to 6 (n=47)	3.15 ^a	0.67	2.95 ^a	0.56	3.13 ^a	0.56	3.21 ^a	0.82	3.46 ^a	0.57
Lecturer and under (n=53)	3.23 ^a	0.49	3.16ª	0.67	3.19ª	0.59	3.36ª	0.67	3.39ª	0.54
P-value	0.5286		0.0905		0.5327		0.	.3341	0.3803	

^{a, b} = means with common characters are not significantly different (interpret column-wise within a Factor e.g. Position)

The dimension with the lowest result is Policies and procedures (p \geq .0905). It could therefore be argued that none of the dimensions were significantly different on a 5% level. The mean score of the results fall in the range of (2.95 and 3.46) which indicates that on all or most of the dimensions, the options selected fell within the bracket Undecided to Agree on the Likert-scale.

It is therefore evident that there is no significant difference in the perceptions of female academics in lower level positions and that of females holding higher level professional/ administrative positions. The hypothesis was therefore not affirmed. Even though the hypothesis was not affirmed, a pattern emerged. This pattern stems from the fact that on four of the five dimensions the higher ranking professional/administrative female personnel scored lower (thus more negative) than the female academic personnel. The dimension on which female professional/administrative personnel seemed more positive is the dimension Change and transformation.

Hypothesis 9: Female academics in higher level academic positions hold more positive perceptions on the management of transformation and change process than female personnel occupying lower level professional/administrative positions.

In order to test this hypothesis an ANOVA was conducted. The results of this analysis are revealed in Table 31. The number of the sample used, was n = 233. This hypothesis implied that the perceptions on the management of transformation and change process held by females in higher level academic positions (n = 84) with should be compared the perceptions females in lower level professional/administrative positions (n = 149) who responded to the primary study. The higher level academic positions are defined as those positions that include positions of senior lectureship and while the lower upper level professional/administrative positions are grade 7-16 positions. Thus, the perceptions of female personnel holding positions at these levels were compared.

Table 31. ANOVA for Female Professional/Administrative Personnel Occupying Lower Level Positions and Female Academics Occupying Higher Level Positions

		Dimensions												
Position	Leadership and Management		Policies and Procedures		Diversity and Equity		Communication		Change and Transformation					
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation				
Grade 7 to 16 (n=149)	3.13 ^a	0.62	2.96 ^a	0.61	3.08 ^a	0.54	3.18ª	0.79	3.28 ^a	0.57				
Snr. Lecturer and above (n=84)	3.27 ^a	0.71	3.16 ^b	0.63	3.13 ^b	0.57	3.21 ^a	0.73	3.52 ^b	0.70				
P-value	(0.0833		0178**	0	.0323*	0	.9450	0.0028**					

^{a, b} = means with common characters are not significantly different (interpret column-wise within a Factor e.g.

Female personnel)

From the results it is evident that female academics in higher level positions (senior lecturer and above) scored significantly higher than female personnel in lower level professional/administrative positions for the dimensions for Policies and procedures (p = .0178), Diversity and equity (p = .0323) as well as Change and transformation (p = .0028). The dimension with the lowest result is Change and transformation

^{*} p < .05.

^{**} p < .01.

($p \ge .0028$). It could therefore be argued that in three of the dimensions perceptions are significantly different on a 5% level. The mean score of the results fall in the range of (2.96 and 3.52) which indicates that on all or most of the dimensions, the options selected fell within the bracket Undecided to Agree on the Likert-scale.

It could therefore be argued that female academics hold more positive perceptions with regard to the management of the change and transformation process at this institution of higher education. This hypothesis is therefore affirmed. Although there was a significant difference in three of the five dimensions, female academics seem to be generally more positive than the female professional/administrative personnel who participated in the primary study. This is deduced from the fact that the mean score of the female academics in higher ranking position is higher than that of female professional/administrative personnel on all of the dimensions.

5.8 Summary

This chapter explained that the statistical procedures used to analyse the data were factor analysis and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The validity and reliability of the measuring instrument was affirmed and the research results were discussed. The scoring table used by the independent consultants in the primary study was presented and this was followed by the presentation of the research results. Each hypothesis tested stated first, followed by a discussion of the results.

In the next chapter the research results will be interpreted by drawing conclusions and revealing the major findings of the study. It will also state the limitations of the study and make recommendations with regard to future research.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUMMARY

6.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to draw conclusions, state the limitations with regard to this study and to make recommendations for future studies and it concludes with a summary of the study.

6.2 Conclusions

The following conclusions are drawn from the research results of this study as presented and discussed in Chapter 5.

The demographic information at this distance education institution reflects the trends apparent in most of South Africa's HWUs as the following became apparent:

The racial composition shows a poor representation of black, coloured and Asian female academics as they comprise only 16.2% of the female academic respondents, while white female academic respondents consisted of 83.8%. With regard to the male academic respondents, white male academics comprised 77.8% while 75.6% of the female professional/administrative staff, were white. The human resource management department of this institution will therefore need to focus on achieving parity with regard to these figures on diversity and equity.

The age composition of the respondents revealed that 51% of the academic personnel is 46 years and older. Forty-four percent of female academics was 46 years and older while 60.2% of the male academics was 46 years and older at the time of the primary study. The phenomenon of the ageing workforce is thus apparent in the age of the respondents and the human resource management department

should take note thereof and provide for this occurrence in forecasting the human resources needs of the institution.

The tenure or years of services of the respondents revealed that female academics seem to have entered the academic arena later than their male counterparts as 53.3% of the female academics' tenure or years of service was 10 years and less, which means that 46.7% have worked at the institution for 11 and more years. The tenure of female professional/administrative personnel revealed that 55.6% worked at the institution for 11 years and more. The years of service of the male academics show that 60.3% had a tenure of 11 years and more whilst 39.7% of the male academics were employed for 10 years and less. This corresponds with the findings of Brooks (1997) and Petersen and Gravette (2000) who found that females enter academia later than their male counterparts and therefore this might impact the level of seniority that they might reach in academia. This could also suggest that the institution only started to address its inequitable gender distribution in the last ten years. Moreover, the literature study revealed that females had limited access to resources and the closed circles of the "old boys' network".

With regard to the academic ranks, it is evident that the white racial group are predominant at most ranks. The most senior positions where decision-making occurs is still predominantly occupied by white males as only four white females of the HOD positions responded while 19 white male academics in this position responded. The respondents in full and associate professorships also showed that there is a tremendous under-representation of the different racial groups since for the full professorship, only one female academic and one male academic occupying this position responded. Female academics in these positions occupied one-third of the positions. The composition of the respondents who occupy the position from senior lectureship downwards were more diverse, however white female academics were mostly represented. This corresponds with the finding of Gwele (1998) that female academics in the lower ranking positions are not as poorly represented as black academics.

The implications of the demographic information could therefore have a major impact for the human resource planning of this institution and should be carefully considered. The discussion of the results revealed that female and male academics seem to be relatively positive with regard to the management of transformation at this institution as their mean score fell within the range of 3.26-3.28. The perceptions of male academics are slightly more positive than female academics with regard to the dimension of Leadership and management and it could be assumed that female academics are insignificantly less positive than the male academics. This could be attributed to the fact that female academics are not well represented in leadership and management positions, which are often associated with decision-making as revealed in the literature study (Phaala, 2000; Mbabane, 2001). However, male academics seem to be significantly more negative than female academics with regard to the dimension: Communication, as their mean score was significantly lower. According to Daniel (1997), male academics often use the manner in which they communicate to exert power and with the change and transformation at this institution, these male academics might feel that this tool of exerting their power has now affected. Therefore, the prospect of transformation and change might create fear and uncertainty and their quest for communication would assist in elevating this fear and uncertainty. As the composition of management and leadership at the institution has changed, the white male academics are now at risk of sacrificing that power and this could influence the more negative perceptions in this regard. This could thus imply that female academics perceive Communication significantly more positive than their male counterparts. It could also be assumed that female academics are more likely to perceive the institution's internal communication system as effective, and that they perceive the institution to be transparent and open with regard to the matters that are applicable to them as female academics. They might also perceive the institution's newsletter to adequately address their needs and they regard the institution's external communication to be effective in marketing and promoting the institution.

In relation to male academics, female academics are slightly less positive with regard to the dimension of Leadership and management. However, when female academics are compared to female professional/administrative personnel, female academics seem to be more positive. Female academics revealed a more positive mean score for their perceptions on Leadership and management, although it was not significantly different. The range of the mean scores is 3.14 to 3.26 with female academics portraying the more positive perceptions. The mean score of female

professional/administrative personnel seem to indicate that some intervention or development is required, with regard to this dimension. The more positive disposition of female academics could be ascribed to the fact that they might have a greater sense of belonging and might feel more secure with regard to their position in the institution than their professional/administrative counterparts. The majority of female personnel who responded to the questionnaire were white female personnel and this could have impacted the mean score attained, especially since the white females occupying professional/administrative positions might feel that their job security will be at risk in the process of change and transformation. The promotion possibilities with regard to female academics may be more realistic as there are specific requirements that need to be met, whereas the promotion within the professional/administrative environment is more complex and competitive and this might also influence the perceptions held by female professional/administrative personnel.

When female academics are divided in two groups based on their age, i.e. ≤ 40 years old and those ≥ 41 years old, both groups seem to be relatively positive about the leadership and management in the institution. However, the group of female academics who are 41 years and older seem to hold slightly more positive perceptions than the younger group with regard to the management and leadership of the organisation. This could be an indication that all female academics, no matter what their age, share a mutual ground. According to the literature, female academics regard the flexibility that the academic environment provides as a positive aspect of their work. This flexibility provides the female academics the opportunity to balance their personal and work responsibilities to a certain degree and could contribute to the relatively positive disposition with regard to leadership and management. The younger female academics seem to be insignificantly less positive than the older female academics. This could be ascribed to the fact that younger females are not sufficiently represented in leadership and management positions as the female academics who are involved in decision-making fall among the older group.

There is also no significant difference in the perceptions of female academics when they are divided into two groups (\leq 10 years and \geq 11 years) according to their years of service or tenure. However, the female academics with \leq 10 years of service seem to be more positive than those with a longer tenure. The composition of

management and leadership has changed during this period and this might explain why those with a shorter tenure are more positive about the management and leadership. The change in leadership and management might have created uncertainty and apprehension for those who have been with the institution for more that 11 years and this could therefore account for their inclination to be more negative.

It is interesting to note that although the younger female academics are less positive than the older female academics, the female academics with less than 10 years of service at the institution are more positive than those with more than 11 years of service. This could be attributed to the influence of a more diverse racial distribution, the more black female academics were appointed in the less than 10 year category.

With regard to the various racial groups to which female academics belong, there seem to be a significant difference in their perception on management and leadership. Although both groups are relatively positive, the black group of female academics (i.e. Asian, coloured and black female academics) seem to be significantly more positive than their white counterparts. Most of the black female academics seem to have been appointed in the ≤ 10 years period; this coincides with the period where the composition of management has changed. Therefore, it could be assumed that black female academics associate better with the changed leadership and management than their white counterparts. The group of female academics in the shorter tenure seem to be more racially diverse than the group of female academics with a longer tenure or years of service at the institution, as those with the longer tenure seem to be predominantly white female academics. It should also be noted that the female personnel in the most senior positions of both academic and professional/administrative positions are predominantly occupied by white females.

When the academic ranks are considered there is no significant difference; however, the higher ranking female academics are insignificantly more positive than the lower ranking female academics. This could suggest that most female academics are crammed in the lower level academic positions. This deviation could therefore be accounted to the fact that lower ranking female academics are more frustrated with their bigger teaching load, with fewer opportunities to do research as well as lesser

involvement in decision-making. The higher academic positions are mostly occupied by white female academics, whilst the greater percentage of black, coloured and Asian female academics are employed in lower level academic positions. The notion of the "old boys' network" might be at play in this instance as the "old boys' network" in academic circles is still dominated by white male academics. This close circuit of so-called 'white boys' often surrounds and influences the few blacks (male or female) in management and as result, this might support the negative perceptions of the female academics in lower level positions.

When the female academics in lower level academic positions are compared to professional/administrative female personnel in higher level professional/administrative positions, female academics seem to be more positive with regard to leadership and management although the difference is not significant. It should be noted that there are a greater percentage of black, coloured and Asian female academics in the lower ranking academic positions whilst the higher level female professional/administrative positions are mainly occupied by white females. Therefore, it could be assumed that race might have an impact on this outcome. Another factor to consider is that the majority of the white female professional/administrative personnel in higher ranking positions are working closely with management and leadership and might regard the 'new' management as a threat to their positions and upward mobility in the organisation.

Female academics in higher level academic positions seem to be more positive than female professional/administrative personnel in lower level positions. This could be attributed to the fact that females in higher academic positions feel more confident about the changes in the composition of the new management and leadership which might have broken the impact of the old boys' network. They are possibly better able to identify with the leadership and management or it might suggest that female academics in higher ranking positions have taken charge and ownership and are thus more confident, have a more satisfied and loyal disposition and therefore have a better sense of belonging to the institution.

Female and male academics seem to share their relatively positive perceptions with regard to the policies and procedures. It seems as if the academics regard the policies and procedures to be implemented fairly and it can be assumed that the academics agree that the policies and procedures are transparent and appropriate. These perceptions might be influenced by the fact that academics did not perceive any visible changes in the policies and procedures at the time that the primary study was done as it was executed before the proposed merging with two other institutions.

There is, however, a significant difference with regard to the perceptions of female professional/administrative personnel who seem to be more negatively inclined with regard to policies and procedures. As the female professional/administrative personnel who responded were pre-dominantly white, it should be noted that the change in the composition of management and leadership and the proposed changes to policies and procedures might have created a sense of insecurity among the professional/administrative personnel and this could have an impact on their response in this regard. The implementation of the Employment Equity Act and the various amendments to existing policies and procedures could have brought about feelings of insecurity. It should further be noted that the many administrative staff have dealt with the policies and procedures and might therefore be more acquainted with their content and therefore be more critical with the regard to the effective implementation thereof. There is, however, reason for concern about the level of negativity of female professional/administrative staff and according to the scoring table applied, interventions should be considered to develop a more positive attitude with regard to their perceptions of policies and procedures. Intervention in this regard is vital as professional/administrative personnel are often the first contact persons with external stakeholders and their negativity can influence the image of the institution. As Teferra and Altbach (2004, p. 30) state in Africa the professional/administrative personnel in African higher education institutions outnumber the academic staff, thus it is vital that these masses be acknowledged for their contribution and their performance management effectively. At a distance education institution support staff who support academic work has an important role to play in delivering the vision and mission of the institution.

The results reveal that the older female academics seem to be more negatively inclined with regard to policies and procedures at the institution. This could be attributed to the fact that the \geq 41 year female academics were acquainted with the policies and procedures of the old institution and might fear the proposed changes to these known policies and procedures. However, their negativity could also be based

on their previous experiences with the policies and procedures of conflict situations that have not been dealt with transparently and procedurally. Older female academics have been in a system that oppressed them as females and have suffered under unfair distribution of time and resources. Thus, they might fear that their plight has been renewed as they are still largely at the mercy of the old boys' network. The more negative attitude could also be as a result of a lack of communication with regard to policies and procedures. It might therefore be necessary to apply measures and intervene in order to create a more positive attitude amongst older female academics.

The perceptions of black female academics seem to be more positive than those of their white counterparts. The groups of black female academics (i.e. black, coloured and Asian) might be relatively less resistant to the implementation of the policies and procedures and as they have less years of service at the institutions, they are able to adapt more easily to the policies and procedures. Their more positive perceptions with regard to the management and leadership who proposed and initiated these policies and procedures are also visible in their greater tolerance towards these policies and procedures. The perceptions of the white female academics should be developed through interventions as their mean score indicates a possible need for intervention in this regard.

It seems as if the different academic levels or positions that female academics occupy do not influence their perception with regard to policies and procedures, but there is room for interventions in order to improve their perceptions as the range of the mean score is 3.15 to 3.16.

An interesting observation is the fact that female academics in lower level academic positions seem to be more positive than female professional/administrative personnel in higher ranking positions with regard to policies and procedures. One would assume that as female academics in lower academic positions are crammed in these positions, overloaded with teaching loads and lack exposure to opportunities of promotion, they would be more frustrated and inclined to have negative perceptions with regard to the male dominated bureaucracy in academe. However, one could conclude that at the time of the primary study, no major changes were suggested to the policies and procedures that affected academics and the academic work.

However, the female professional/administrative personnel's negativity could be ascribed to their disillusionment with male dominance and the phenomenon of male deafness in the committees where decision-making and implementation take place, as they share the responsibility of implementing these policies and procedures. The negativity of female professional/administrative personnel could further be ascribed the fact that they feel that females are not sufficiently represented in the positions where these policies and procedures are decided upon and therefore they do not take ownership thereof.

The significantly more positive perceptions of female academics in higher positions are therefore assumed when they are compared to the lower level female professional/administrative personnel. This can be attributed to the fact that higher ranking female academics seem to understand the need to implement policies and procedures as they might be more involved in the decision-making structures of the institution. These policies and procedures might also have resulted in the promotion of the female academics in higher ranking positions and influenced their more positive perception. On the other hand, these same policies and procedures might pose a threat to lower level professional/administrative personnel who have to compete with a more diverse group to attain promotion. The notion that academics enjoy a higher social status with regard to the notion of professional sexism might also have an impact.

Although both female academics and male academics hold positive perceptions with regard to diversity and equity, female academics seem to be generally less positive than male academics although there is no significant difference. Although female academics seem to acknowledge that there is a move towards employment equity and diversity, they might not feel confident that management is committed to bring about equity throughout the institution. They may also hold the opinion that their authority as females in management is not respected or that sufficient education has not taken place to enhance the level of respect for diversity amongst all employees in the institution. Female academics may also differ from their male counterparts on the fact that there has not been enough consultation amongst staff and management about employment equity. It might also indicate that female academics are not confident that there are fair labour relations practices based on qualifications and experience irrespective of race and gender.

Female academics however, positive than female are, more professional/administrative counterparts. Interventions should be considered to address and develop the more negative perceptions of the professional/administrative personnel with regard to the management of diversity and equity. Although female professional/administrative personnel might share the concerns of female academics, the reason for this deviation could be ascribed to the fact that females in professional/administrative positions feel that they are not recognised for their contribution in the academic milieu as they assume a lower social status in institutions of higher education. It should also be noted that most of the female respondents are white, and for many years a large percentage of these positions were occupied by white females and males. The 'intrusion' of other females and males from different races and cultures and the forced social integration with the diverse cultures might cause negativity amonast female professional/administrative personnel. On the other hand, the more positive perceptions of female academics could be ascribed to the fact that promotions of academics are based on their qualifications and research outputs; whereas promotions of professional and administrative staff do not rely on such clear cut boundaries.

The female academics who are 40 years and younger seem to be more negatively inclined than those 41 years and older. This could be attributed to the fact that the older female academics are more settled in and acquainted with the culture of academic life whereas the younger females in academics positions still need to build up their networks. Another contributing factor might be that social and family/domestic circumstances of younger female academics might influence their ability to do research and this together with an absence of suitable mentors to guide them regarding the requirements of academic life, may negatively impact their perceptions. Older female academics may also have passed the stage in life of childrearing or have established good support structures to support their domestic affairs and might therefore feel more comfortable and positive as they can achieve more. It should also be noted that racial influences could affect this outcome as most female academics are white. However, the racial composition of the younger female academic group is slightly more diverse and the more negative perceptions might have been reciprocally influenced. On the one hand, the white younger female academics might see the black, coloured and Indian groups invading or posing a

threat to their opportunities for promotion, whilst the black, coloured and Indian groups might feel they are still suffering at the expense of white female academics. Another point is that the younger female academics are more concentrated in the lower ranks of academic positions where the teaching load is greater and where family responsibilities, such as child rearing, are also more demanding. This could have an impact on their perception.

There is no significant difference in the perceptions when the length of service of female academics is compared. Both groups seem to be relatively positive in this regard with female academics with a longer tenure showing slightly more positive perceptions. This might be ascribed to the fact that female academics, who have been with the institution for longer, realise that some changes might result in a more positive work environment. For example, the fact that the old boys' network has been disturbed and as a result more promotion opportunities exist for female academics in conjunction with the Employment Equity legislation which favours all female personnel. According to the literature, female academics realise that although the academic environment has yet to achieve the 'ideal', there have been significant, positive changes. The more positive perceptions held by female academics with a longer tenure could be ascribed to the fact that they have experienced the changes brought about at the institution up to the time of the primary study, to be positive. Factors such as more female academics who are considered for promotion, flexibility to attend to family needs and opportunities for career advancement could have contributed to the more positive attitude. academics with a shorter tenure do not share the same frame of reference in this regard.

The black, coloured and Asian female academics seem to hold more negative perceptions than their white female counterparts with regard to diversity and equity. This could be attributed to the fact that they are in the minority and might be exposed to "double" or in many cases "triple" discrimination based on race, gender and class. Black female academics may feel more negatively inclined in historically white universities as these institutions are renowned for their white male domination and where there is a preference to promote white females and black, coloured or Asian males in a subtle manner. This seems to be in line with an observation made by a participant in the study of Perumal (2003, p.79) who found that in her particular

institution, white males occupy all the top positions, white females the middle management positions and all non-whites the lower level positions. This negativity of female academics could further be influenced by kind of communication they encounter in the communication styles of males (especially white males as their immediate supervisors) in decision-making positions. This is marked by excessive assertiveness, greed for power, dominance and the exploitation of cultural influences of especially black females with regard to respect for seniority. The discrimination against black female academics is however not limited to white male academics but also white females and non-white males. The mean score of 3.16 of black female academics with regard to diversity and equity call for interventions to effect development in this factor.

The comparison of the perceptions of female academics in the lower ranking positions with those in the higher ranking positions have not revealed a significant difference, although the female academics in higher ranking positions tend to be slightly more positive. The difference in perceptions could be attributed to the difference associated with the difference in age as female academics in higher ranking positions seem to be older, thus more accustomed to the academic system. However, it should also be noted that most female academics in the senior positions are white and therefore the racial composition of the female academics occupying these positions could also impact the slightly more positive outcome.

The female academics occupying lower level academic positions seem to be more positive than females in the higher ranking professional/administrative positions about diversity and equity. This could be ascribed to the fact that academic females enjoy a higher social status in higher education even though the higher ranking female professional/administrative personnel enjoy higher employment status. It could also be ascribed to the fact that females in higher ranking professional/administrative positions often encounter male deafness whereby their input is regarded as insignificant and ignored and they are often over-powered by their male colleagues. This is a very interesting observation and it is vital that the management and leadership of the institution take action in this regard. It is evident that female professional/administrative personnel feel that they are still undermined as the minority and that there is still room for improvement with regard to diversity and equity at this level.

However, the opposite is noticeable when female academics in higher ranking academic positions are compared to females in lower level professional/administrative positions with regard to diversity and equity. Female academics in more senior positions seem to be significantly more positive than females in lower level professional/administrative positions. According to the scoring table used by the independent consultants involved in the primary study, both these groups would benefit from interventions in order to develop a more positive perceptions on diversity and equity.

All the females of the institution hold positive perceptions with regard to transformation and change at the institution. The black, coloured and Asian female academics hold the most positive perceptions in this regard whilst the female professional/administrative personnel occupying the lowest levels of 7-19 are positive but to a lesser extent. This unanimous positive perception should encourage management to be optimistic about the commitment of all women at the institution to the transformation and change process and that they will do their best to ensure its success. Evidently the females have acknowledged that appropriate systems needed to support change have been put in place and they recognise the long-term benefits for themselves. They have, however, also realised that change in the institution is taking place so swiftly that their adaptation to these changes is complex. This is a factor that management should pay attention to and monitor continually.

6.3 Limitations

As this study is limited to one institution it is difficult to make generalisations with regard to its findings. It should therefore be noted that although this research followed a systematic approach, it needs to modified and altered further before the results can be applied to any other population. The limitations experienced have thus impacted the inferential value of the research and are discussed in terms of the literature review and empirical study.

A primary limitation of this study is the fact that it is a secondary analysis of survey data. The researcher was therefore forced to apply creative analytical techniques in order to secure the quality of data for the study. The following typical limitations of

secondary analysis of surveys also experienced by the researcher are indicated by Kiecolt and Nathan (1985, pp. 12-14 & 75).

Literature with regard to the research methodology on the application of secondary analysis of survey data is very limited and researchers are forced to consult the reference cited (i.e. Kiecolt and Nathan, 1985) for more detailed discussions on the various research designs that are applicable to secondary analysis.

Secondary data analysts have to consider the problems of item and sample comparability, and statistical issues. In addition, the secondary data analyst must deal with the problems encountered in all survey analysis. For example, the researcher would have included the level of education of research subjects as a demographic item.

Any errors made in the primary survey are no longer visible. This creates uncertainty with regard to the survey procedures followed as these are not always meticulously documented.

The issue of labelling the sample design was major concern. Should you refer to sampling when you use available data or do you refer only to research subjects? This concern was magnified by the fact that the survey data was used for a purpose other than its original use with the aim of studying only specific subpopulations and in some cases, the research subjects were limited.

The primary study was done prior to the merger of this institution; therefore, not all the institutions that were supposed to merge were audited. If all parties were audited, a comparative study could have been done which could have resulted in a study that would have added value to the organisational development process of the merged institution. It would also add comparative value to pre- and post-merger studies.

6.4 Recommendations

The recommendations are made in terms of the literature study, research objectives, as well as human resource management and development decisions within the context of higher education.

The implications of the management model for higher education institutions proposed in Chapter 2 (see Section 2.6.4 and Figure 1 on p. 49) should be investigated and more information should be attained about the application thereof. A management model that is customised for South African higher education should be developed to assist managers in higher education to better understand management in higher education and the role of academic freedom. This is necessary as the phenomenon of managerialism is increasingly being adopted in South African higher education institutions. Although this is a global phenomenon at institutions of higher education and commonalities with regard to management in the corporate world do exist, it is important that the peculiar circumstances of higher education and in particular South African conditions be considered. South Africa higher education institutions have numerous labour laws that impact their management of human resources and this together with developing and expanding the country's skills base, the South African political background and academic freedom distinguish the manner in which higher education institutions should be managed. Often managers recruited from the corporate world are challenged as they do not understand how to effectively integrate their frame of reference of human resource management from the corporate world with the work environment of academia.

This study could be supplemented with an investigation into how the flexibility often associated with academic careers influences the creative and innovative inputs of academics. This could serve as a means of attracting and retaining female academics in particular but also academics in general. In the corporate world of work there is currently a tendency towards flexible work practices and expansion of literature in this regard would make an invaluable contribution as the academic work environment has been exposed to this work practice for many decades.

It is recommended that a study be undertaken to explore what is the best practice employ to attract and retain black, coloured and Asian female academics within the South African context, where corporate firms compete with higher education to attain their employment equity targets.

More studies with regard to female professional/administrative personnel should be initiated. It became apparent that there is a gap in available literature on females in these positions and the results indicate that further studies on this group of employees are crucial. Studies which investigate their sense of value should be initiated as well as gender comparative studies, where the perceptions of male and female professional/administrative personnel are compared.

The notion of "professional sexism in higher education" should be explored further and studies in this regard are recommended. According to Spurling (1997, pp. 44-45), professional sexism is defined by the fact that it is often presumed that females in administrative positions are not graduates. This might have an impact on the more negative perceptions of female professional/administrative personnel.

It is also recommended that a primary study be done by using a mixed method approach (i.e. a combination of a qualitative and quantitative data) where a questionnaire is developed for the specific purpose of measuring the perceptions in the different phases of merging. It is suggested that all stakeholders partake in such a study. When different institutions are about to merge, a pre-merging institutional culture audit should be done which includes all the institutions involved in the merger to gauge the institutional culture of the different institutions so that a strategy for people management can be developed. After the merging of the different institutions another study should be initiated to evaluate and amend this strategy of people management in a period of change and transformation. This would ensure that all stakeholders are continually involved in the process and if the report is communicated clearly to all stakeholders, they might take ownership of the process and secure the success rate of the change and transformation process.

It is recommended that future studies should involve more than one institution in more than one region to enable generalisations with regard to female academics in the higher education sector. In terms of the human resource management and development in the higher education sector, it is recommended that appropriate performance management procedures should be developed so that the current status where female academics are concentrated in lower ranks and are overloaded with teaching and administrative work be acknowledged. This is especially necessary as the academic career is attached to research and other outputs, and therefore special consideration measures should be in place in departments where there are unrealistically high teaching loads due to positions not filled or similar circumstances.

Appropriate mentorship and coaching interventions should be developed to address the shortage of female academics in management and leadership positions and also to assist female academics with their research profile. Although such mechanisms do exist not all females are aware thereof and only a selected few are reached.

Interventions should be developed to enhance a balanced quality of life amongst academics especially female academics. As female academics are crammed in lower rank positions with high volumes of teaching, are striving to attain research outputs, and have to deal with domestic demands, this has become increasingly vital. The possibility to extend HERS-SA to other regions in the country should be explored.

Higher Education South Africa (HESA) should endeavour to be more visible in initiating projects to promote the development of leadership amongst female academics.

6.4 Summary

The aim of this study was the gauge the perceptions of female academics on the management of transformation at an institution of higher education. To achieve this aim, the following research question was formulated: How do female academics at a South African distance education institution perceive the management of transformation of the institution?

The finding of this study with regard to female academics corresponds to the findings of studies done in the United Kingdom, the United States of America and New

Zealand. Given the historical context of South Africa one would expect that South African conditions would unique to the country, but this is evidently not so. Female academics across the globe share similar experiences although minor differences do exist.

From the literature it became apparent that gender issues in higher education have been neglected to a great extent and very little research has been done in this respect.

With regard to transformation in South African higher education, many factors have influenced the current state of affairs in higher education. Various measures have been taken to speed up the transformation process, for example the merging of different institutions. However, the transformation process encapsulates various aspects not only of higher education but of society as a whole. These aspects have been discussed as the dimensions of the study, namely Leadership and management; Policies and procedures; Diversity and equity; Communication and Transformation and change.

With regard to leadership the literature study revealed that males and females bring different leadership skills to the table and if well balanced, such a leadership team could add value to an institution and take it to new heights. The literature study has also provided insight into the concept of managerialism and a model for management in the higher education sector was suggested. According to literature on the research findings on the perceptions of female academics with regard to leadership and management, it seems as if female academics are not very optimistic about their position as they are still under-represented in decision-making positions.

The implications of the demographic information with regard to the underrepresentation of black, coloured and Asian academics of both genders in most of the academic ranks, the ageing workforce and the discrepancy in the years of service of female and male academics could have a major impact for the human resource planning of this institution and a strategy to combat these should be developed and implemented. This study further revealed the following about the perceptions of female academics at this institution of distance education. Although female academics are generally (although insignificantly) less positive than their male counterparts, they are significantly more positive about the dimension: Communication. However, both female and male academics are relatively positive about the management of transformation at this institution. Female academics are generally (although insignificantly) more positive than female professional/administrative personnel. Female professional/administrative personnel are, however, significantly less positive about the dimension: Policies and procedures. With regard to age it was found that the younger female academics (≤ 40 years) were less positive (although insignificantly) than the older female academics and the female academics with ≤ 10 years of service at the institution were more positive. This could be ascribed to the fact that the racial diversity of the female academic population changed in the 10 years before the primary study was done. Black, coloured and Asian female academics seem to be generally more positive than white academics. It seems as if the ranks held by female academics do not impact their perceptions at this institution as no significant difference was revealed. The same result was evident when the females who occupy different ranks in professional/administrative positions were compared. Although there is no significant difference in the mean scores of female academics in lower level positions and female professional/administrative personnel in higher level positions, female academics seem to be more positive on most of the dimensions. Lastly, it was affirmed that female academics in higher level positions are more positive that female professional/administrative personnel in lower level positions.

Thus, it could be affirmed that despite their under-representation, female academics in this study seem to be relatively positive. They seem to acknowledge that if transformation and change are managed appropriately they will reap the benefits in the end. The literature study indicated that females have a contribution to make with regard to leadership and management in higher education. Therefore, the relatively positive perceptions are indeed a step in the right direction.

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INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE CHANGE AUDIT .. UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA..

JANUARY 2003

INSTRUCTIONS

Thank you for your willingness to complete this questionnaire. Your answers will remain completely confidential.

Please answer all the questions and choose only one answer per question. The questionnaire will take approximately 30 - 45 minutes to complete.

Please decide whether you agree or differ with each statement and mark your answer with a tick (1) in the applicable block. Avoid answering undecided on too many occasions, as this tends to skew the results.

Should a question not apply to your faculty / department, please leave the question blank. Do not tick any of the 1-5 choices.

The scale refers to the following:

- Completely disagree 1 =
- Disagree 2 =
- Undecided 3 =
- Agree
- Completely agree

	3	Completely Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Completely Agree
•	If you <u>fully agree</u> with this statement, tick the square under "Completely agree".					\sqrt{\sq}}\sqrt{\sq}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}
		1	2	3	4	5
•	If you <u>do</u> agree with this statement, tick the square under "Agree".				Þ	
		1	2	3	4	5
•	If you <u>are not sure</u> , or do not know if you agree/disagree, tick the square under			₽		
	"undecided".	1	2	3	4	5
•	If you <u>disagree</u> with this statement, tick the square under "Disagree".		P			
	(1	2	3	4	5
•	If you <u>fully disagree</u> with this statement, tick the square under "Completely	, I				
	disagree".	1	2	3	4	5

Explanation of Terms:

Rectorate: The Principal, 2 Vice Principals and 2 Registrars.

Executive Director: The managers who head:

- Principals Office/Unisa merger
- Human resources & Administration
- Corporate Communications and Marketing
- (ICT) Information, Communication, Technology
- Research
 - Tuition
- Finance
- Course Design

Stakeholders: Internal or external clients

Please note:

The questionnaire contains some negatively phrased questions

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

Mandate Molefi C:\WINDOWS\TEMP\Unisa - Questionnaire FINAL 29-01-03.doc

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Please place a tick in the appropriate box in response to all the questions in this section:

1. LOCATION:

Which location do you work from?							
1.	Pretoria/Main Campus	0					
2.	Sunnyside	0					
3.	SBL	0					
4.	Polokwane	0					
5.	Johannesburg Learning Centre	0					
6.	Nelspruit, Witbank	0					
7.	Kwazulu Natal (i.e Durban, Pietermaritzburg)	0					
8.	Western Cape (i.e. Parow, Wulington)	0					
9.	Eastern Cape (i.e. Umtini, East London)	0					
10.	Northern Cape	O					

2. ADMINISTRATION AND PROFESSIONAL DEPARTMENTS

Which	Which functional area do you belong to?							
1.	Building Administration	0						
2.	Catering Services	0						
3.	Committee Services	0						
4.	Computer Services	0						
5.	Corporate Communication and Marketing	0						
6.	Despatch	0						
7.	Editorial	•						
8.	Examinations	0						
9.	Finance	0						
10.	Human Resources	0						
11.	Internal Audit	0						
12.	Internal Relations	•						
13.	Library	0						

_			
	14.	Music	0
	15,	Postgraduate Student Affairs	0
	16.	Principal's Office	0
	17.	Production	0
	18.	Safety Services	0
	19.	Scheduling	0
4	20.	Student Support	0
	21.	Telecommunications	0
	22.	Undergraduate Student Affairs	0

3. ACADEMIC DEPARTMENT:

Which Department do you belong to?						
	Faculty of Humanities & Social Sciences					
1.	Advanced Nursing Sciences	0				
2.	African Languages	0				
3.	Afrikaans	0000				
4.	Anthropology and Archaeology	0				
5.	Art History, Visual Arts and Musicology					
6.	Classics	0				
7.	Communication	0				
8.	Criminology	0				
9.	Development Studies	0				
10.	English	0				
11.	Geography and Environmental Studies	0				
12.	History	0				
13.	Information Science	0				
14.	Linguistics	0				
15.	Philosophy	0				
16.	Political Science	0				
17.	Psychology	0				

	18.	Public Administration	0
	19.	Religious Studies	0
	20.	Modern European Languages	0
	21.	Semitics	0
	22.	Social Work	0
	23.	Sociology	0
	24.	Theory of Literature	0
		Faculty of Economic and Management Science	
****	1.	Accounting	0
	2.	Applied Accountancy	0
	3.	Basics of Business	0
	4.	Business Management	0 0 0
	5.	Economics	0
	6.	Industrial and Organisational Psychology	0
	7.	Quantitative Management	0
	8.	Transport Economics and Logistics	0
	9.	Graduate School of Business Leadership	0
		Faculty of Education	
	1.	Primary School Teacher Education	0
	2.	Secondary School Teacher Education	0
	3.	Further Teacher Education	0
	4.	Educational Studies	0
		Faculty of Science	
****	1.	Mathematics, Applied Mathematics and Astronomy	0
	2.	Chemistry	0
	3.	Computer Science and Information Systems	0
	4.	Geography	O
	5.	Life Sciences	0
	6.	Physics	0

7.	Statistics	0
	Faculty of Theology and Religious Studies	
1.	Church History	0
2.	Missiology	0
3.	New Testament	0
4.	Old Testament	0000
5.	Practical Theology	0
6.	Systematic Theology and Theological Ethics	0
	Faculty of Law	
1.	Constitutional, International and Indigenous Law	0
2.	Criminal and Procedural Law	0
4.	Jurisprudence	0
5.	Mercantile Law	0
6.	Private Law	0
	Bureaux, Institutes and Centres	
1.	Bureau for Management Information	0
2.	Bureau for Learning Development	0
3.	Bureau for market research	0
4.		
	Bureau for Student Counselling and Career Development	O
5.	Bureau for Student Counselling and Career Development C B Powell bible Centre	0
5. 6.		0
	C B Powell bible Centre	0000
6.	C B Powell bible Centre Centre for Accounting Studies	00000
6. 7.	C B Powell bible Centre Centre for Accounting Studies Centre for Arabic and Islamic Studies	0
6. 7. 8.	C B Powell bible Centre Centre for Accounting Studies Centre for Arabic and Islamic Studies Centre for Latin American Studies	0
6. 7. 8. 9.	C B Powell bible Centre Centre for Accounting Studies Centre for Arabic and Islamic Studies Centre for Latin American Studies Centre for Applied Psychology	0
6. 7. 8. 9.	C B Powell bible Centre Centre for Accounting Studies Centre for Arabic and Islamic Studies Centre for Latin American Studies Centre for Applied Psychology Centre for Applied Statistics	0
6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	C B Powell bible Centre Centre for Accounting Studies Centre for Arabic and Islamic Studies Centre for Latin American Studies Centre for Applied Psychology Centre for Applied Statistics Centre for Business Management	

15.	Centre for Peace Education	0
16.	Centre for Software Engineering	0
17.	Collaboration Unit	0
18.	Health Psychology Unit	0
19.	ABET Institute	0
20.	Institute for Continuing Education	0
21.	Institute for Foreign & Comparative Law	0
22.	Institute for Criminological Sciences	0
23.	Institute for Educational Research	0
24.	Institute for Gender Studies	0
25.	Institute for Social and Health Sciences	0
26.	Research Institute for Theology and Religion	0
27.	Unisa Legal Aid Clinic	0
28.	Verlooren van Themaat Centre	•

POSITIONS:

Which academic position do you hold							
1.	Dean	0					
2.	Deputy Dean	0					
3.	HOD / Chairperson of Department	0					
4.	Professor	•					
5.	Associate Professor	0000					
6.	Senior Lecturer	•					
7.	Lecturer	0					
8.	Junior Lecturer	0					
9.	Academic Assistant Lecturer	0					
Profess level/gr	ional/administrative staff: Please indicate your current j age:	ob					
10.	1** - 1	0					
11.	2 - 3	0					
12.	4 - 6	0					
13.	7 - 9	0					
14.	10 - 12	0					
15.	13 - 16						

16.	17 - 19	O
GE:		
1.	25 years and under	0
2.	26-30 years	•
3.	31-35 years	
4.	36-40 years	0
5.	41-45 years	0
6.	46-50 years	0
7.	51 years and over	0
ENDER	:	
1.	Male	0
2.	Female	
1.	African	0
2.	Coloured	
3.	White	0
4.	Asian	0
.ENGTH	OF SERVICE AT UNISA:	
1.	Less than 2 years	0
2.	2 - 5 years	
3.	6- 10 years	0
4.	11-15 years	0
5.	16-20 years	
6.	21-25 years	Q
7.	26 years and above	0

DIMENSIONS

		Completely Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Completely Agree
VISIO	ON, MISSION AND VALUES:					
1.	I am familiar with Unisa's new vision.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
2.	It is important for Unisa to have a set of core values that all members can identify with.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
3.	The direction set by the Principal of Unisa is clear to me.	0	0	O	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
4.	A mission is a theoretical statement, which does not belong in an academic environment and therefore Unisa does not require one.	0	0	0	0	0
5.	Most staff members have ownership of the new	1	2	3	4	5
5.	vision of Unisa.	0	0	0	0	0
6.	Unisa has a strategic plan with clear goals, which all	1	2	3	4	5
	staff members can all identify with.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
LEA	DERSHIP:					
7.	I am satisfied with the overall leadership of Unisa.	O	0	O	0	O
		1	2	3	4	5
8.	The Rectorate provides clear leadership, strategic direction and focus to this institution.	0	0	0	0	O
		1	2	3	4	5
9.	My Dean has shown commitment to translating the new Vision of Unisa into practice in our faculty.	0	0	0	0	0
10.	My manager has shown commitment to translating	1	2	3	4	5
	the new vision of Unisa into practice in our department.	0	0	0	0	0
11.	I understand the roles and functions of the	1	2	3	4	5
	Executive Directors.	0	O	0	0	0
12.	The Executive Directors have demonstrated their	1	2	3	4	5
	commitment to the effective administration of this Institution.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	There is mutual support between the Academic	_				
	staff and the Administrative/Professional Staff in Unisa.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	There is a clear distinction between the governance	_			_	
	role of Council and the management role of the Rectorate within Unisa.		2	3	4	5
					-	

		Completely	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Completely
15.	The composition of the various Senate Committees is appropriate.	Disagree	0	O	0	Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
16.	The Senate is playing its role effectively in transforming this Institution.	0	0	0	0	0
17.	My Head of Department has demonstrated good	1	2	3	4	5
.,.	leadership by providing clear direction and focus to his/her department / functional area.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Leadership is about confidence building and I believe this is what is currently being demonstrated by the Principal of Unisa.	0	2	3	O	5
19.	The Principal is accessible and visible to members of staff.	O	0	O	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
TEA	MWORK:					
20.	A dynamic and creative atmosphere, which contributes to efficient and effective teamwork, exists in my Faculty/Department.	0	2	3	Q	O 5
21.	Rivalry exists between staff in my Department/Faculty and it gets in the way of doing work.	0	2	3	Q	5
22.	There is effective teamwork between departments in Unisa.	0	0	0	0	0
23.	The co-operation and support provided by team members to each other ensures a high standard of work in my area.	0	2	3	4	5
TRU	ST:					
24.	The level of trust between the University Council and the Senate has improved recently.	O	O	O	O	0
25.	There is a general lack of trust between staff	1	2	3	4	5
23.	members in Unisa.		2	3	4	5
26.	I find it difficult to trust staff members / colleagues who do not come from the same cultural background as me.	0	0	0	0	0
27.	I believe that my colleagues have to earn my trust. I do not trust unconditionally.	0	²	3	O	5 O
		1	2	3	4	5
	ALTY AND BELONGING:					
28.	I have a strong "sense of belonging" to Unisa.	0	0	0	O	0
29.	I always do my best to ensure the success of this	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Institution.	0	0	0	0	0

		Completely Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Completely Agree
30.	Lam project to work for Unica	1	2	3	4	5
30.	I am proud to work for Unisa.	0	0	0	0	0
31.	There is nothing to suggest that I should be insecure	1	2	3	4	5
31.	about my position in this University.	0	0	0	0	0
32.	Spreading negative messages about Unisa as a	1	2	3	4	5
	member of staff will damage the Institution's reputation, including mine.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Unisa responds more quickly to criticism if it is from the media as opposed to criticism from its own staff.	0	2	3	Q	5
34.	When I hear a blatant lie about my university, I always correct it by telling the truth and putting things in context.	0	0	0	0	0
35.	Loyalty is not automatic - my University must	1	2	3	4	5
	demonstrate to me that it cares about it's staff members before I can give it my loyalty.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	I am as loyal to Unisa now as I was a few years ago.	O	0	O	0	Q
		1	2	3	4	5
PER	FORMANCE MANAGEMENT AND REWARDS:	•	_		•	
37.	I am aware of current initiatives to introduce	l .	T	T	Ι	
37.	performance management systems in Unisa.	0	2	3	Q	5
38.	I fully understand the performance standards expected of me.	0	0	0	0	0
39.	The Job Evaluation and Performance Appraisal System (JEPA) currently underway will go a long way towards motivating staff.	0	²	3	O	5 O
40.	I understand the objectives and benefits of JEPA.	O	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5
41.	The system of appraising the performance of the administrative and professional staff is effective.	0	0	0	0	0
42	There is no difference in remuneration between	1	2	3	4	5
42.	There is no difference in remuneration between staff members who are excellent performers and those who do not meet performance standards in	0	0	0	0	0
42	Unisa.	1	2	3	4	5
43.	Non-monetary recognition and reward initiatives are	0	0	0	0	0
	as important as monetary ones.		-	_		_
PO!		1	2	3	4	5
	ICIES AND PROCEDURES:	1	2	3	4	5
POL 44.		0	2	3	4	5

		Completely Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Completely Agree
45.	The current policies are fairly simple and understandable.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
46.	There is nothing wrong with Unisa's policies - the problem is with the implementation of them.	0	0	0	0	0
47.	I have personally taken time to read and understand	1	2	3	4	5
., .	those policies that have an impact on me.	0	0	0	0	0
48.	The recruitment and selection procedures used in	1	2	3	4	5
10.	the Institution are clear to me.	0	0	0	0	0
49.	Everyone at Unisa follows the correct procedures	1	2	3	4	5
47.	when appointing staff in their respective areas.	0	0	0	0	0
FO	In more than the advantage of vectors and there is	1	2	3	4	5
50.	In my area the advertising of vacant positions is done procedurally and transparently.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
51.	I am fully aware of Unisa's HIV/AIDS policy.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
52.	Unisa is adhering to the Preferential Procurement Act when procuring services from outside providers.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
53.	I am fully aware of the University's Sexual Harassment Policy.	0	0	0	0	0
54.	The Dissiplinary sade and procedure is working	1	2	3	4	5
J 4 .	The Disciplinary code and procedure is working effectively in this Institution.	0	0	0	0	0
55.	There are good conflict resolution mechanisms in	1	2	3	4	5
55.	my faculty / department.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
56.	When conflict arises in my faculty or department, it					
	is often settled fairly.					9
		1	2	3	4	5
57.	The development of a Diversity Management Policy will enhance effective Disability Management at Unisa.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
58.	The development of a Community Participation Policy at Unisa would give staff members better	0	0	0	0	0
	guidelines of Community Participation.	1	2	3	4	5
DIV	ERSITY & EQUITY					
59.	I am familiar with the spirit, intent and objectives of the Employment Equity Act.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5

		Completely				Completely
60.	There has been sufficient consultation between	Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Agree
	management and staff about Employment Equity.	1	2	3	4	5
61.	The Top Management of Unisa is committed to establishing Employment Equity in the Institution.	0	O	0	0	0
62.	Women are provided with a fair and equitable	1	2	3	4	5
oz.	chance to compete for senior positions in Unisa.	0	0	0	0	0
63.	There is no "glass ceiling" for women in the	1	2	3	4	5
	Institution.	1	2	3	4	5
64.	The authority of women in management is respected by all.	•	O	Ö	0	Ö
		1	2	3	4	5
65.	Different racial groups interact comfortably with each other at an informal level.	0	0	0	0	0
,,	Difference in a section to the secti	1	2	3	4	5
66.	Differences in pay for similar type jobs are based on qualifications and experience, not race or gender.	0	0	0	0	0
67.	There is evidence of <u>unfair discrimination</u> against the following in my immediate work environment:	1	2	3	4	5
	- Women	0	0	0	0	O
		1	2	3	4	5
	- Men		2	3	4	5
	- Blacks	0	2	3	Q	5
	- Whites	0	2	3	0	5
	- Homosexuals	0	2	0	0	5
	- People with Disabilities	0	0	3	0	0
	- Newly Recruited Staff Members	0	²	3 O	0	5 O
	- Longer Serving Staff Members	0	2 Q	3 O	0	5 O
	- HIV Positive Staff Members	0	2	3	O	5

		Completely Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Completely Agree
68.	There are ample avenues to raise issues regarding unfair discrimination practises in Unisa.	0	0	0	0	0
69.	Unisa has done everything it can to provide	1	2	3	4	5
09.	information on the prevention of HIV/AIDS to all employees.	1	2	3	4	5
70.	Employees at Unisa have been educated on how to treat those who are disabled with dignity and respect.	0	0	0	0	0
71.	I am satisfied that everyone in the Institution is treated fairly regardless of their race, gender, disability, religion or sexual orientation.	0	²	3	0	5
72.	Management and staff show respect for cultural practises that differ from their own.	0	2	3	4	0
73.	Policy documents and other important information	1	2	3	4	5
73.	are provided in a language that I understand.	0	O	0	0	5
74.	Different racial groups are working well together in	1	2	3	4	3
,	this University.		2	3	4	5
		1			4	5
SKIL	LS DEVELOPMENT & RETENTION					
75.	Unisa has done its best to attract the best skills to serve the Institution.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
76.	This University attracts the right skills but cannot keep them.	0	0	0	0	0
77	I halious that a good retention strategy must be not	1	2	3	4	5
77.	I believe that a good retention strategy must be put in place to ensure that Unisa retains the best skills.	0	0	0	0	0
78.	I believe that adequate efforts are made by my	1	2	3	4	5
	Faculty/Department to expose us to new trends in the world of work.		2	3	4	5
79.	There are adequate opportunities for training and development of staff in my Faculty/Department.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
80.	I have personally attended at least one leadership development programme arranged by Unisa to help me do my job better.	0	0	0	0	0
04		1	2	3	4	5
81.	I believe that Unisa adheres to the requirements of the Skills Development Act.	0	0	0	0	0
82.	It is important for all Academic Administrative and	1	2	3	4	5
02.	It is important for all Academic, Administrative and Professional Staff to develop their people skills.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	' 2	3	4	5

		Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Agree
INST	ITUTIONAL EXCELLENCE					
83.	Unisa is the best institution of higher learning in South Africa (both distance and residential).	0	0	0	0	0
84.	This Institution projects a highly professional image.	- 1	2	3	4	5
04.	This histicucion projects a highly professional image.	0	0	0	0	5
85.	The research output of Unisa is above average		2	3	4	0
	compared to others of its kind.	1	2	3	4	5
86.	The research output of the "old Unisa" was impressive and more highly regarded than it is currently.	0	0	3	0	O 5
87.	Unisa produces excellent research which is often quoted by other organisations in South Africa and	0	2	Ö	4	Ö
	abroad.	1	2	3	4	5
88.	The service delivery of Unisa is higher than ever before.	0	0	0	0	0
89.	Most academics have begun to integrate the	1	2	3	4	5
	concept of the African Renaissance into their teachings.	1	2	3	4	5
90.	I believe academics in Unisa have struck a healthy balance between using ideas from foreign writers and those from African writers in their teachings.	1	2	3	4	5
90.	balance between using ideas from foreign writers	0	0	3	0	O 5
91.	The number of Post Graduate students at Unisa is at an acceptable level.		2	3	4	5
92.	I am of the opinion that the service offered by the Institution to our students can be improved substantially.	0	0	0	0	0
93.	The overall student pass rate is acceptable overall.	1	2	3	4	5
		0	0	0	0	0
94.	The student pass rate in my faculty is at acceptable	1	2	3	4	5
	levels.	0		0	0	
95.	I believe that this University is trying hard enough	1	2	3	4	5
	to reinvent itself to meet the needs of the country.		2	3	4	5
96.	I believe that our Post Graduate mentorship process is effective and will contribute to attracting more students.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
97.	The drop out rate at Unisa is no higher than that of similar long distance Institutions.	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5

		Completely Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Completely Agree
98.	Dissatisfaction from students is handled fairly and speedily by relevant departments.	0	2	3	Q	5
99.	I accept the rationale behind the planned merger between Unisa and other distance learning institutions.	0	0	0	0	0
100.	The pending merger of Unisa with other Institutions will bring efficiency and enhance Institutional excellence.	0	O 2	3	0	5
101.	Given a choice, I would still choose Unisa above all other academic institutions in South Africa.	0	²	3	4 Q	5 5
102.	The interaction between Unisa students and its lecturers is excellent.	0	2	3	Q	5
INST	ITUTIONAL SUPPORT				1	1
103.	I am provided with all the information, equipment and physical facilities needed to provide an excellent service to my clients.	0	2	3	Q	5
104.	I am satisfied with the regular feedback I receive from those who provide a service to me.	0	0	0	0	0
105.	The Employee Assistance Programme (EAP) is fully utilised by staff.	0	²	3	0	0
106.	The Institution has done its best to support staff members to cope more effectively with the current changes.	0	2	3	4	5
107.	There is a healthy relationship between the Unions and Management at Unisa.	0	0	3	0	O
COM	MUNICATION					
108.	Unisa has an effective internal communication system.	0	0	0	0	0
109.	There is transparency and openness in this Institution on matters that are relevant to me.	0	2	3	0	5
110.	The tools and methods of Communication used in my Faculty/Department are effective.	0	2 0	3 O	0	5
111.	The following structures put in place to facilitate decision-making and communication at Unisa are achieving what they intended:	1	2	3	4	5
	- Council	0	0	0	0	0

		Completely	Disagras	Undecided	Agree	Completely
		Disagree 1	Disagree 2	3	Agree 4	Agree 5
	- Senate	0	0	0	0	0
		1	2	3	4	5
	- Institutional Forum	1	2	3	4	5
	- Management Committee	1	2	3	4	5
	- Unions	0	2	3	Q	5
	- Student Representative Council (SRC)	0	2	3	Q	5
112.	The current newsletter of Unisa serves my needs adequately.	0	2	3	Q	5
113.	Unisa's external communication is effective in marketing and promoting the Institution.	0	0	0	0	0
114.	There is too much irrelevant information posted on my electronic mail - I hardly go through it.	0	²	3	0	<u>5</u>
115.	There are too many meetings in my Department/Faculty and no time to work.	0	2	3	4	5
CHAN	IGE AND TRANSFORMATION		_ =		,	
116.	I will do my best to ensure that transformation at Unisa is successful.	0	O	O	O	O
117.	Unisa has put in place the appropriate systems required to support change.	0	2	3	4	5 O
118.	Change is happening so rapidly at Unisa that it is difficult to adapt.	0	2	3	4	5
119.	I know that the long-term benefits of change and transformation at Unisa outweigh the current	1	2	3	4	5
	hurdles and difficulties we may experience.	1	2	3	4	5

THE 61 ITEMS INITIALLY SELECTED FROM THE ORIGINAL QUESTIONNAIRE.

Item	ITEM DECODIBIION
No.	ITEM DESCRIPTION
V16	I am familiar with the institution's new vision.
V17	It is important for the institution to have a core set of values that all
	members can identify with.
V18	The direction set by the Principal of the institution is clear to me.
V20	Most staff members have ownership of the new vision of the institution.
V21	The institution has a strategic plan with clear goals, with which all staff
	members can all identify.
V22	I am satisfied with the overall leadership of the institution.
V23	The Rectorate provides clear leadership, strategic direction and focus to
	this institution.
V31	The Senate is playing its role effectively in transforming this institution.
V32	Leadership is about confidence building and I believe this is what is
	currently being demonstrated by the Principal of the institution.
V33	The Principal is accessible and visible to members of staff.
V43	I have a strong 'sense of belonging' to the institution.
V44	I always do my best to ensure the success of this institution.
V45	I am proud to work for the institution.
V46	There is nothing to suggest that I should be insecure about my position in
	this University.
V51	I am as loyal to the institution now as I was a few years ago.
V60	The current policies are fairly simple and understandable.
V62	I have personally taken time to read and understand those policies that
	have an impact on me.
V63	The recruitment and selection procedures used in the institution are clear
	to me.
V64	Everyone at the institution follows the correct procedures when appointing

Item	ITEM DESCRIPTION
No.	TILWI DESCRIFTION
	staff in their respective areas.
V65	In my area the advertising of vacant positions is done procedurally and
	transparently.
V66	I am fully aware of the institution's HIV/AIDS policy.
V67	The institution is adhering to the Preferential Procurement Act when
	procuring services from outside providers.
V68	I am fully aware of the University's Sexual Harassment Policy.
V69	The disciplinary code and procedure is working effectively in this
	institution.
V70	There are good conflict resolution mechanisms in my faculty/department.
V71	When conflict arises in my faculty or department, it is often settled fairly.
V72	The development of a Diversity Management Policy will enhance effective
	Disability Management at the institution.
V98	The institution has done its best to attract the best skills to serve the
	Institution.
V99	This university attracts the right skills but cannot keep them.
V100	I believe a good retention strategy must be put in place to ensure that the
	institution retains the best skills.
V102	There are adequate opportunities for training and development of staff in
	my faculty/department.
V74	I am familiar with the spirit, intent and objectives of the Employment Equity
	Act.
V75	There has been sufficient consultation between management and staff
	about Employment Equity.
V76	The Top Management of the institution is committed to establishing
	Employment Equity in the institution.
V77	Women are provided with a fair and equitable chance to compete for
	senior positions in the institution.
V78	There is no 'glass ceiling' for women in the institution.
V79	The authority of women in management is respected by all.
V80	Different racial groups interact comfortably with each other at an informal
	level.

Item	ITEM DESCRIPTION
No.	ITEM DESCRIPTION
V81	Differences in pay for similar type jobs are based on qualifications and
	experience, not race and gender.
V91	There are ample avenues to raise issues regarding unfair discrimination
	practices in the institution.
V92	The institution has done everything it can to provide information on the
	prevention of HIV/AIDS to all employees.
V93	Employees at the institution have been educated on how to treat those
	who are disabled with dignity and respect.
V94	I am satisfied that everyone in the institution is treated fairly regardless of
	their race, gender, disability, religion or sexual orientation.
V95	Management and staff show respect for cultural practices that differ from
	their own.
V96	Policy documents and other important information are provided in a
	language that I understand.
V97	Different racial groups are working well together in this University.
V126	I am provided with all the information, equipment and physical facilities
	needed to provide an excellent service to my client.
V127	I am satisfied with the regular feedback I receive from those who provide a
	service to me.
V130	There is a healthy relationship between the unions and management at
	the institution.
V131	The institution has an effective internal communication system.
V132	There is transparency and openness in this Institution on matters that are
	relevant to me.
V140	The current newsletter of the institution serves my needs adequately.
V141	The institution's external communication is effective in marketing and
	promoting the institution.
V144	I will do my best to ensure that transformation at the institution is
	successful.
V145	The institution has put in place the appropriate systems required to
	support change.
V146	Change is happening so rapidly at the institution that it is difficult to adapt.

Item No.	ITEM DESCRIPTION
V147	I know that the long-term benefits of change and transformation at the
	institution outweigh the current hurdles and difficulties we may experience.
V109	The research output of the 'old institution' was impressive and more highly
	regarded than it is now.
V112	Most academics have begun to integrate the concept of African
	Renaissance into their teachings.
V113	I believe academics in the institution have struck a healthy balance
	between using ideas from foreign writers and those from African writers in
	their teachings.
V118	I believe that this university is trying hard enough to reinvent itself to meet
	the needs of the country.

THE 46 ITEMS USED FOR THE PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

DIMENSION 1: LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

The following dimensions of the primary study were merged in order to define this dimension for the purposes of this study. The dimensions: Vision, Mission and Values; Leadership; and Loyalty and Belonging were merged.

Vision, Mission and Values

Four (4) of the six (6) items of the dimension in the primary study were selected.

- V16 I am familiar with the institution's new vision
- V18 The direction set by the Principal of the institution is clear to me
- **V20** Most staff members have ownership of the new vision of the institution
- V21 The institution has a strategic plan with clear goals, with which all staff members can all identify

Leadership

- Five (5) items from the thirteen (13) items of this dimension in the primary study were selected.
- **V22** I am satisfied with the overall leadership of the institution.
- V23 The Rectorate provides clear leadership, strategic direction and focus to this institution.
- **V31** The Senate is playing its role effectively in transforming this institution.
- V32 Leadership is about confidence building and I believe this is what is currently being demonstrated by the Principal of the institution.
- **V33** The Principal is accessible and visible to members of staff.

Loyalty and Belonging

Four (4) of the (9) items of this dimension in the primary study were merged.

- **V43** I have a strong 'sense of belonging' to the institution.
- **V45** I am proud to work for the institution.
- V46 There is nothing to suggest that I should be insecure about my position in this university.
- **V51** I am as loyal to the institution now as I was a few years ago.

DIMENSION 2: POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

The dimensions: Policies and Procedures and Skills Development and Retention were merged in order to redefine this dimension with respect to the aims of this study.

Policies and Procedures

Seven (7) of the fifteen (15) items of this dimension in the primary study were selected.

- **V60** The current policies are fairly simple and understandable.
- V63 The recruitment and selection procedures used in the institution are clear to me.
- V64 Everyone at the institution follows the correct procedures when appointing staff in their respective areas.
- V65 In my area the advertising of vacant positions is done procedurally and transparently.
- V69 The disciplinary code and procedure is working effectively in this institution.
- **V70** There are good conflict resolution mechanisms in my faculty/department.
- **V71** When conflict arises in my faculty or department, it is often settled fairly.

Skills Development and Retention

Two (2) of the eight (8) items of this dimension in the primary study were selected.

- **V98** The institution has done its best to attract the best skills to serve the institution.
- **V102** There are adequate opportunities for training and development of staff in my faculty/department.

DIMENSION 3: DIVERSITY AND EQUITY

The initial dimensions: Diversity and Equity ad Institutional Support were merged in order to measure this dimension appropriately with respect to the aims of this study.

Diversity and Equity

All twelve (12) items from this dimension in the primary study were selected

- V75 There has been sufficient consultation between management and staff about Employment Equity.
- V76 The Top Management of the institution is committed to establishing Employment Equity in the institution.
- Women are provided with a fair and equitable chance to compete for senior positions in the institution.
- **V78** There is no 'glass ceiling' for women in the institution.
- **V79** The authority of women in management is respected by all.
- V80 Different racial groups interact comfortably with each other at an informal level.
- V81 Differences in pay for similar type jobs are based on qualifications and experience, not race and gender.
- V91 There are ample avenues to raise issues regarding unfair discrimination practices in the institution.
- V93 Employees at the institution have been educated on how to treat those who are disabled with dignity and respect.
- V94 I am satisfied that everyone in the institution is treated fairly regardless of their race, gender, disability, religion or sexual orientation.

- **V95** Management and staff show respect for cultural practices that differ from their own.
- **V97** Different racial groups are working well together in this university.

Institutional Support

Three (3) of the six (6) items of this dimension in the primary study were selected.

- V126 I am provided with all the information, equipment and physical facilities needed to provide an excellent service to my client.
- V127 I am satisfied with the regular feedback I receive from those who provide a service to me.
- **V130** There is a healthy relationship between the unions and management at the institution.

DIMENSION 4: COMMUNICATION

This dimension was not merged with other items or another dimension. Four (4) of the eight (8) items of this dimension in the primary study were selected for the purposes of this study.

- **V131** The institution has an effective internal communication system.
- V132 There is transparency and openness in this institution on matters that are relevant to me.
- **V140** The current newsletter of the institution serves my needs adequately.
- V141 The institution's external communication is effective in marketing and promoting the institution.

DIMENSION 5: CHANGE AND TRANSFORMATION

This dimension was merged with one item of the dimension, Institutional Excellence, in order to measure this dimension appropriately with respect to the aims of this study.

Change and Transformation

- Four (4) items of the four (4) items of this dimension in the primary study were selected.
- V144 I will do my best to ensure that transformation at the institution is successful.
- V145 The institution has put in place the appropriate systems required to support change.
- **V146** Change is happening so rapidly at the institution that it is difficult to adapt.
- V147 I know that the long-term benefits of change and transformation at the institution outweigh the current hurdles and difficulties we may experience.

Institutional Excellence

One (1) item of the twenty (20) items of this dimension in the primary study was selected.

V109 The research output of the 'old the institution' was impressive and more highly regarded than it is currently.