University of Fort Hare

Together in Excellence

Understanding change and implications of Divisional Management Model (DMM) in a merged multi-campus university in South Africa

By

Lunga Xolisa Mantashe

(201415641)

A dissertation submitted in fulfillment of the academic requirements for the degree of Masters of Education in the Faculty of Education, University of Fort Hare.

Supervisor: Professor E.O. Adu

(November 2014)

DECLARATION

I solemnly declare that this full dissertation titled **"Understanding change and transition and implications of Divisional Management Model (DMM) in a merged multi-campus university in South Africa"** hereby submitted to the University of Fort Hare (UFH), for the Degree of Master in Education, has not been submitted by me in any other university or this university before; that it is my work in design and execution and that all material contained has been duly acknowledged.

______________ ______________

Mr. L.X. Mantashe Date

SUPERVISOR'S STATEMENT

This dissertation has been submitted with/without my approval.

__________________________ __________________

Professor E.O. Adu (Supervisor) Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would wish to acknowledge the following special people and officials below.

- **God –** the omniscient, omnipotent, timeless, changeless, beginning-less and endless almighty has whispered wisdom to all those who in turn echoed it to me throughout the entire study. Thus he deserves all the praise for his undying presence throughout this journey of this research production.

- **Family –** the entire Mantashe family will never fully appreciate the role it has played through prayer, encouragement and psychological and emotional intelligence it has contributed. To thank them more would require words that cannot be truly expressed and it is my wish to say that what words cannot express will, in action, be expressed in due time.

- **Supervisor –** the reality of the matter is that this study is non-existent without the excellent supervision of Professor E.O. Adu. He has, to me, created a need to work hard and with more precision, let alone enthusiasm. He has been the sole person who insisted I wake up and look forward to the next page and chapter, and so on. His expressly expressed confidence in my work has helped me maintain my composure, patience and zeal towards completing this research study.

- **Fort Hare University –** the university has created a platform to make a rather strenuous process more enjoyable by its interval workshops/seminars. These have surely sparked new thinking and interesting ways of looking at the structure and content of this study. I am thankful that the university has done such a noble thing.

- **Participants –** the rich and interesting data I have been able to extract was what enable me to make analysis and interpretation in order to give meaning to words and texts. This is what research is mainly all about: data collection and interpretation in order to give scientific outcomes. Without the participants, none of this would have been possible whatsoever.

- **Africanists –** sections of the leadership within the Pan Africanist circles have indeed made it their business to give pressure to me, especially by their insistent pressure on me, though constantly never intended to be words and actions of encouragement, to do well and complete in time. It is indeed their overall expectations against me that compelled me to undergo this very study and complete it.

ABSTRACT

The study sought to understand change and transition in a multi-merged campus university in South Africa. Specifically the objectives were to understand the Human Resource (HR) plan, how it is being rolled out, the reactions of workers to it, the effects of the plan on workers and the processes put in place to mitigate, rather than aggravate, the current and foreseeable consequences of the Human Resource plan. A qualitative case study was used and focus groups and semi-structured interviews (triangulated with observation and document analysis) were used on a purposive sample of unions and the university HR official in one campus. The researcher found that there is no organogram which acts as a framework wherein all workers in respective campuses shall fit in. additionally, there is no staff transition plan and harmonisation of conditions of service policy that is agreed upon. Though it seemed there were some mechanisms to attenuate the effects of the HR plan (possible retrenchments, loss of morale, uncertainty, stress, doubt and the like) such as voluntary service package, there were areas of concern about the lack of a properly and widely circulated plan, and the absence of plans to transition staff throughout the process of change. Consequently, the researcher recommended at the end of the study that there must be a change management leadership in each campus to drive transition, a creation of proper communication networks, institution of campus indabas, a design of a transition plan, harmonisation approaches, migration of institutional items to an institutional site and the facilitation of recognition agreements for those unions which are still recognise in the pre-merger manner.

Key words: change, transition, Divisional Management Model, leadership and Human Resource.

LIST OF FIGURES and TABLES

ACRONYMS

CPs	Campus Principals
DMM	Divisional Management Model
GST	General Systems Theory
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HEQC	Higher Education Quality Committee
HR	Human Resource
NEHAWU	National Education and Health Allied Workers Union
NTEU	National Tertiary Education Union
NWU	North-West University
VC	Vice Chancellor
WSU	Walter Sisulu University

TABLE OF CONTENTS **PAGE**

CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1. Introduction

Organisations are constantly in a state of change, though to varying degrees, because change is itself a dynamic and ongoing process (van Rooyen, 2000) that needs to be managed. This is because nothing is static; everything is in the process of evolving and becoming all the time. Chen (2006) says that though organisations may not intend to change, changes affect all types of organisations. Therefore, universities as academic organisations are not spared the pains and benefits of change. Paton and McCalman (2001) state that change cannot be separated from an organisation and will therefore not dissipate. Burnes (2004) argues that change is caused by either internal or external pressures. Internal pressures may have to do with, amongst other things, technology competitors, costs and regulators and external pressures might have to do with a need to establish a new strategic direction, low performance of organisations or new opportunities (Lanning, 2001). Sturges (2007) also suggests that change can emanate from global pressures and changing political landscape. Because organisations do not have a choice, especially given the fact that they are confronted with pressures, Burnes (2004) warns that there is a possible downfall when organisations do not change. The author implies that pretending to or delayering change may lead to the downfall of organisations. In the context of this study, when change occurs, because it happens in a real life situation, in real organisations, it affects humans and inherently demands reconfiguration of structures and systems. It is important to say that change can be structural, in which case strategy, size or power can be a source (Bhengu. 2007).

Leanna and Barry (2000) call change a way of life for organisations, managers and workers in general. It is a real phenomenon (Kritsonis, 2005, p. 1) and a risky affair that demands systems change (Seijts & O' Farrell, 2003).

It demands utmost attention because it has an effect on operations and structures of the organisation's operations (Govender, Moodley, & Parumasur, 2005). No amount of prevention, resistance or even denial can change the constancy of change. This is because the latter is a necessary menace since its consistent spectre, terrorising and devastating (as it may be in many cases), expresses, in its inherent nature, form and content, a prospect for dynamic, creative and proactive thinking about the future of individuals, groups and general organisations. Ajay (2002) contends that change is an illogical and emotional process in the life of humans. Pèli, Pólos, and Hannan (2000) warn that change is disruptive in that it erodes the organisation's accountability and reliability, possibly leading to frustration and confusion in the organisation itself. The destabilised process follows and forces re-shaping and re-alignment of the organisation (Dahl, 2010) and further complicates the problem in that employee turnover, because of dissatisfaction (Baron, Hannan, & Burton, 2001), becomes a new reality which organisations have to deal with. In essence, it can be said that change is a necessary permanent evil that institutions must grapple with. Instead of preventing and delaying it, leaders and managers must establish platforms and forums for excavating, exposing and exploring alternate ways to change current affairs. While many organisations may inherently hold the conservative philosophy "things are best left as they are", no organisation or institution should be content with the present.

Important in the understanding of the concept of change, specifically in the context of the research under study, is to know that it is a process. The study looks at the implications of structural change in terms of the transition from the unitary to a more decentralised model of management. Kritsonis (2005) advises that change can be observed and analysed through various steps or phases. These phases are discussed at length as proposed by different authors in Chapter Two. Suffice to argue here that change follows a rather protracted process that is structured in order to bring about effective results as envisaged by change makers or initiators.

Higher education has undergone serious changes in the years of the new millennium. These changes include, but not limited to, introduction of mergers of multi-campuses and decisions about how new identities, cultures, policies and the entire conception of restructuring of models of management. Below, the researcher briefly addresses the background, beginning with mergers and finally addressing the movement from a problematic merger stage to an even more complex stage of actually dealing with complexities relating to management models.

1.1. Background: Transformation in higher education

The background comprises three key aspects: merger policy, complexities brought by the merger policy and the movement from the problematic unitary to a more divisional or decentralised model of management of the university. This logical exposition of the background is imperative in bringing to understanding the problem to the reader and those stakeholders who stand to benefit from this study.

1.1.1. Merger policy

The researcher situates the suggested problem, in this study, of the unworkable unitary management model of a particular university (Ncayiyana, 2011; Higher Education Quality Committee, 2011) accurately within a historical context of the merger policy of HEIs in South Africa. The reason for doing so is that the suggested problem reflects the transformation from a failed post-merger model of management to a new Divisional Management Model (DMM). Consequently, change, the product of merger and the current model of management, has implications on HR, specifically on processes, systems, structures and the people. These implications are direct or indirect and positive or negative.

In March 2001, the South African Minister of Education released a National Plan for Higher Education according to which the number of public HEIs would be reduced from thirty-six (36) to twenty-three (23), with eleven (11) being traditional universities, six (6) being universities of technology and the rest being comprehensive universities (Ministry of Education, 2001). In 2002, the African National Congress led government induced and enacted a policy of mergers of HEIs in South Africa (BuaNews, 2003). The policy was coerced for a number of reasons, despite serious contestations against it (Jansen, 2003), among which was the political motivation for changing the landscape in South African HEIs (Schultz, 2009). In addition to being political in the South African context, Harman and Meek (2002) suggested that other reasons to induce the merger policy were financial. Generally the aims to merge HEIs were to: create a unified national system of education (Wyngaard & Kapp, 2004); increase access to education, particularly where previously disadvantaged would be given an equal chance to access to education (Harman & Meek , 2002), and respond to the changing society in terms of technology, global and national demands and economic needs (Mapasela & Hay 2005).

Merger policy in South Africa, however, was also prompted by a global trend of mergers. For example, many countries have undergone the process of merging: Canada, Great Britain, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Hungary, Vietnam, New Zealand and Australia to name a few (Harman & Meek, 2002). Harman & Harman (2003) also revealed that restructuring of higher education sought to solve problems associated with fragmentation and with small size colleges. However these mergers have caused serious unintended challenges and complexities, and they are, some of them, addressed briefly below.

1.1.2. Complexities brought by merger policy

Transformation of HEIs in South Africa was revolutionary because it touched and changed management practices, brought qualitative change in the experiences of members of organisations, and created multi-dimensional change in the sense that structures, processes, procedures, rules, attitudes, values, norms, values and general behaviour had to change (Viljoen & Rothman, 2002). Thus, the coming together of all separate institutions and the formation of multi-campus universities (Harman & Harman, 2003) implied that distinct institutions would be importing their institutional challenges, structural weaknesses into the newly merged multi-campus universities with the same underlying structures. This further sophisticated the life of the new organisations/universities in that they had to grapple with realities relating to finances, institutional culture, values and Human Resource (HR). Schultz (2009) found that mergers also had unintended consequences on employees' commitment and thus organisational performance was affected. The author suggested that there is a need to realign people management to support the business strategy to meet its organisational desires.

What the above paragraph expresses is a problem of the HR unit management in the context of change. The Human Resource of any institution of higher learning that has undergone a merger is more than significant because it determines whether a merger succeeds or fails. In fact, research has shown that 55% – 70% of mergers fail because HR issues are neglected (Schraeder & Self, 2003). Sidumba (2011) added that HR issues are part of the reasons some merged universities had to unbundle. It is also suggested that at times relationships between employees and organisations changed, leading to decrease in employee commitment (Van Strateen, Theron, & Dodd, 2011). Lalla (2009), for example, found that management relationships, job security, job position and promotion, communication, performance standards and collegial relationships were all negatively impacted on by the merger at a particular institution. This is all evidence suggesting that an organisation, once the HR aspect in neglected, suffers terribly in terms of meeting its organisational goals. Van Strateen et al. (2011) further exposed the fact that psychological contracts between the institutions and employees become brittle and prone to breach, compelling management to pay closer attention to the employment relationship in order to maintain commitment and loyalty. These complexities during change have not only been manifest, universities also had to rethink systems, structures and models with which to manage and govern their respective multi-merged universities. The institution/university under study experienced such processes of structural management changes and there is a brief explanation below to that effect.

1.1.3. From merger policy to management models: Restructuring and reorganisation

Prompted by the institutional audit done by Higher Education Quality Council and by the report of the assessor in 2011, one university had to change the unitary model because it was not working well (Walter Sisulu University Turnaround Bulletin, 2014); it needed to design a suitable organisational structure for a widely dispersed merged multi-campus university (Higher Education Quality Committee, 2011; Ncayiyana, 2011). The restructuring entailed thinking about all constituent elements (Information Communication Technology, finance, governance and management in terms of authority distribution and HR) and how they would fit in the new model of the future. This meant that the earlier structure was incapable of resolving complexities relating to allocation of finances, academic architecture and HR. Thus a new structure that is capable of creating a truly integrated, efficient and effective model had to be created.

According to Viljoen and Rothman (2002), it was expected that the transformation of HEIs in South Africa would include the revolutionary change of previous management practices; qualitative change in the experience of organisational members, and multi-dimensional change, which refers to the changes of all structures, processes and procedures and their attendant change in values, norms, attitudes, perceptions and behaviour. It can be added that merger policy undoubtedly, especially because of complications it brought to the organisational structures of merged institutions, demanded change in management models. In fact the implications of the merger in a particular university were such that they sparked a need for further change in the management model because the unitary management model was unworkable (Higher Education Qualification Committee, 2011), left the institution at war with itself (Ncayiyana, 2011), and potentially doomed for permanent paralysis and failure.

However where the current model under study has been implemented, it has not been without challenges of its own. For example, the Council of Higher Education and Training (2008) pointed out that at North West University staff and students did not fully understand when it was that an institutional office could intervene. Moreover they complained that the model simply benefited their superior previous main campus. They lamented that with the emergence of the model, competent staff had been absorbed by the institutional offices, leaving weaker campuses to struggle with regards to human capital. Finally, they complained that people in the institutional office predominantly came from the bigger campus, which meant that the model favoured and benefited the bigger campus only. These challenges are significant because they reflect the reactions of workers and thus give indications of their perceptions, attitudes and feelings about progress of the model.

The uniqueness of the DMM management model in the South African context (Stumpf, 2008), particularly in the specific contexts of a semi-rural, semi-suburban and semi-township campuses within which this Model has been implemented (Mantashe, 2013), makes it is apt for this research to understand this change, the process of transition and explore its implications on the Human Resource aspect in particular.

1.2. The statement of the problem

The researcher argues that Human Resource allocation is largely affected, directly or indirectly and positively or negatively, by the restructuring of the management model. Change in the architecture of the university affects the very heart of the people insofar as their attitudes, cultures, emotions and the institution for which they work (Mantashe, 2013).

The WSU Turnaround Framework (2012, pp. 20–25) in the process of putting a turnaround plan, for example, noted areas that were going to necessarily affect workers as far as the HR department was concerned. These are: Reviewing of employment equity, recruitment and selection and employee well-being; defining and aligning job profiles and grading with organisational structure; verifying and auditing staff qualifications; harmonising conditions of service; reviewing the current payroll and cost to the institution and reporting monthly thereon; determining pay rates and salary structure; reviewing benefit structures such as medical aid, pension funds, housing administration and bursaries and so forth; determining the incremental impact on the budget with the implementation of the multi-campus strategy; performance reviews for all staff, and developing reporting systems and assessing financial impacts to council and other sub-committees.

All these exercises would have implications for the new contracts that workers would have to sign. Already this places a burden on change management to take into account how workers grapple with transition involving these processes. Worst of all, it places a problem on the success of change management initiatives. This is because the management of people involved in any change situation can mean the difference between the success or failure of the initiative (Berns et al., 2007, p. 4). For example Gilley, Gilley and Mcmillan (2009) lament that there are studies that reveal shocking information about change efforts. Some research indicates that there is a failure of one-third to two-thirds of change initiatives (Beer & Nohria, 2000). Burnes (2004) suggests that the rate is even higher than the latter authors estimate. Thus the extent to which the university has prepared to transition everyone is vital. Beyond that, the processes and strategies to ensure success of change are more than important and cannot be overemphasised. Suffice to say that the process of change has an impact on the people who live through it.

When organizations undertake any transformational change process, they must make a distinction between the strategic and tactical plans and actions to accomplish the change, and the experience and emotions of the people who will design, implement, and live with the change (Berns et al., 2007, p. 8). All of these elements must be systematically addressed in the development and implementation of strategic plans to ensure the ultimate success of the change process. Inescapably, HR needs to be managed appropriately in order that change itself can be carried out with minimum, highly discussed and consulted repercussions on employees; otherwise its implications may be deadly, unwelcomed or even fiercely resisted. Authors argue that at best, in order to overcome change resistance, stakeholders must be involved at every stage of change processes (Abrahams & Lawrence, 2000; Young, 2001). In the study done by the researcher on the perceptions of stakeholders in one campus of the entire university about the new model of management, some workers in academic departments and the union, had already argued that they were insecure, uncertain, scared and thus do not share in the vision of the university because additionally they did not feel as though they were part of the process leading up to the change itself (Mantashe, 2013). These outcomes of the research by the author concur with the arguments by Yılmaz and Kılıçoğlu (2013) in so far as how change affects workers.

Embracing change would require the organisation to address the psychological contract question. Barnard and Stoll (2010) illuminate that psychological contract goes beyond the normal mere provision of remuneration; it extends to making available training, security, interest and work-life balance so that in reciprocation, the employee is able to offer services in a determined, committed and loyal manner to the organisation. Empirical evidence has found a positive relationship between the perception of a balanced psychological contract and employees' commitment to (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000), and their trust in, the organisation.

Where workers lose trust and are no longer committed, they may make decisions that affect the organisation. For example, the researcher found that some workers were considering resigning, with some having resigned without knowing where they would go (Mantashe, 2013).

The study therefore isolates the HR and investigates in depth the implications of the changes and transition from the unitary to the divisional model. The issues problematic here are: preparation of workers for transition, managing attitudes, reactions and minimising consequences on people and organisation. Finally the study explores strategic interventions in place meant to make smooth the implementation during transition.

1.3. Rationale

The Divisional Management Model is unique in South African higher education (Stumpf, 2008) and its context is peculiar in that it is implemented in a combination of urban, rural and township settings (Mantashe, 2013). There has been lack of progress in the organisation/institution in which this study is done because of the previous model of management (Higher Education Quality Committee, 2011; Ncayiyana, 2011). The movement from the unitary to the divisional management necessitated a change in structure of management and governance of the institution. Moreover, the researcher was a leader of the Student Representative Council for 3 years in the University in question and has always seen difficulties related to change and its implementation. It would then be interesting how this change would take place effectively and glitches managed appropriately

Moreover, it expressed an unavoidable need for the entire HR department/unit to restructure and rethink allocation of staff in order to meet the needs of the autonomous campuses of the university. Thus, the need to understand this change and its implications finds reason because an organisation as a system needs to find proper balance between the demands for change and the consequences arising therefrom. Therefore, the study is aimed at addressing the concerns highlighted above by investigating this complex process of change insofar as it has affected and continues to affect the implementing arm: the people/workers.

1.4. Significance of the study

The benefit will accrue to the institution in that it appreciates, at the preliminary stage of implementation, how its process of change is affecting workers who are implementers of such change. Additionally the university management would be assisted to better understand this transitional period in relation to workers on the ground. This therefore enables it to improve on its plan of rolling out the programme of change by using the outcomes of the study to reflect in retrospect and look at alternative ways of rolling out change, if necessary. In essence, the study fills a knowledge gap that relates to lack of knowledge of the model of multi- campus management. Additionally, it relates to understanding rural context within which the model is implemented and the kind of politicised workers in the university under study. Therefore the study allows South African higher education to understand this new model and borrow some of its variants in order to improve the management and governance of higher education institutions.

The study explores the implications of this unique model in a semi-rural, semi-suburban, semi-township and urban context. This context is even more peculiar in that workers in it are predominantly from such areas in the university proximity, have various cultural identities, and are highly politicised by their unions. This therefore allows higher education and policy makers to understand the complex nature of politicised workers in a peculiar context.

1.5. Research objectives

The objectives of the research were to:

1.5.1. Investigate the implications of the Divisional Management Model on HR in a merged multi-campus university;

1.5.2. Find out what the HR allocation strategy of the management model of the university entailed;

1.5.3. Investigate the reactions of labour on the HR allocation strategy;

1.5.4. Explore the effects of the university's management model on its employees, and

1.5.5. Understand the current processes, strategies and tactics that the university has put in place to mitigate the DMM effects on staff.

1.6. Research questions

What are the implications of change and transition on the multi-campus university, particularly the HR unit?

1.6.1. Sub-questions

In answering the main question, the following were sub-questions which informed the structure of the interview guide:

1.6.1.1. What does HR allocation strategy of the management model of the merger multi-campus university entail?

1.6.1.2. How is labour reacting to the HR allocation strategy?

1.6.1.3. What are the effects of HR allocation strategy on employees?

1.6.1.4. What are current processes, strategies and tactics put in place by the university to manage broader effects of the management model on staff?

1.7. Scope of the study

Because of time and budgetary constraints, the study focused on one merged multi-campus university in Eastern Cape, and only on the aspect of HR in particular. The study used qualitative case study to understand change (DMM) and its implications on workers/employees. The researcher interviewed workers and managers who work at the HR unit as its population and sample size. The intention was to interview labour unions which represent almost all workers in the institution. Thus the results will be representative of workers affiliating only under the two unions (NEHAWU and NTEU) and may not necessarily be generalizable to non-union affiliates, nor can they be generalised to other institutions. Moreover, HR managers were those of the university under study and are not generalizable either.

1.8. Operational definition of terms

1.8.1. Merged multi-campus university

A multi-merged campus university will refer to the coming together of previously independent academic institutions to form one university with a single set of policies, procedures, rules and regulations.

1.8.2. Organisation

An organisation will refer to a collection of people and technology functioning within an established frame of rules, regulations, procedures, policies and programmes in order to achieve the university goals and objectives at the least possible cost on people and the aims of that organisation.

1.8.3. System

A system is a larger whole which continues to interact with its constituent elements in order to allow the organizational goals to be achieved more effectively. The system in this case defines the structure of the organisation, how people work, what their roles are, what reporting lines look like and who is accountable to whom in the organisation. In this paper, the management model is a system which defines the new face of the university under study: the DMM.

1.8.4. Change

Change is a process of discontinuing the unworkable systems, strategies, models, policies and tactics for purposes of continuously developing better systems and models in order to respond to changing internal and external pressure.

1.8.5. Divisional Management Model (DMM)

The DMM refers to the semi-autonomy of campuses to manage their activities and affairs by using processes, rules, procedures and policies that have already been conceptualised by the central university management such as council and senate. The university central management owns the conceptualisation of policies and the campus management uses and interact with, but cannot change, the policies or rules.

1.8.6. Human Resource

HR refers to the people responsible for the implementation of policies, programmes, rules and procedures on a daily basis in a complex organisation (system), and who must continue to adapt to system change and thus work in a constantly changing environment.

1.9. Outline of chapters

Chapter 1 has provided a comprehensive background in order to predicate the problem statement thereon. The background comprises mergers and complexities thereof. Furthermore, the research questions have been clearly formulated, together with the aim and objectives of the study, followed by the reasons for doing, and the importance of, the study.

Chapter 2 shall review the literature. Specifically the literature to be reviewed focuses on change management, leadership, HR and the effects of change and transition in HR.

Chapter 3 shall focus on theoretical frameworks and their relevance on the study that has been done. The General Systems Theory (GST) and the 6-step model are discussed and justified appropriately in this chapter.

Chapter 4 discusses methodology and methods of research. The research approach, designs and instruments are discussed at length, followed by data collection procedure together with data analysis methods and ethical considerations.

Chapter 5 provides a structure of the report on data, creates themes and codes, reports and discusses the findings of the study.

Chapter 6 provides a comprehensive summary of the whole study, including the findings, accompanied by recommendations as informed by the findings of the whole study.

1.10. Conclusion

In this chapter, the background and rationale of the study was given. It was broadly stated that the phenomenon being investigated is located in the merger complexities insofar as a movement from a unitary to a more decentralised model of management. This decentralised model called the DMM would then give birth to other complications relating to managing and leading change and transition, with special attention given to the Human Resource unit. In this context, the problem was explicated at length, with the support of related literature. The main question and sub-questions for investigation were provided, followed by the aim and objectives of the study. The chapter then proceeded to explaining the significance of the study and the contextual meaning of certain concepts which appear in the remaining chapters.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2. Introduction

This chapter surveys related literature. Firstly, analysis is given to the topic of organisational change and change management with the intent to appreciate the concept, after which managerial leadership is briefly explored in order to locate leadership within the management of change. Secondly, the researcher discusses leadership for effective change. In this topic, different styles are discussed with an object of demonstrating which style is more supported by literature in the context of change and transition. Another portion of this topic looks at what effects does the widely supported leadership style have on the organisation and employees. An attempt is made to reconcile transformational and transactional leadership in the process of transitioning people and the organisation. The third topic deals with the organisational structures, the purpose of which is to locate the DMM with less bureaucratic and more flat structure of management. However, the restructuring effects will be dealt with in more detail with literature used to facilitate the conclusive negative effects. Particularly important in the last part of the literature is to maintain the argument that literature demonstrates that restructuring has horrible effects at three levels: (1) at a level of the psychological contract; (2) survivors during and after restructuring, and (3) organisational commitment. Ultimately the literature is able to give way to the data collection, interpretation, presentation and the findings to confirm or disconfirm the literature in relation the transitional processes within the university.

It is the argument of the researcher that the kind of literature that has been explored, explicated and synthesised in this chapter speaks to the heart of the research question. The research sought to answer one main question: how do we understand change and transition and what are the implications of the DMM in a multi-merged university?

2.1. Organisational change

Changes in an organisation happen abruptly or in a planned way. Change that is sudden is more likely to be stressful and to cause resistance, while planned and gradually introduced and programmed change is easier to manage (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1999). Tsouka and China (2002) argue that recently it has come to light that emphasis should be placed on a continuing process of change rather than a sequence of step changes required for an organisation to be successful. The continuous change must be deliberate, controlled and properly managed (Lanning, 2001). Thus, without disputing that change is not always planned, it is vital to have a discussion and analysis on planned change (see chapter 3). However, organisations undergoing change in a planned way need change management and leadership, and we discuss these below and later in this chapter.

2.2. Change management

Change management broadly is a structured approach to transitioning individuals, teams and organisations from a current state to a desired future state, to fulfil or implement a vision and strategy (Change Management Leadership Guide, 2007, p. 4). It is the formal process for organisational change, including a systematic approach and application of knowledge.

Change management means defining, adopting and adapting strategies, structures, procedures, and technologies to deal with change stemming from internal and external conditions (Society for Human Resources Management, 2007). Change management can also be defined as the process of continually renewing an organization's direction, structure, and capabilities to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customer (Moran & Brightman, 2001, p. 111). Therefore, change management must necessarily include efforts to concretize change as a process that demands from it: (1) an understanding of the complexity of multi- campus institutions, organisations and systems as constantly reactive during, interactive with and responsive to internal and external pressures; (2) change as an unremitting phenomenon which necessitate discontinuation of the current in favour of progressive development; (3) models and frameworks as strategic efforts to restructure organisations, and (4) HR as a critical element that makes or break change, and the workers as species operating within the confines of groups thinking in terms of either portraying a regressive or progressive behaviour where change is concerned.

Relying on Nickols (2010), the researcher identifies three aspects in the definition of change that need further elaboration. According to Nickols (2010) change management is a *task of managing change*, an *area of professional practice* and a process that uses *control mechanisms* in ensuring that an organisation moves from the unwanted state to a desired one. These aspects are briefly elucidated.

2.2.1. Task of managing change

Involved in change management is the task of managing change itself. Sidra et al. (n.d.) argue that managing change can be illustrated as a process of making changes in a planned and managed way, and managing responses to change. To say that changes are made in a planned way is to say that there is a structured process of moving from the current state to the desired one (Sidra et al., n.d.). A systematic change logically affects the roles and responsibilities of the people, processes and structures of the organisation in ways that demand adaptation to and adoption of the news ways of doing things. Essentially this means that the very essence of the current affairs is in the process of disappearing and being put to rest in order to give way for the new order. This is why Seijts and O' Farrell, (2003) warn that change is a risky affair that demands systems change, to which it might can be added that there is a replacement of the old by the new. It demands change not just in a system abstractly, but it requires the entire constituent elements to change also. Effectively, therefore, such systems change has a profound impact on society and everything in general and as such it is important to understand how to manage it (Bowin, 2001).

The task of change management is to encapsulate in the planned process of change the means and mechanisms to deal with all factors which may put on hold or possibly derail the entire process of change. This needs to be done according to the advice offered by Smith (2006) who says that the task of managing change implies the ability to plan way before change itself takes place. Moreover a process of proper consultation of the affected people has to occur in order to minimise resistance (Sidra et al., n.d.). Sidra et al. (n.d.) point out that the task is to manage the impact of change on people. It is a known fact that change affects humans in almost all respects. According to Ajay (2002) it affects them emotionally.

The feeling of possible retrenchment evokes unwanted emotions and possible resistance. Thus, change management, in its task of managing the impact of change on people (Nickols, 2010), should also comprise efforts to alter behaviour and attitudes of workers, to minimise doubts and fears, to increase confidence of workers in the managers of change and to create an environment of trust and co-operation (Govender, Moodley, & Parumasur, 2005) for the mutual benefit of meeting both the organisational vision and mission and workers' interests such as job security.

It follows from the above paragraphs that change managers should put processes and strategies in place in order to counter what Govender et al. (2005) refer to as resistance to change by workers. Doing that would be in keeping with the spirit of responding to scientific informative evidence which suggests that, even the first form of change during the new millennium workers, there was low staff morale, staff insecurities due to possible retrenchments, redundancies and redeployment (Seijts & O' Farrell, 2003).

2.2.2. An area professional practice

Nickols (2010) also suggests that change management is an area of practice with a body of knowledge, drawing its content of subject matter from psychology, business, economics, engineering, sociology, systems engineering and the study of human and organisational behaviour. He also adds that these component bodies of knowledge are integrated by a set of concepts and principles known as General Systems Theory (GST) (Nickols, 2010, p. 3).

The implication of this definitional aspect is that change managers have to have some expertise at a professional level, especially because the organisations undergoing change have to do so with precision and high level of professionalism where treatment of and interaction with employees is concerned. Moreover change managers, agents and champions have to be well versed with the complex nature of organisations and have all necessary expert skills of both leadership and management, more about these will be discussed later.

2.2.3. A control mechanism

Sidra et al. (n.d.) say that change management is also about controlling and monitoring standards, requirements and processes through which effective change can be made possible. This implies that change managers can put ways in place in which success of change can be achieved with minimum effects on workers and the organisation at large. let it be added that control mechanisms may require strong types of leaders who possess transactional leadership in order to drive change to its destination – more about transactional leadership in the broader discussion about types of leadership styles necessary when transitioning people will be provided later.

From the three aspects of the definition of change management, it becomes clear that more than anything else, change management inherently yearns for leadership whose task is to direct individuals, groups and organisations to a desired state. Thus, change should be a process that focuses on people, their resistance and their coping mechanisms, and ultimately how they deal with the changes in the workplace (Gotsill & Natchez, 2007). Those with management skills also need leadership qualities in order to execute the primary task of change management.

Having thoroughly discussed the concept of change management which inherently demands a proactive managerial leadership that plans change, what logically comes after is to look at some of the models of planned change in order to locate leadership styles within the context of such structured approach of change, after which look at the overall effects and implications of both change, its management and leadership styles.

2.3. Management and leadership: a delineation

Categorically speaking, there is a fine distinction between leadership and management and a delineation of the two is necessary. As much as there is this fine distinction between the two, they are similar to and different from each other at the same time (Kotter, n.d.). The latter author states that these two concepts are, however, different on more dimensions than they are similar. The distinction is not only academic; it is also practical. It is important to note that the two are not mutually exclusive. In order to make this contrast and distinction, we look at what authors have to say leadership is in relation to management and what the latter is in relation to leadership. Leadership is a process used by people when they are bringing forth the best from themselves and others (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). The authors argue that leaders are credible, inspiring, enable others to act and they recognise their employee’s contribution. Leaders are, in addition, engaged in empowering others to make decisions by themselves (Havenga, 2002).

Kotter (n.d.) maintains that managers limit choices of employees, while leaders create opportunities for growth by allowing responsibility taking through delegation of tasks.

The authors goes to make an even clearer distinction by arguing that managers handle planning, organisation, controlling, monitoring, budgeting and staffing, while leaders handle the process of change through trying to align people and directing their efforts and energies to the achievement of organisational goals. Seitjs and O'Farrell (2003) contribute by saying that leadership includes directing the organisation, motivating people and stimulating their behaviours and attitudes to be consistent with the direction the organisation is taking, and coaching them on how to wrestle against complexities and barriers to change. The reason for coaching and guiding behaviours is that these are of primary significance in a transformation process (Eisenbach, Watson, & Pillay, 1999). The behaviour of workers is important and merits attention from the leadership of change, otherwise without its transformation; it is hard to believe that successful change can occur. Govender et al. (2005) confirms that in a work environment, behaviour is linked to the functions that people perform and therefore new roles and responsibilities necessarily require adaptation on the part of the behaviour and attitudes of individuals.

It is noted, as a means of cautioning for the necessity of recognition of these differences on the one hand and as a means to facilitate a need for the existence of both on the other hand, that weak or no leadership stifles creativity and is likely to be very bureaucratic (Kotter, n.d.). Kotter (n.d.) equally notes that weak management can end up being involved in change for the sake of merely being engaged in it, thus misdirection of change is possible in this instance. In this case the leader is tasked to work creatively and proactively in creating a suitable environment for effective successful change, while a manager must make possible compliance to processes and procedures put in place when undergoing change.

Therefore it is fair to rely on Williams, Woodward and Dobson (2002) when they say that all managers are leaders because they both help others to achieve goals. One cannot be a manager of effective nature unless one possesses the necessary leadership for leading such change. These assertions from the beginning of this discussion must already be considered advice to the leaders during change: managerial leadership should not ignore reactions in the process of transforming attitudes, behaviours, feelings and general narratives of the workers during transition. This is because the goals of the organisation are better realised when the leadership in the management of change is capable of nurturing positive attitudes to the workers that are affected by change (Govender et al., 2005).

2.4. Effective leadership during change and transition

A number of authors such as Groenewald and Ashfield (2008), Hughes (2010) and Stander and Rothman (2010) suggest that leadership is imperative to the successful implementation of change. The reason for this relates to its impact on organisational performance and its outcomes for both the organisation and individual employees (Tucker & Russel, 2004). It is also because of its impact on employee commitment to organisational change (Yu, Leithwood & Jantzi, 2002) and organisational condititions (Lam et al., 2002). Thus, no matter how good management may be during transition from the status quo to a changed scenario, it may not be adequate; leadership is necessary to motivate, influence and inspire employees and the rest of organisational members to accept, help implement and facilitate change. Such leaders, as contemplated by Lam et al. (2002), foster change, create the future and move people where they are better off. Leadership within a complex organisation achieves this function through three sub-process processes, namely establishing direction, aligning people and motivating and inspiring (Kruger, 2003).

The immediate question that cannot be escaped during transitional periods in organisations is: what leaders are needed in order to collectively make the transition smooth? Before that can be answered, the concept of leadership must be fully comprehended. The concept has no clear-cut definition because it is a subjective one (Stewart, 2006). This is to say that there are multiple definitions attached to the meaning of the concept by different authors and organisations. However, the concept continues to be popularly used and applicable despite the fact that it is difficult to study and understand (Chen, 2003). Barrett (2008) adds that researchers seldom utterly agree on how best to define the concept of leadership. In order to bring some sort of understanding about leadership, Chen (2006) states that the behaviour of leaders enable us to see and feel the existence leadership. The author goes on to argue that leadership exists when man influences others for the attainment of organisational goals.

Many researchers and scholars have this to say about leadership: leadership is the ability to influence members to voluntarily pursue organizational goals and that leadership is the use of non-coercive and symbolic influence to direct and coordinate the activities of the members of an organized group toward the accomplishment of group objectives (Bateman & Snell, 2002, p. 380; Kinicki & Williams, 2003, p. 448). Another author says, in addition, that leadership refers to the men or women, who may not necessarily be Presidents or Chief Executive Officers, who influence others, command others' attention, and persuade others to follow them or pursue defined goals, control situations, improve the performance of groups and organisations and get results (Barrett, 2008, p. 3). Sadra et al. (n.d.) further state that leadership forms the essence of change management processes in which case management of change that excludes the necessity of leadership does so at the peril of the very change it wants to achieve. Change managers are essentially change champions.

Their being champions of change is derived from the fact that they have power or authority to organise people or groups/teams in order to direct and lead them for the accomplishment of tasks or goals of organisations (Sidra et al., n.d.). This validates the fact that change hinges strategically on leadership. Govender et al. (2005) confirm the validity of this statement when they say that change needs leadership support, without which it is likely to collapse.

We need to go a step further in our quest of establishing a thorough comprehension of leadership. Leadership also has to do with influence (Northouse, 2010), implying that one has power to influence, command and order others to do something they would not have otherwise done (Chen, 2006). Chen (2006) states that such power is intangible and abstract; it can only be felt and cannot be seen or touched. Such power can be derived from a number of sources. There are five sources of power which the researcher believes leadership during change already has and can exercise complementary: coercive, expert, legitimate, referent and reward power (Daft & Marcic, 2004, pp. 414-415). However these powers need to be exercised by a kind of leadership which is transformational (more about this later).

Another important aspect of leadership is “trait”. According to Yukl (2006), personality trait stresses attributes such as personality, values, attitudes and skills that are naturally endowed to the individual, and which are not easily transferrable or present to many. Chen (2006) says that researchers organise personality traits under five categories: openness, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Sadra, et al. (n.d.) also adds that there are personality traits that good leaders should have in the process of leading change which are: self-confidence, ambition, drive and tenacity, realism, psychological openness, appetite for learning, creativity, and fairness.

Moreover, the authors argue that leaders should be able to work with teams in the organisation in the quest to achieve the aims and objectives of the organisation. These three qualities assist in clarifying the mission, vision and values; identifying strategies, structure and policies; generating efficient learning processes, and facilitating subordinates to develop their mental model continuously and to think systematically (Sadra et al., n.d., p. 116). Overlaying power and personality traits are leadership competencies (Chen, 2006). These competencies are: cognitive, technical and affective competence (Chen & Chang, 2001; Rue & Byars, 2003). According to these authors: Cognitive competence implies that leadership is able to: have multiple experiences, self-awareness; be forward-looking, share information, listen to subordinates; be learning, intelligent, systematic thinking, envisioning, having business knowledge, and have social awareness and creativeness. Affective competence means that leadership: has self-confidence, is willing to serve people, activeness, and has honesty and integrity, insisting on excellence, courage, compassion, decisiveness, passion, and willing to lead. Finally, technical competence means that leadership has ability to execute, ability to organise a team; has self-management, relationship management, inspires and motivates others, is able to foster communication, producing high-quality work, building groups/teams, and ensures cohesiveness and pride, coaching to improve performance, and ability to design.

Clearly, leaders have a task to lead people, whether groups or teams, to a desired direction, that is the new path. In the process, people must accept the leadership, direction and the destination to which the organisation is going. The only way this can happen is when the relationship between the leader and the workers is clearly established in a way that is reciprocal, in which case the leader achieves the vision and the workers benefit from the achievement of the vision.

What transpires from this discussion is that leaders have to possess some specific abilities in order to lead change. Ajay (2002) suggests the following leadership capabilities as necessary for a leader of change: Superhuman determination to make things happen; persistence and stamina; a sufficient mandate that stems from personal change, and first-rate intelligence. There are specific competencies that leadership of change have to have in order to drive successful change. Gruban (2003) defines the concept of competence as an ability to manage knowledge and other skills and capabilities. These competences are briefly noted below in the table as developed by three authors.

Table 2.9.: Leadership competencies for effective change management (Pagon, Banutai, & Bizjak, 2008, p. 4)

Cognitive competence	**Functional competence**	**Social competence**	**Successful change**
• Creativity; • Self-reliance; • Problem solving capabilities; • Analytical Skills ;	• Communication Skills; • Technological/ Special; knowledge and Skills;	• Interpersonal Skills; • Team working abilities; • Cross cultural abilities; • Flexible to others;	• Increase in Productivity; • Increase in Relationship Quality; • Strong Cooperation;

• Divergent Thinking; • Future Oriented; • Good consultation, and • Critical Approach	• Career planning Skills; • Managerial abilities; • Strong Decision Making abilities, and • Knowledge abilities	• Stress; Management Capabilities; • Motivational Role/ Skills; • Ethical Skills, and • Integration Skills	• Strengthen Organizational Culture and Climate; • Employees' satisfaction, and • Reduce number of Conflicts

Different authors confirm that leadership competences correlate with successful organisation change (Gruban, 2003).

2.5.1. Specific leadership skills in transitional times

Possessing skills in change management has been linked to bringing about successful organisational change (Gilley et al., 2009, p. 78). Bossidy and Charan (2002) and Gilley (2005) argue that vital at the centre of making a successful change is proper understanding of change implementation techniques and flexible and adaptive styles of management and modification of organisational functions. The authors argue that if these are absent, then success is barred.

Following from the above, it can be said that leadership of change has to have certain capabilities because the latter is necessary to define the kind of leadership that can be able to effectively change and mitigate problems associated with transition.

Management and leadership styles need to be adjusted and responsive to the changing environment if hurdles to success must be minimised (Bossidy & Charan, 2002; Gilley, 2005). Thus, the leadership during transition must be such that they possess dexterity in balancing organisational interests and people’s interests. Below we discuss some specific skills leaders need to have for change to have better prospects for success.

2.5.1.1. Political skills

Every organisation is a social system in that it is primarily constituted by people (Nickols, 2010). People who work for an organisation have different interests, preferences and narratives about how the organisation is and should contribute to their personal growth and objectives. Nickols (2010) suggests that an organisation is hotly and intensely political so that the change agent needs some acumen in order to manage politics. What makes organisations more political is the emergence of group thinking in the form of unions who speak and represent the interests of workers in that organisation. Such workers have bargaining power and therefore a political strategy is needed to circumvent lack of smooth transitioning.

2.5.1.2. Analytical skills

Insofar as analytic skills are concerned, Nickols (2010) asserts that a change managerial leader has to be dexterous in analysis. This analysis refers to the ability to gain insight into the processes of the organisation in relation to the people who must change, engaging in a lucid rational analysis of systems, processes, structures, procedures, rules and people in an attempt to base decisions on verifiable facts and persuasive arguments.

Leaders' thoughts and skills are manifested in actions, structures and processes that enhance or impede change, further strengthening the linkage between their behaviours and effectiveness in implementing change (Gilley et al., 2009, p. 78). Nickols (2010) promises that with analytic skills, a change agent, though he/she may be challenged by those who must accept and embrace change, may not be suppressed or ignored of his analysis. However, the author guarantees that because it cannot be successfully contested, it can, in most cases, carry the day. The most important two skills that change agents must learn and have are: "(1) work flow operations or systems analysis and (2) and financial analysis" (Nickols, 2010, p. 8).

2.5.1.3. People skills

The change agent, in the process of change, does not deal with machine people with machine minds and machine hearts; instead it deals with people who have feelings, attitudes, perceptions and generally different behaviours and such people may react to change differently. Being a leader of change, one has to focus more on human aspects of change as individuals are the main actors in the sphere of intellectual capital (Sadra et al. n.d., p. 114). These individuals have certain attitudes that need to be understood. Chang (1994, p. 90) submits the importance of realising that "attitudes are both cognitive and highly emotional - our minds form the attitudes, and we often react to them on a gut level". Leaders ought to recognise people's needs, aims and objectives and find out how they can, in a changing dynamic and complex circumstance, fit or align their inclinations with those of the organisation.

Motivating people to partake in change may also mean showing people that change is something constant and that they are in charge of such change. This would show employees that it is not some autocratic manager or leader who wants change, but that all organisational members inherently want change.

Carnall (1999) laments, however, that the opposite normally happens. People often get authoritarian management, have avoidance of key issues, with insufficient management, no clear milestones and no feedback. However, it takes a person's person, a person rooted in membership and a person who initiates change on the ground with the ordinary workers in the lowest of the hierarchy of the organisation. Leaders who initiate change at the top logically have to possess the best skills and expertise in influencing people about change in the organisation. Indeed it takes a particular personality to initiate and lead change with the people and on behalf of the organisation.

Nickols (2010) frames the idea of people skills within the context of communication or interpersonal skills. According to this author, to be effective one must be able to listen actively, to restate, to reflect, to clarify without interrogating, to draw out the speaker, to lead of direct the discussion, to plant ideas and to develop them (Nickols, 2010, p. 8). However, it is vital to look into other aspects relating to people's attitudes. Attitudes in a work environment reflect people's feelings. An attitude is the way one thinks, feels and acts toward some aspect of the environment (Govender et al., 2005). Thus, when change occurs, leaders are required to take these complex issues of different personalities into account. De Bruyn and Kruger (2001) suggest that communication is an important tool in the hands of leaders for ensuring and enhancing change and can be utilised to build dedication and devotion to change programmes. Different authors have recommended that management should present proposed changes in a "face-to-face open forum and that clear, consistent and accurate information with all stakeholders" is important (Fullan, 2001, p. 32). It follows logically that because change will affect people directly or indirectly, they must be constantly communicated with in order to increase a sense of ownership of such change.

Leaders who master the element of communication, and who constantly exploit various means of ensuring that feedback is given to workers on every progress, if any or lack thereof, and reasons for delays, are well on their way to addressing one of the major concerns of the implementers. It has furthermore been recognised that one of the major failures of the South African HE sector, delaying its effective transformation, is a shortage of skilled leadership, problematic governance and a lack of adequate management capacity (Higher Education Leadership and Management Programme, 2004).

2.5.2. Leadership styles

Because of the changing nature of the external environment and the unpredictable changes, management of change is necessary and is an accepted way of life of organisations (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Macnamara, 2004). In this context, it is said that since change has become a benchmark for most organisations it is also leadership that drive change and as such is constantly challenged. They have to constantly adjust their leadership style in order to align with the needs and demands imposed by change. This places a burden on change management to have at its disposal, and to further practically employ, the necessary styles of leadership for ensuring effective change. Perhaps to borrow the words of Fall (2008) directly, we may summarise and set into motion the upcoming discussion on the most appropriate style of leadership during the times of change. The author has this to say about change and necessity of leadership: “Periods of change are characterised by extraordinary levels of ambiguity and uncertainty, demanding unequivocal follower trust and faith in leadership to navigate through the fog and ease anxieties back to the level where they are motivating rather that paralyzing” (Fall, 2008, p. 3). This brief analysis by Fall makes necessary a style or a combination of styles of leadership in order to mitigate these conditions that exist during change.

A style of leadership expresses a behavioural pattern of a leader and how various styles of leadership impact on the effectiveness of the organisation (Hanson & Anderson, n.d.).

Studies establish two factors in leadership: (1) the extent to which a leader is concerned about people, and (2) people/humans in an organisation. Some leaders are concerned with getting work done. They are production-centred and effective machination of humans (Hanson & Anderson, n.d.). These authors say that other leaders are concerned with people's well-being and their feelings about the organisation. In a changing organisation, leaders should be able to change their patterns of leadership and respond to the changing nature of the organisation. This implies that their (leadership) styles should not simply be rigid and authoritative; leaders should be able to adapt their behaviour as the organization transitions from one stage to another (Bolton, 2007). Next we will discuss two styles of leadership and evaluate how they can be applicable during transition. These are: transactional and transformational.

2.5.2.1. Transactional leadership

The assumptions of this leadership style, according to Nikezić, Dašić, and Bojić (2012), are that employees are motivated by the leader through rewards and punishments, followers receive a directive from the leader, which must be respected throughout production process and there is no self-motivation, but the follower is controlled by the leader during the entire manufacturing process. Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam (2003) add that transactional leadership is about the other (employees in this case) fulfilling the obligations entailed in the contracts signed prior to the assumption of work by the employee, and the leader in exchange rewarding them for the completion of task and performance of contractual duties.

The authors say that broadly transactional leadership is theorized to comprise the following three first-order factors: (a) contingent reward leadership (i.e., constructive transactions) which refers to leader behaviours focused on clarifying roles and task requirements and providing followers with material or psychological rewards contingent on the fulfilment of contractual obligations; (b) management-by-exception active (i.e., active corrective transactions) which involves the active vigilance of a leader whose goal is to ensure that standards are met, and (c) management-by-exception passive (i.e., passive corrective transactions) which suggests that leaders only intervene after noncompliance has occurred or when mistakes have already happened (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 265).

Clearly transactional leaders are preoccupied with standards, policies and procedures, controlling and monitoring systems and ultimately achieving objectives of the organisation. They have, however, a very narrow focus and do not encourage creativity and new ideas. The leadership style is inflexible, rigid and difficult to change because it is part of the human person, his personal characteristics Nikezić et al., (2012). Followers/workers insofar as they are understood by this leadership are to be instructed, punished, and rewarded according to monetary values (Nikezić et al., 2012). The better the performance, the more the incentives will do. In addition, this leadership style is more concerned about cost reduction and this is part of its competency (Nikezić et al., 2012). The authors say that left side of the brain (rational behaviour), completely dominated, so the right brain (emotional intelligence) is totally excluded from leadership behaviour (Nikezić et al., 2012, p. 287).

2.5.2.2. Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is perhaps the most prominent model in organisational behaviour (Van Wart, 2003). This model of leadership is not only prominent in the field of organisational behaviour, it is argued that it is most suitable to deal with organisational change (Yukl, 2008). This is discussed in great detail below.

2.5.2.2.1. What is transformational leadership?

Transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms individuals. "It is concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards and long-term goals, and includes assessing followers motives, satisfying their needs, treating them as full human beings and it involves an exceptional form of influence that moves followers to accomplish more than what is usually expected of them" (Northouse, 2004, p. 169). Followers need to be moved from their preoccupation with their self-interests, uncertainties and fears of the consequences of being in a changing environment. They need a leader who transforms their thinking. They need leaders who can transform them because they are vulnerable and confused, and they need leaders to mould them to face the future with a clear conscience, capable of dealing with consequences and transition. The absence of a transformational leader is the absence of hope, compassionate and empathetic approach to change – a possible recipe for disastrous transition.

Moynihan, Pandey, and Wright (2011) state that transformational leaders shape behaviour of employees through three psychological processes: inspiration, influence and intellectual stimulation.

Followers need leaders who have what it takes to manipulate these psychological processes. They need leaders who inspire, motivate and persuade in order to influence them to work towards the good of the entity (Godardt & Lenhardt, 2000; Thorn, 2003). Appeabaum (2000) says that such leaders who can do these are more effective for an organisation and help it to develop change and bring innovation. This is true because leaders of this quality articulate a compelling optimistic vision of the future. They take a stand on controversial issues and are confident that goals will be achieved (Van de Walt, 2005, p. 2). They are leaders who do not vacillate, fumble or wander; they are always energetic and ready to move people from their comfort zones. They are, in essence, people-driven during change processes and periods.

Schmid (2006) says that transformational leadership help others conceptualise think about and cope with challenges and thus build capacity to solve problems. This behaviour of transformational leadership expresses a leader who treats others in an individualised way and caters for their emotions and personal needs, thus promoting development and self-growth (Dvir et al., 2002). It reveals a leader who is capable of making others aspire to emulate his/her leadership because of its power, confidence and willingness to make important sacrifices for the benefit of others (Godard & Lenhardt, 2000). When people cannot make sacrifices during periods of change, it is unlikely that they will give their all for the organisation and see themselves as agents of change. A leader has to engage them in the process of getting themselves out of their narrow interests.

Transformational leadership is persuasive, empowering to others to take leadership in, of and for themselves (Manz & Sims, 2001). This ensures that followers are capable of leading themselves and do not need the leader any longer (Van de Walt, 2005, p. 2). Followers can only lead themselves when they are empowered.

For people to be empowered, Mosia (2003) suggests that authority and responsibility must be given to individuals at the lower levels of management. The authors further say that empowerment of subordinates creates an environment of trust and motivation.

It appears from the foregoing discussion that there are particular factors or dimensions of transformational leadership that set it apart from other styles of leadership. Moreover, it is becoming increasingly clear that its impact during change is vital. Below we discuss some of the factors and dimensions.

2.5.2.2.2. Transformational leadership components

There are four elements/components of transformational leadership. These are: charismatic leadership (or idealised influence), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, idealised behaviours and idealised attributes (Pearce & Sims, 2002, p. 175). Each is briefly discussed below.

2.5.2.2.2.1. Idealised influence

Avolio and Bass (2002) state that idealised influence has charisma as an element of transformational leadership. Essentially charisma evokes feelings of attachment to the leader, idolisation and wish to emulation of the transformational leadership character, and utmost trust towards the leader (Jung & Avolio, 2000). Jung and Avolio (2000) contend that shared vision is an important component of idealised transformational leader’s role.

Through the alignment of the personal values and interests of the workers or followers with the vision of the organisation, it becomes possible to help others look at the future of the organisation and create acceptance on the part of followers (Avolio & Bass, 2002).

Leaders who have this important element are able to also take risks and share them with the followers (Avolio & Bass, 2002). This is to say that such leaders are willing to live and die with the followers. Basically the leader is the ideal person who takes the followers into his confidence, whose integrity is highly praised and appreciated, whose character and acumen is least questioned and therefore whose followers feel comfortable of his/her leadership.

2.5.2.2.2.2. Inspirational motivation

Transformational leaders inspire and motivate others by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p. 2). They build relationships with the followers through interactive communication, which forms cultural bond between the two participants (the leader representing the organisation and the workers affected by such change) and leads to a shifting of values by both parties toward common ground (Stone, 2003, p. 3). These kinds of relations and interactive communicative approaches pay due regard to a communication of a compelling vision in order to make sure everyone buys into it. Necessary and appropriate symbols are used to help others focus on their work, and try to make others feel significant (Bass & Avolio, 2001). The process of communication and approaches chosen to communicate the vision of the organisation simultaneously has to possess a strong element of expectations and commitment to the goals and shared vision (Stone, 2003).

2.5.2.2.2.3. **Intellectual stimulation**

Transformational leaders must be made to challenge their own beliefs and values and be further stimulated to be creative and innovative and take the organisation forward (Bass & Avolio, 2001). Followers must be further encouraged to take intellectual risks and challenge the current assumptions. Moreover, their mistakes should not be criticised, but rather their creativity and innovation openly encouraged (Stone, 2003). The transformational leader here wants to balance the need for personal growth and organisational progress by avoiding demoralising the commitment of the followers.

2.5.2.2.2.4. Individualised consideration

Individualised consideration indicates the degree to which you show interest in others' wellbeing, assign projects individually, and pay attention to those who seem less involved in the group (Northouse, 2004, p. 196). Essentially the transformational leader gives attention to individual followers' needs in order to enhance growth and progress (Avolio & Bass, 2002). The reason is that the leader recognises the intertwinement of individual growth and organisational success. Thus the leader takes into account individual differences, feelings, attitudes. As a consequence the leader has to listen effectively (Avolio & Bass, 2002) to followers. The other thing the leader does is to make sure that to enhance individual development, tasks are delegated and monitoring is not rigid, only the leader wants to find out how the individual task delegated may require one to be given extra support (Stone, 2003).

Metcalfe (1998) has three broad categories to which he clusters qualities of a transformational leader: (1) leading and developing others (showing genuine concern, enabling, being accessible and encouraging change); (2) personal qualities (being honest and consistent, acting with integrity, being decisive, inspiring others and resolving complex problems); and (3) leading the organisation (networking and achieving, focuses effort, building a shared vision, supporting a developmental culture facilitating change sensibly). These qualities, it appears, are such that they invoke the ongoing debate about whether or leaders are born or made. In other words, the question becomes whether or not a person who does not have it in their nature as an inborn quality or trait can be trained to have compassion, sympathy and empathy, or whether to teach someone to have a sense of attachment, honesty and sensitivity to the needs of others is a reasonably possible thing to achieve. Yukl (2006) explains that the main assumption of a trait theory is that leaders are born with traits that others do not have. The logic of this assumption can be understood to imply that if you do not have it within you, then it cannot be imparted on you and therefore it is a gift and talent of the few. For some authors, leadership is a process and can be learned through observation (Daft, 2005; Northouse, 2010).

Schmid (2006) thinks that this debate can be mitigated and reconciled by arguing a proposition that “leaders are not selected, trained, and evaluated solely according to their personality traits, but according to the extent to which their qualities fit different and changing organizational situations” (Schmid, 2006, p. 182). Parry and Sinha (2005) add that training does result in more effective leadership behaviour – whether or not this is effectively the case remains a great debate. However, the debate itself reveals the difficulties attached to really establishing a truly transformational leader with all these qualities established above.

Irrespective of whether or not leaders are born with these qualities, or training makes unborn leaders better, this is beside the point being explained here and does not form part of the broader discussion of this study. Hesketh (2011) says that there is literature that fully endorses transformational leadership as "best fit" to lead through change. Many other authors confirm that transformational leadership proves to be more effective than transactional leadership (Dvir et al., 2002; Northouse, 2001; Waldman et al., 2001). This merits a brief discussion on the effects of such a praised transformational leadership approach.

2.5.2.2.3. Effects of transformational leadership

Thorn (2003) undertook a qualitative study and identified, amongst other findings, that in order to implement change effectively, international leaders need to adopt transformational leadership style. This is because of some of the positive effects associated with this style of leadership. Groenewald and Ashfield (2008) argue that transformational leadership mitigates effects of uncertainty during change and effectively guides workers to achieve their occupational goals. Bezuidenhout and Schultz (2013) provide extended justification about why transformational leadership is the best fit during change when they say that such leadership style goes beyond what transactional leaders do, that is, they go beyond merely clarifying tasks, roles and requirements. They charismatically, during volatile times, inspire confidence and empower workers (Hughes 2010, p. 139). By doing that, such leaders do not just move workers from state of comfort to higher levels of innovation and creativity, they also take the organisation with. For example, they also make possible for the organisation to better perform by improving staff performance (Aarons, 2006). It is also important to note how leaders in question are able to affect organisational culture. Rainey (2009); Sarros, Cooper, and Santora (2008) argue that transformational leaders exert influence by shaping culture.

Leaders emphasise developmental culture by stressing innovation, problem solving and empowerment (Bass & Riggio, 2006) on the part of the followers/employees. They also help align such changed cultures with management systems (Yukl, 2008). Dyer and Dyer (1986) established a cultural change cycle and located the role of the transformational leader and the impact it has on the organisational change.

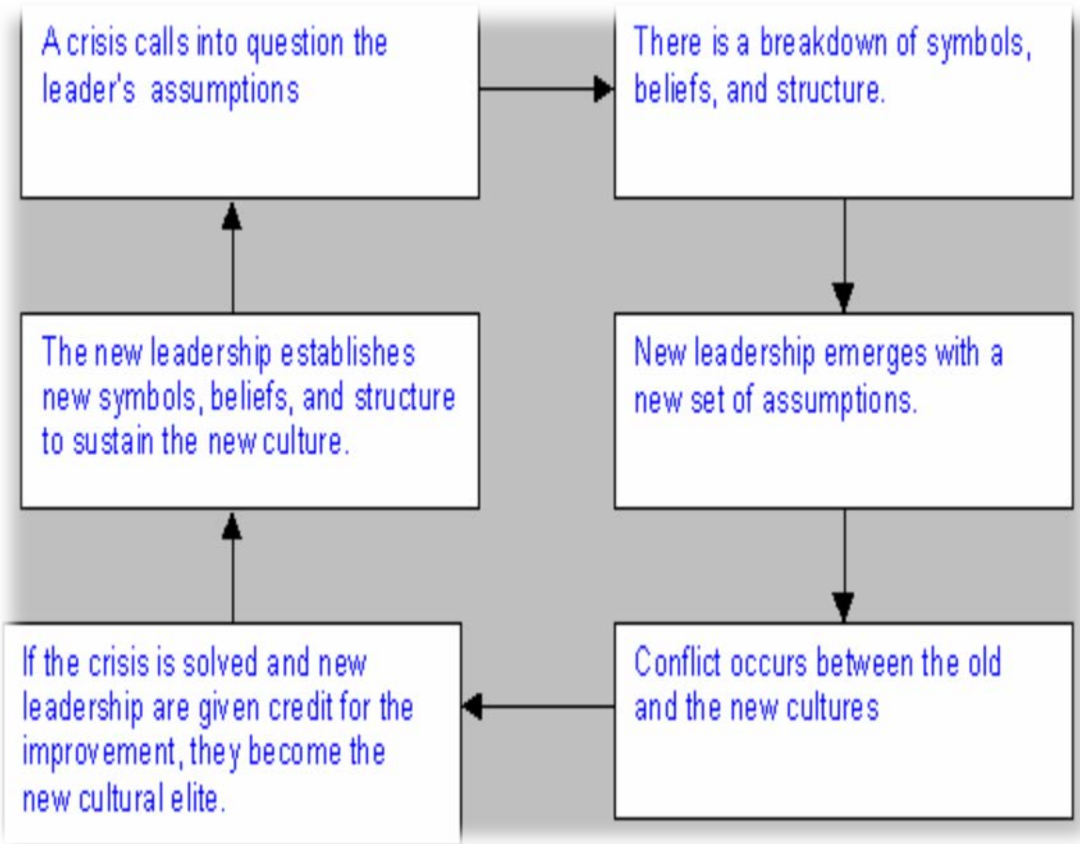

Figure 2.4.3.2.3.1: Cultural change cycle (Dyer & Dyer, 1986, p. 20)

This cycle demonstrates that the leader is in control of manipulating cultures, manoeuvring worker behavioural characters in terms of the new organisation structures and cultures, and penetrating a persuasive view whose propagation is able to displace the comfort complex, old cultural narratives and evoke news ways of looking at different ways of organisational life in a constantly changing organisation. This requires a careful, sensitive and persuasive leader, particularly considering the context of change.

Some additional literature and research suggests that transformational leadership has a positive link with commitment, job satisfaction and effort (Nguni, Sleegers, & Denessen, 2006), high levels of trust in the leadership (Gillespie & Mann, 2000), and stronger connection with the vision (Howell & Shamir, 2005). This becomes possible through the use of charisma, extraordinarily profound words of motivation, rhetoric to rally support of goals, complete sense of appeal and attachment of the transformational leader to the followers during the times of change. Thus, mere power is not used to coerce, as in the case where a military commander can use his authority, rather speeches, images, symbols and the like are used to impel the followers to subordinate their interests in order to achieve benefits from such followers, as alluded above (commitment, trust, and vision-assimilation, complete alignment of efforts and goals of change).

Having undergone discussed the factors and dimensions of transformational leadership, required competencies and skills and its effects on people and organisation during change, we need to look at its relation to transactional leadership and how, if possible, these can be intertwined for purposes of making effective change.

2.5.2.2.4. Can transactional and transformational be reconciled?

Lai (2011) clears any possible confusion in regard to the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership by arguing that these two are not mutually exclusive. The author says that the two must not be wrongly conceptualised as opposing ends of a spectrum. This is because a combination of select elements from both leadership styles may yield the best results (Lai, 2011, p. 4). Appearing from this argument is that there are elements that are reconcilable and those, though not extremely unrelated, also have an inverse relationship. The procedure of looking at the reconcilability, it seems, is to look at whether certain elements of both styles can yield the same outcome(s). In responding to this question, Judge and Piccolo (2004) performed a meta-analysis of 626 correlations from 87 sources to relate transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership characteristics in relation to the question of whether or not it was possible to have job satisfaction, follower motivation and organisational performance.

The findings were that there was a link between effective leadership and all dimensions of transformational leadership (idealised influence, individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation) on the one hand, as well as single dimension of transactional leadership, contingent reward. This outcome serves as a reference in the argument that the two styles can complement each other. The other study done by Wang et al., (2011) corroborates that of Lai's in that it demonstrates that transformational leadership at personal, group and organisational levels with a strong performance beyond expectations described in the job performance, while contingent reward, a dimension of transactional leadership, made it possible for better individual task performance.

From the above it is clear that a leader who possesses some elements or dimensions of one leadership style and suffers from those of another style will surely find it difficult to lead and manage transition because the latter demands task performance by people who may yet not have transcended their prejudices, biases and stereotypes. In this case a transactional leader will only go as far as being rewarding, punitive and corrective without ever succeeding, and the transformational leader will still be too loose for merely being people-centred without an ability to resemble a managerial competency that is inherent in transactional leadership. This leads to the conclusion that these styles must be used as complimentary, and not as supplementary, means to advance change and guide transition in turbulent times.

2.6. Organisational restructuring

There are some definitions offered for what organisational restructuring is. Cascio (2002) sees organisational restructuring as “planned changes in a firm’s organisational structure that affect its use of people” (Cascio, 2002, p. 4). Clearly restructuring changes the configuration in one way or another and ultimately requires a new way of realigning all employees. Despite the fact that organisations have to transform, Lanning (2001) and McMillan (n.d.) laments that very often organisational structure is overlooked. The authors go on to caution that if the structure of an organisation and the underlying design principles which construct it are not it tune with the core purposes of the organisation and its many environments, then it is unlikely to successfully survive (Mcmillan, n.d., p. 1). Thus a structure reflecting changes has to be understood in the context of people, their roles, responsibilities and report lines. Some authors see a structure of an organisation as a pattern of relationships between roles and its different parts (Mabey, Salam, & Storey, 2001).

These roles are applicable to workers and management in terms of how they work and relate to and with each other through the use of appropriate lines of reporting insofar as accountability is concerned. This description is important because it reveals the naked reality of what happens when change happens in the structure of the organisation, especially for the people.

The organisation structural configuration describes the organisation's framework (Robbins, 1991, p. 285). A framework proposed by Mintzberg (1989) suggests that every organisation has six basic constructive parts. Top management (strategic apex) is located on the top of the organization. Middle management (middle line) is at the intermediate levels, and the technical core (operating core) includes the people who do the basic work of the organisation. The technical support staffs (techno-structure) are the engineers, researchers and analysts who are responsible for the planning and control of the technical core. The administrative support staffs (support staffs) provide indirect services and include clerical, maintenance and mail room employees. Finally, every active organisation may have a sixth part which is ideology or culture. Mintzberg (1989) also argues that ideology comprises values, customs, traditions and long-held beliefs distinguish one organisation from others by their way of organisational life.

What is clear from the above description is that when organisations restructure or reconfigure, their frameworks change together with their operations. This change affects how the organisations are governed and managed. It affects line functions and services of the organisation. More importantly it affects the people who have to be routinized in the new ways of doing things.

2.6.1. Reconfiguration and structural changes in university: what are appropriate models of management?

A university is comprised mainly of provision of teaching and learning, and, let it be mentioned, research on the one hand, and information provision, communication technology, administration functions and management per se on the other hand (Rosendaal & Zalewska-Kurek, 2010). Harman and Harman (2003) state that mergers may result into either federal or unitary structures. Federal structure, according to Mawila (2009), has a central body that executes agreed upon responsibility. Institutions participating in the merger often have specified responsibilities and authority that remain with them. Federal models are attractive because they promise retention of substantial autonomy and key elements of separate identity (Mawila, 2009, p. 41). It seems, however, that the federal model has not been popularly used and has been having bad experiences internationally, particularly on state institutions (Massingham, 2001). In Australia there have been only two institutions that adopted this model between 1987 and 1991 (Mawila, 2009). Harman (2002) and Hatton (2002) say that Western Sydney University and Charlse Stuart university adopted unitary model. This trend became existent because the federal model limited the amount of course and administrative rationalisation and stability during times of conflicts (Massingham, 2001; Hatton, 2002).

The unitary model of management of the university means that there is a single campus management with the absence of campus heads or campus budgets, but has key budget units, faculties and administrative divisions that function cross-university (Harman & Harman, 2003). In this model, participating institutions are not recognised as individuals (Mawila, 2009).

There is a single set of governance structures and a CEO and everything is almost centralised (Harman & Harman, 2003). The universities in South Africa have all used the unitary model with very little variants according to Stumpf (2008). According to the author, South African universities developed from single campus institutions to having a number of campuses or additional sites of delivery, most management models represented either a continuation of the single campus management model, or some variation of that. This consultant made the following argument in relation to the kinds of management models in South Africa. The following are basic elements of the South African universities after mergers: that of managing the institution as if it consisted of one campus only, even if it had additional sites of delivery; that of managing an institution with a main campus and some formally recognised satellite campuses which may enjoy varying degrees of decision making powers; that of a genuine multi-campus institution consisting of a number of campuses but not having a formally designated main campus, in which the institution is, however, managed in terms of a unitary management model – usually in the form of an administrative and management centre, and the multi-campus model within a unified system in which campuses enjoy considerable managerial autonomy, and an Institutional Office that provides services concerning strategic planning and policy development to the campuses (Stumpf, 2008, p. 17).

2.6.1.1. The unitary model of management

Such institutions that use unitary management model fit within the hierarchical structural and organisational design, in which case the power is centralised and bureaucracy prevails. These institutions cannot predicate their decisions to be strictly hierarchical from any assumption which Handy (1993) has spotted.

According to this author there is a long-held assumption that if organisations are to work effectively, then there must be strict hierarchy in terms of authority and span of control.

Provoking this assumption, Handy (1993) argues that there is no logic which says that this horizontal decision sequence needs to be turned into a vertical ladder so that those who take necessary earlier decisions are higher in the hierarchy than those who implement them (Handy, 1993, p. 350). Centralisation and strict vertical application of hierarchy can be seen in purely unitary management styles or models. In this case authority implies that there is a top-down approach in terms of decision-making. This ensures continuity, stability, predictable career paths and reward systems (Klenke, 2006). Klenke (2006) adds that the manager has a very clear span of control in terms of where power starts and ends insofar as responsibility and accountability. This form of organisation design and configuration is a product of capitalist industrial thought and is predicated on Fayol's management theory and Frederic Tailor's scientific management theory (McMillan, n.d.). Hierarchy, command and control were the governing principles of employee management, adds the author.

2.6.1.2. **Divisional management model of: a less hierarchical structure**

Mabey et al. (2001) argue that non-hierarchical organisations express a departure and breaking away from the chains of strict command; a movement towards a meagre use of rigid rules that undermine autonomy of business units and exploitation of expertise. Ashkenas, Ulrich, Jick, and Kerr (1995) say that a movement from traditional forms of an organisation structure to what is called complexity science model has successes. The complexity model comprises non-hierarchical, linear, flexible, integrative, holistic and diverse and networked models.

The idea here is that such a new form of configuration that devolves powers is able to work with speed and effectiveness in achieving organisational goals.

The NWU and WSU have such a structure in which power in terms of decision making is devolved to campuses to allow for dealing with problems more effectively. NWU has an organisational structure that espouses the ideals of decentralised and centralised authority (Mmope, 2010). The campuses of NWU operate within the framework of the institution and the latter therefore determines policy, rules, processes and strategy. The institutional office owns the territorial power of processes and direction of the institution (Mmope, 2010).

The basic elements of this model according to Mmope (2010, p. 23) are: (i) The Institutional Office represents the reflective, conceptualising and analytical component of the University on a macro or system level in which the international, national and local environment affecting the North-West University is interpreted and appropriate institutional strategies, plans and processes are developed to assist the Campuses in positioning and organising themselves for the fulfilment of their academic tasks; (ii) the three Campuses, while obviously also engaging in the above activities in relation to their Campuses, are the providers of academic services (teaching-learning, research, and transfer of knowledge) and are thus the operational and income generating entities of the University; (iii) the North-West University also initiated the development of a performance management model, which established the principle of individual accountability residing in the various managers - either at Campus level or at the level of the Institutional Office; and (iv) for senior managers within the Institutional office, this meant that they as individuals were to be held accountable for the leadership displayed within their various portfolios regarding strategic planning, policy and process development.

The model that WSU is pursuing is not fundamentally different from the NWU model. The statute of WSU (2013) reflects the new core changes and states that the campus head has the following functions in terms of its subsections: A campus head is the accounting senior manager of a specific campus; A campus head is responsible for the day-to-day management and administration of a specific campus of the University and has all the powers delegated to him or her by the vice-chancellor; a campus head is accountable to the vice-chancellor or his or her delegate; the campus head is the chairperson of the campus senate committee contemplated in paragraph 19(2)(i); and A campus head may establish a campus management committee to advise him or her on the management and administration of the specific campus, and may be the chairperson of such committee (WSU Statute, 2014, pp. 60-61).

The Daily dispatch (2013) pointed out that the DMM meant that the university will devolve power and give campus autonomy in relation to budgeting, having its own lecturers and staff and administration, with its own campus manager. Thus, the Statute and The Daily Dispatch expresses the view that in each campus, all staff/employees belong to the authority of their heads of departments, deans and ultimately the campus manager/rector/head. In turn, the campus authority is accountable to the university principal. Where policies, rules, processes, vision and mission are concerned, the institutional office takes charge as process owners (Van de Walt, 2012). This is similar to the NWU in that all operations and people account directly to their proximity in the name of the campus principal, and the latter to the institutional office.

2.6.1.2.1. Advantages of the DMM

Klenke (2006) asserts that non-hierarchical organisations have the following advantages: (a) Experience and expertise are often shared; (b) there is more collaboration and cohesion in the organisation; (c) creativity and proactive ideas are discussed and tested within a non-hierarchical environment, and (d) there is an ongoing empowerment of multiple stakeholders in the organisation. These advantages exist because the organisational structure, rather than being more authoritative and top-down, is flatter, allowing for greater autonomy through decentralisation. Goold and Campbell (2002) argue on behalf of a flatter structure when they say that for organisations to perform better, the nature and structure of the organisational design must have little bureaucracy or decision constraints. This is to say that authority with regards to decision making, responsibilities and roles have to be decentralised with discretionary powers clarified. However, Klenke (2006) notes that there are also pitfalls with regards to a flatter organisation. Specifically the author complains that flatter organisations are team based, geographically dispersed, and are electronically networked.

Thus, implementation becomes even more difficult since multiple constituencies must be served. Inherent in the disadvantage is an exposition of this truth: if organisations are so complex and geographically dispersed, then perhaps it is discernible that a flatter structure of managing the organisation becomes an alternative.

2.6.2. Effects of organisational reconfiguration on Human Resource

It is almost impossible to implement organisational restructuring without impacting either negatively or positively on the prevailing employee attitudes within the organisation (Oluyakode, 2013, p. 293). There is wide consensus on literature that restructuring has tremendously terrible consequences on HR, particularly for employees. Martin and Roodt (2008) say that restructuring causes uncertainty, high levels of anxiety, low morale and performance decline, absenteeism and low productivity in general. Lewin and Johnson (2000) reveal that restructuring, as opposed to meeting its objectives and creating a proactive and creative workforce that can enable a productive and competitive organisation, gives birth to a depressed, anxious and angry workforce. These substitute the spirited and enthusiastic people it wants to have. It is for this reason that Oluyakode (2013) makes a valid call for restructuring organisations to help employees adjust to the new roles and responsibilities and develop adaptive work attitudes that are congruent with the goals of the organisation. This can be done in a number of ways. Lawson and Price (2003) suggest that managers have to understand what employees deem fair in the change process and look for mechanisms that positively affect how employees interact with one another. Moreover, people are not going to be automatically able to effectively interact. There must a be a process of skilling and training through provision of opportunity for practice (Lawson & Price, 2003) in order to bring them to some sense of ownership of change.

Whether in a university or profit driven company, it seems to be a general trend that restructuring has effects beyond contemplation and comprehension of those at the helm of the process of change.

For example in a corporation or profit making firm, it is argued that restructuring shortens job tenure and creates precarious work arrangements (Quillam, 2007); confusion with regards to work roles and responsibilities (Frenkel, 2003); extensive loads of work and overload in terms of roles (Gaughan, 2002), which consequentially drops employee retention rate and diminishes morale (Nickels, 2002). This is applicable to a university context and is validated by the fact that when the researcher conducted a study in one campus at which change had started occurring, it was found that workers were unclear about what their roles will be and whether they will retain their positions or not (Mantashe, 2013) furthermore, there were reports from some minority of the workers that they were leaving the university, with some claiming that do not share in the vision of the university.

Further studies have shown other effects of restructuring. According to a study done by Hirsch and Sourcey (2006) that looked at the socio-psychological impact of restructuring, trust and satisfaction of employees and working in the organisation declined compared to the pre-restructuring times. In another study by authors in Australia, job insecurity and role overload (consequences of restructuring) resulted in higher odds of socio-psychological attitudinal problems for the workforce. In his study on the effects of change in the University of Rwanda, Samuel (2013) found that change required that staff should have new qualifications even for administration positions they occupy. Moreover, the author found that it was now a requirement for workers to be assessed on their performance more strictly. This is done by actually having performance contracts for employees. Samuel (2013) pointed out that there was impediment with regards to implementation of performance contracts. This impediment was culture which was held in high esteem. Consequentially, the author laments that there had to be downsizing, restructuring and recruitment of more qualified staff to fill the new posts.

The specific consequences of restructuring on the other particular aspects of workers will now be assessed. Psychological contract, organisational commitment and how survivors of restructuring actually grapple post the latter process will be then be discussed, as well as the consequences because it is a role of leadership and management of change during transition to draw up processes and strategies and to negotiate a way of mitigating the impact these have on the overall success of transition.

2.6.2.1. Psychological contract: how does it affect transition and the future restructured organisation?

Restructuring, in a form of change in roles and responsibilities through the change of policies, procedures and rules already implies that a psychological contract is being tempered with. Bernard et al. (2014) define a psychological contract as a concept that stresses the cognition of workers in terms of their obligations and responsibilities which they must fulfil in exchange for claims they implicitly hold against the organisation. The expectations may flow from a formal contract or it may be an implicit and hidden expectation (Bernard et al., 2014). An employee's understanding and perception, which is not necessarily tangible, stems from the belief that there is an exchange relationship between them and the organisation, in which case they use their competence, put forth individual effort and devote their all to the organisation in exchange for something in return (these include rewards, promotions and satisfactory working conditions).

Because these are not written expectations but are implied obligations on both parties, during restructuring, leadership and management is faced with a challenge of satisfying these expectations during change.

There are far great implications if workers become uncertain about how the new structure in place is capable of retaining the status quo benefits, or if the possible loss of current status is not adequately dealt with in terms of helping the employees cope and adapt with a view of long-term benefits.

2.6.2.2. Survivors and restructuring

Theissen (2004) states that organisational commitment is affected when the psychological contract is breached, especially for those who survived the possibility of being retrenched. Thus, two key problems can be deduced from the concept of the psychological contract: (1) the problem of having seen that restructuring sheds jobs, forces one to change roles and responsibilities and interact in a particularly different work situation and environment, and (2) the fear of the survivor being next in future restructuring (Appelbaum & Donia, 2000), which increases the possibility of anxiety, uncertainty and fear of being fired, and low morale and staff turnover (Ndlovu & Parumasur, 2005). After having identified the consequences of restructuring on survivors, Ndlovu and Parumasur (2005) suggest that change management efforts should be based on putting processes and strategies in place to actually deal with the state of mind of survivors. Some of these mechanisms are presented by other authors. For example Greenberg and Barron (2002) and Mullins (2000) advise that there must be an integrated combination of programmes encompassing techniques of involving of employees, strategies for problem formulation, activities related to team-building and counsel mechanisms insofar as long-term aspirations and career opportunities to address both the needs of the individuals and those of the organisation. Putting in effect these change management strategies for transitioning people is in keeping with the fact that individuals are not machines. They feel anger or pain, doubt and lose patience. They shall not remain submissive like machines.

That is why Ndlovu and Parumasur (2005) insist on the importance of strategies to deal with these factors, suggesting that people's feelings must heeded and education offered to them in terms of the new organisational vision and structure. Finally, their career management needs ought to be considered.

2.6.2.3. Organisational commitment

Eliz and Koslowsky (2001) define organisational commitment as identification with the place one works in: the organisation. These authors say that organisational commitment is characterised by strong emotional attachment to the organisation. Other types of commitment include support and team commitment (Bishop et al., 2005, p. 157). Some authors have an interesting summary about commitment. They say that commitment connects individuals "to a course of action that is of relevance to a particular target" (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 301). This further means that one has loyalty to the organisation and wishes to see it achieve its goals. One also finds it difficult to imagine themselves without the organisation as is the case with intimate personal relations.

Literature suggests, however, that at a point where change takes place through restructuring, which in itself carries and encompasses possibilities of loss of jobs, delayering and employee downsizing (Ogunbameru, 2007), work commitment may be different altogether. Theissen (2004) adds that the fact that people may still remain loyal to the organisation may simply be explained by their desire to keep their jobs; not because they are attached to the organisation. This would in turn mean that their commitment is less and their focus is simply not on the future of the organisation.

It must be noted that this effect is important because employee commitment to an organisation should be a dependable predictor of certain behaviours (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002). Some authors suggest that the extent of this effect can be reduced of its extent and possibly be circumvented according to some scholarships. The best possible way to do this is to: plan proactively, increase communication and make it more open and regular to all staff, respect seniority rights of employees, and articulate the organisation's values and strategic objectives (Dolan et al., 2000).

2.7. Conclusion

Literature shows that change and transition is almost impossible without change management. Moreover, it is vivid from the literature that management and leadership as related concepts need to be understood as distinct competencies that are necessary during change and transition. Effective transition and change as shown in the literature, is contingent on proper application of suitable combination of various skills, competencies (political, analytical and systems skills, together with cognitive and affective competencies). The chapter concluded by looking at the effects of restructuring on HR. in response to these effects, it became clear that literature is unanimous on the following effects: resistance to change, uncertainty, fear, stress, retrenchments, break of psychological contracts, after-effects on survivors of restructuring, staff turnover and low productivity and morale on employees.

CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

3. Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher discusses two theories or models: the General Systems Theory (GST) and the 6-step model as theoretical lenses through which this study is viewed. GST will be an umbrella body of theoretical foundation of systems theory. On the basis of narrowing and concretising the level of abstraction in the GST, the contingency view will be briefly explained. All these theories explain the essence of a changing organisation as a system whose elements must be studied and understood not in isolation, but as interrelated and interacting with others in an organisation. The 6-step model will be discussed at length after the discussion of the GST. Effectively the researcher will show that both theories are relevant for the research study and are both applicable and suitable.

3.5. General Systems Theory (GST)

The theory that serves as a lens for this study was the General Systems Theory (GST) and is discussed at length below.

3.5.1. Foundations of the GST

This theory originated from biology, economics, and engineering, which explores principles and laws that can be generalized across various systems (Alter, 2007, p. 35; Yoon & Kuchinke; 2005, p. 15; Dubrovsky, 2004, p. 112).

It is recorded to have been advanced by Ludwig von Bertanffy in 1940 but did not gain prominence until in the 60s (Amagoh, 2008, p. 2). The author also points out three major pioneers of the GST: Kenneth Boulding, Daniel Katz, and Robert Kahn.

The characteristics of the theory were more related and relevant to living organisms (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972). Katz and Kahn (1966) and Kast and Rosenzweig (1972) suggested that there is a difference between natural and social systems, and that social systems are particularly contrived and have not simply naturally evolved. Silverman (1971) adds against the likening of organisations to organisms, stating that organisations may be systems, but they are not necessarily natural systems. Kast and Rosenzweig (1972) put it (the argument against merely making social organisations as analogous to living organisms) broadly and better when they say that social organisations:

> *“Have structure; but it is the structure of events rather than of physical components, and it cannot be separated from the processes of the system. The fact that social organizations are contrived by human beings suggests that they can be established for an infinite variety of purposes and do not follow the same life-cycle patterns of birth, growth, maturity, and death as biological systems".*

(Kast and Rosenzweig, 1972, p. 455)

GST is primarily concerned with how systems operate, and integrates a broad range of systems by naming and identifying patterns and processes common to all of them (Bausch, 2002, p. 421; Capps & Hazen, 2002, p. 309). By use of such an overarching terminology, GST tries to explain the origin, stability, and evolution of all systems (Alter, 2007: 36; Montuori, 2000, p. 65). GST studies all thinkable relationships abstracted from any concrete situation or body of empirical knowledge (Boulding, 1956, p. 203).

Katz and Kahn (1978) summarize the idea of systems theory as a knowledge framework that focuses on structures, relationships, and interdependence between elements (Katz and Kahn, 1978, p. 27). GST emphasizes that systems are organized—they are composed of interdependent components in some relationship (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972). The authors further say that a living system is characterised by its ability to adapt to its environment in order to prosper and survive. In essence, the elements of purpose, people, structure, techniques and information must be coordinated and integrated by the managerial system in order to maximize value for the organization (Montouri, 2000, p. 66; Randolph & Blackburn, 1989, p.103).

3.5.2. Application of the GST to the changing organisation

Though Kast and Rosenzweig (1972) admitted that GST was crude and lacking in precision at the time they wrote, they still credited it as a theory that provided a new paradigm for the study of social organizations and their management. They argued that the paradigm has been utilised and applied in different organisations early before they wrote on the theory. There is no doubt, notwithstanding the short falls and its limitations, that the systems theory is extensively used in the interrogation of relationships, subsystems' interactions within organisations and in studying environmental interfaces (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1972). Kast and Rosenzweig (1972) however immediately provides a strong argument about the continued limitations of social organisations with regards to systems thinking and paves a clear view as to why GST is to be used as means for looking at the organisation as a whole, studying its parts or elements not as isolated to the whole, but as wholes. The authors have this to say:

> *"One of the major problems in utilizing general systems theory is that we know (or think we know) more about certain relationships than we can fit into a general systems model.*

For example, we are beginning to understand the two-variable relationship between technology and structure. But, when we introduce another variable, say psychosocial relationships, our models become too complex. Consequently, in order to discuss all the things we know about organizations, we depart from a systems approach. Perhaps it is because we know a great deal more about the elements or subsystems of an organization than we do about the interrelationships and interactions between these subsystems"

(Kast & Rosenzweig 1972, p. 454).

Already appearing vivid from the foregoing quote is that parts cannot be understood alone; they can only be known, explained and understood as wholes. Thus, thinking about change and transition in the organisation and in particular when studying an element like the unit as per this study, we need systems thinking. We should not depart from using systems approach as a lens. Essentially we need to think holistically in terms of relations and interactions of elements and not isolate other elements from the system, but treat them as a system as it were. Another important aspect with regards to application of GST is clear delineation of the specific system in order to shun possible confusion about the denotations attached to the concept "system". Kast and Rosenzweig (1972) once more caution about this issues:

"*We need to be much more precise in delineating both the boundaries of the system under consideration and the level of our analysis. There is a tendency for current writers in organization theory to accept general systems theory and then to move indiscriminately across systems boundaries and between levels of systems without being very precise (and letting their readers in on what is occurring)".*

(Kast and Rosenzweig 1972, p. 455)

In the context of this study, the researcher clearly delineates by expressing that what is being investigated is the HR unit. Thus, the element under consideration is clear and unambiguous.

3.5.3. The refinement of the GST

The GST provides us with the macro paradigm for the study of social organisations and it is mostly less concrete and more abstract (Katz & Rosenzweig, 1972). The latter authors state that when macro views seemed incomplete (unable to explain important phenomena), attention turned to the micro level—more detailed analysis of components or parts of the organisation, thus the interest in human relations, technology, or structural dimensions (Katz & Rosenzweig, 1972, p. 459).

In an attempt to provide a move-down-a-level of abstraction, Katz and Rosenweig (1972) consider what they call second midrange concepts, which still use systems theory as the basis for the development of concrete and practical concepts. The authors sought to emphasise more specific characteristics and relationships in social organisations (Katz & Rosenweig, 1972, p. 459). These authors say a number of authors have termed this midrange concept "contingency theory". Expanding a justification for the emergence of contingency theory, some authors offered this reflection:

> *"During the past few years there has been evident a new trend in the study of organizational phenomena. Underlying this new approach is the idea that the internal functioning of organizations must be consistent with the demands of the organization task, technology, or external environment, and the needs of its members if the organization is to be effective. Rather than searching for the panacea of the one best way to organize under all conditions, investigators have more and more tended to examine the functioning of organizations in relation to the needs of their particular members and the external pressures facing them.*

Basically, this approach seems to be leading to the development of a "contingency" theory of organization with the appropriate internal states and processes of the organization contingent upon external requirements and member needs".

(Lorsch & Lawrence, 1970, p. 1)

This reflection exposes that different organisations have various conditions within which they operate and thus attempts to understand and organise them must be particularised. Katz and Rosenweig (1972) state that a number of authors have made similar arguments when reflecting on the contingency view. The authors attempted to refine the ideas of contingency view into a formidable definition. They say:

"The contingency view of organizations and their management suggests that an organization is a system composed of subsystems and delineated by identifiable boundaries from its environmental supra-system.

The contingency view seeks to understand the interrelationships within and among subsystems as well as between the organization and its environment and to define patterns of relationships or configurations of variables. It emphasizes the multivariate nature of organizations and attempts to understand how organizations operate under varying conditions and in specific circumstances. Contingency views are ultimately directed toward suggesting organizational designs and managerial systems most appropriate for specific situations".

(Katz & Rosenzweig, 1972, p. 460).

In light of the fact that the study is contextualised on understanding change and transition in higher education management models of merged multi-campus institutions in relation to the people, this theory is most apt as it gets one to look at the processes, programmes and activities put in place to manage the entire change using the appropriate lens.

Literature mostly explores the issues related to people, leadership and the entire change management concept. This theoretical framework fits well both in terms of the research questions and the literature being reviewed in this study.

3.6. Planned change: a discussion of a model of change

To say change is planned is to say that a deliberate process has been set and an approach has been chosen to ensure changes in the organisation. Choosing which approaches to use for bringing about change is partly a matter of matching the scale, speed and direction of the proposed changes, along with the contextual factors, to that situation at hand (Mabey, 2007). Furthermore, the idea of planned change leads an organisation to look at different models for carrying out plans and actions. Thus there has to be a sequence of phases carried out (Lanning, 2001).

Egan (1988, p. 5) delineates three steps as a structure of going about changing in any organisation: "the assessment of the current scenario; the creation of a preferred scenario; and designing a plan that moves the system from the current to the preferred scenario".

The assessment of the current scenario enables the organisation to gather data about the overall need for change and the possible challenges that may deter or derail it. Such challenges may include any possible resistance from various groupings within the organisation which might feel either no need for change or discomfort with it. The second step, creation of a preferred scenario, involves teamwork with an objective of brainstorming on possible alternatives that will yield effective change. The third step allows for a creation of mechanisms that would enable the organisation to manage all possible forces that are against change or any factors that may restrain it.

Unavoidably, the process of change demands ongoing lobbying of various people in the organisation; perhaps to say a political process is necessary is more accurate since power will have to be used in seeing to the implementation of change. What follows is a broader discussion on the theorised model of change and their application and suitability in the study the researcher was conducting.

3.6.1. The 6-step model of change by Mabey

The model of Mabey is relevant because it addresses change as a cyclical process rather than a rigid and undeviating plan. In other words, though it seems to be a step-by-step process, the model is flexible, repeatable, changeable, and the change agent(s) will be able to go back and forth once they have reached the last step. In essence the model of Kotter is not wholly disputed; the assertion is that this model professes itself as cyclical altogether. Essentially in arguing for this model, Mabey (2007) says that the model takes the best and removes the worst, keeping in tact the view that it is not linear but represents a continuum. According to Mabey (2007) change management must undergo six steps in its plan for changing: establish a sense of urgency, creating a guiding coalition, develop a vision and strategy, address cultural issues, manage the transition and sustain the momentum.

3.6.1.1. Establishing a sense of urgency

This stage "identifies potential threats and develops scenarios showing what could happen in the future, examines opportunities that should be, or could be, exploited, starts honest discussions, and gives dynamic and convincing reasons to get people talking and thinking, requests support from customers, outside stakeholders and industry people to strengthen change argument" (Mabey, 2007, p. 16).

3.6.1.2. Creating a guiding coalition

This stage convinces people that change is necessary (Mabey, 2007). This demands persuasiveness, political skills, people skills and other leadership competencies in order to make it possible for people to work towards realising the need for change. Activities in this stage are: “identifying true leaders in an organisation, asking for an emotional commitment from these key people, working on team building within the change coalition, checking the team for weak areas, and ensure that there is a good mix of people from different departments and different levels within the organisation” (Mabey, 2007, p. 23).

3.6.1.3. Develop a vision and strategy

The real value of defining the strategic purpose lies in the consultation process, that is, “articulating where the organisation is going and what it wants to achieve via genuine consensus building” (Mabey, 2007, p. 25). “It is one thing to have a clear statement of intent (which should mesh with the overall organisational mission and strategy), but it is another for this statement of intent to express a future vision or set of values that is meaningful and energising for the staff concerned” (Mabey, 2007, p. 25). Again this is achieved by transformational leaders which will be discussed at length in this chapter.

3.6.1.4. Address cultural issues

Mabey (2007) complains that the first three stages are not normally given enough attention, often with much negligence of the cultural aspects in a changing organisation. “Yet this is where many change interventions fail, insufficient effort is given to the prevailing attitudes and values (culture).

Insufficient time is given to the special arrangements required by the change process (transition requirements)" (Mabey, 2007, p. 41). Insufficient energy is given to following through with the changes, particularly amongst those staff most distant from the original initiative, but on whom its success depends (Mabey, 2007).

It is imperative to make a summative argument about why culture is important. Cultures serve as forces that draw organisational members together, creating a sense of cohesion (French & Bell, 1999). Furthermore, change in the environment may necessitate a change in the culture, and goes as far as suggesting that these changes, which include new learning, can also involve the need for new people (Johnson & Scholes, 1999) whose old stereotypes have changed in response to the changing environment.

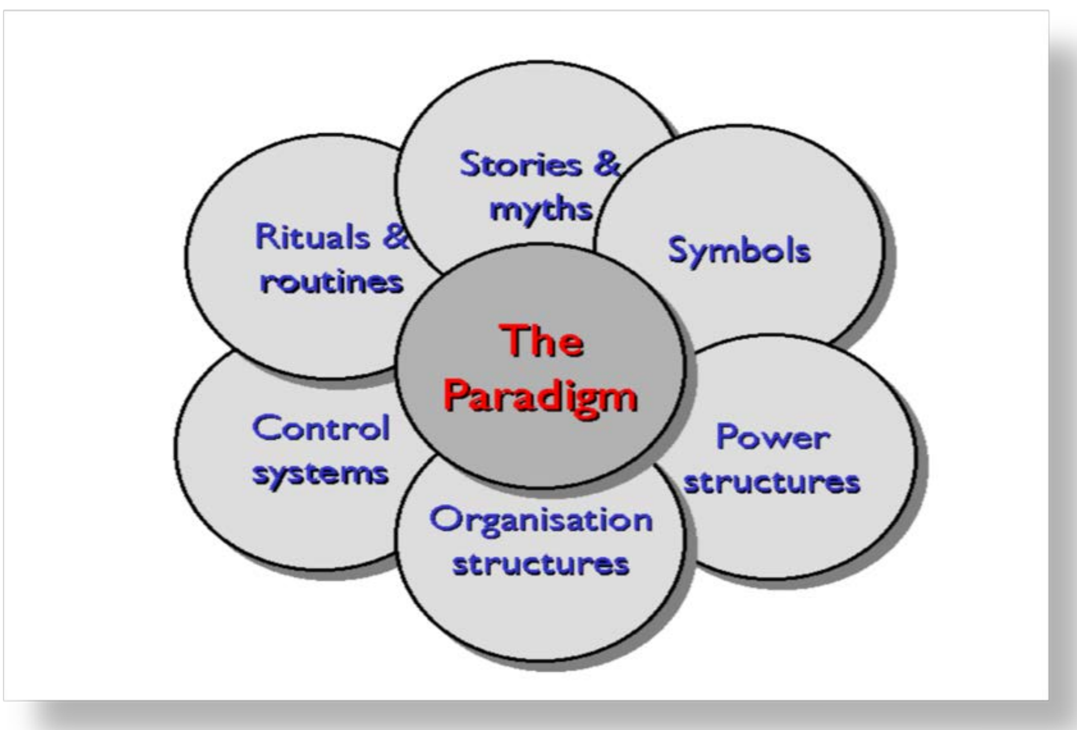

Figure 2.4.3.4.: The cultural web of an organisation (adapted from Johnson & Scholes, 1999**)**

Stories have to do with past events told by people about the inside and outside of the organisation (Manktelow, 2011), which form part of an oral history of the organisation and which reinforce core elements of the culture (Palmer, Dunford, & Akin, 2009, p. 139).

Rituals and routines relate to daily behavioural actions that signal acceptance behaviour (Manktelow, 2011). These accepted behaviours might have to do with relationships amongst members of the organisation and beliefs associated with what is right and properly valued (Palmer et al., 2009).

Organisational structure includes the structure defined by the organisation. Palmer et al., (2009) state that structures relate to the nature of the formal and informal differentiation and integration of tasks within the organisation. Examples of such include devolved branches, functional structures, hierarchical and autocratic and so forth.

Control systems – The ways that the organisation is controlled. These include financial systems, quality systems, and rewards (including the way they are measured and distributed within the organisation (Manktelow, 2011).

Symbols – The visual representations of the company including logos, how splash the offices are, and the formal or informal dress codes (Manktelow, 2011). Palmer et al. (2009) refer to symbols as logos, office designs, dress style, and language use that convey aspects of culture as examples of cultural symbols.

Power structures – The pockets of real power in the company. This may involve, amongst other things, unions and departments (Manktelow, 2011). What this highlights is that people have the greatest amount of influence on decisions, operations, and strategic direction.

3.6.1.5. Manage transition

Following all preparation work comes the difficult part of implementing, managing and consolidating the actual change process (Mabey, 2007). The transition state is typified by a number of problems. According to Maabey (2007) “There is invariably, confusion about roles, responsibilities and decision making channels as “steady-state” management is disrupted. Some people cope with ambiguity better than others, although the setting up of communication feedback mechanisms, periodic cross-functional meetings and temporary task team help” (Mabey, 2007, p. 46).

3.6.1.6. Sustain momentum

Mabey (2007) states that at some point it is necessary to assess the impact of the various change initiatives that have been set in motion. Because the feedback of positive outcomes is an important aspect in giving momentum to the change programme, early success stories help to foster expectancy among those yet to participate or to be affected by the change effort (Mabey, 2007). Mabey (2007) states that “where various initiatives are not working, some of the earlier steps in the six step model may need to be revisited. Whatever the situation, the changes \`sponsor\` need to be kept informed (Mabey, 2007, p. 53.)

What comes after the explication of the change management models is a discussion on managerial leadership and an exposition of why the two (management and leadership), even though both are applicable to planned change models, are distinct and have unique contribution and application to the same processes of transition.

The purpose of delineating these concepts is not to argue that they stand aloof from each other, neither is it purely an intellectual pursuit of making a perfectionist argument, rather it is to demonstrate, as it will be clear in the later discussion (which is about leadership styles: transformational and transactional leadership) that it is erroneous and fatal to simply assume that managers are leaders without ascribing what it means for a manager to be a leader, and the latter to be the former, during the process of transitioning people and organisations.

3.7. Conclusion

This chapter has provided two theories: General Systems Theory and the 6-step model of Mabey. These theories were the best suited for this kind of study. Their relevance was explained thoroughly in an attempt to justify the fact that transition and change is taking place in an organisation of humans and that within that context, Mabey's model explains how change and transition must be implemented.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide full discussion and explication of the whole process in relation to how the study was planned by the researcher. Research design will describe the process undergone in the quest for execution of the study. Finally, the actual methods of data gathering and other techniques will be presented.

4.1. Research paradigm

Guba (1990) defines a paradigm as a basic set of beliefs that guide action, and could be seen as the thread that runs through the researcher's epistemological, ontological, and methodological foundations (Guba, 1990, p. 18). Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999, p. 6) define a paradigm as all-encompassingsystems of interrelated practice and thinking that define for researchers the nature of their enquiry along three dimensions: ontology, epistemology and methodology. Ontology looks at the nature of reality and epistemology studies the relationship between the knower and those things which can be known. Methodology defines how a researcher goes about gathering knowledge from those entities being studied. According to Crotty (2003), methodology is "the strategy, plan of action, process or design," and method is "the techniques or procedures used to gather and analyze data" (Crotty, 2003, p. 3).

Creswell and Clark (2007) say that for every study there are certain underlying assumptions made by all researchers about the reality, acquisition of knowledge and the ways of eliciting knowledge. Thus the ultimate pursuit of the researcher, by deciding on a particular paradigm, is to find the truth and make meaning of reality in order to bring it to the service of the research community for consumption by affected stakeholders and institutions. The whole essence of a paradigm is what Creswell and Clarke (2007) call the understanding of the worldview and appreciating that the latter informs the study. Moreover, a paradigm as a set of beliefs and practices guide and influence researchers in terms of their choice of questions and methods (Morgan, 2007, p. 49).

4.1.1. Differentiating the three research paradigms

There are three research paradigms: interpretivist, constructionist and positivist paradigm (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The table below contains a summary of all these paradigms.

Table 4.1.1.1. : Research paradigms (Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999, p. 6).

	Ontology	**Epistemology**	**Methodology**
Positivist	• Stable external • Reality • Law-like	• Objective • Detached observer	• Experimental • Quantitative • Hypothesis testing
Interpretive	• Internal reality of subjective experience	• Empathic • Observer inter-subjectivity	• International • Interpretive • Qualitative

Constructivist	• Socially • Constructed reality • Discourse	• Suspicious • Political • Observer constructing version	• Deconstruction • Textual analysis • Discourse analysis

4.1.1.1. Interpretivism as a chosen research paradigm

The research approach that seeks to analyse how signs and images have powers to create particular representations of people and objects – that underlie our experience of these people and objects – is called social constructivism (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999, p. 148). Constructivists say that it is a creation of man and whatever reality or truth exists is a consequence of mankind making it. Jackson and Sorensen (2006) defined it better when they said this about the social world: then it is not something 'out there' that exists independent of the thoughts and ideas of the people involved in it. It is not an external reality whose laws can be discovered by scientific research and explained by scientific theory (Jackson & Sorensen, 2006, p. 164).

Interpretivism, contrary to positivism, maintains the view that there is a difference between the natural sciences and those about the social sphere and cannot be investigated in the same way (Mungunda, 2003, p. 31). Mungunda (2003) asserts that interpretivism is concerned with human actions and not with behaviour – something the scientific tradition is concerned about.

Thus the researcher, when using this paradigm as a worldview, wants to find out what people are doing and experiencing, and must also take into account the social conditions (context) in which the people live (Henning, 2004, p. 20). Furthermore, the researcher explores how participants make meaning of their personal, as well as their social world (Smith & Osborn, in Smith, 2003, p. 51). Thus there is a requirement to analyse text, find out how people make meaning of the text, instead of simply investigating that they make meaning and what meaning they make (Henning, 2004, p. 20).

In quest to understand transition and change implications, the researcher had to look at the documents (texts) in the form of statutes and policy documents, and to elicit information about how the HR unit is grappling with transition currently under way in the university. It must be said that the tendency of the scientific tradition to make generalizable statements and conclusions distinguishes it from interpretivism which, according to Janse van Rensburg (2001), tends to be more contextual-meaning based and ungeneralisable. Henning (2004) stresses the importance of context. This is because all contexts are different in their own right. Thus, frames that shape meaning are searched by the researcher within a specific context. Conclusively, and let it be said essentially, it (interpretivist paradigm) is naturalistic. It deals with internal reality which is subjective and multiple because people in multiple contexts construct their reality according to their experiences (Mungunda, 2003).

As it becomes clear in the aim of this research and the research questions, the researcher relied on the interpretivist paradigm in finding the meaning in and of the documents of university under study (institutional statutes and policies about the restructuring process emanating from the new model), in the reaction and interpretation of all these by labor unions whose members are, either positively or negatively, directly or indirectly affected. The ‘I was there’ element in the portrayal of the picture of the phenomenon being studied was indeed part of the design (Bhengu, 2005, p. 61).

Thus, this paradigm logically heeds the subjective nature of knowledge and the multiplicity of realities in multifaceted and divergent contextual frames of reference (Mungunda, 2003) of HEIs, and as such was employed in this study.

4.2. Research Approach

The researcher used a qualitative research approach. The approach aligned itself with the research questions whose sole purpose was to answer the main question. The qualitative research is a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand the phenomena in context-specific settings, such as real-world setting [where] the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest (Patton, 2001, p. 39). Outcomes of this qualitative study were therefore arrived at from real world settings.

4.3. Research designs

The researcher selected a single or holistic case study as a research design. A case study is "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence" (Noor, 2008, p. 1602). A specific case was investigated inside out in such a way that the researcher was able to come to understand how certain circumstances and its related factors came to give birth to a particular manifestation (Hancock, 2002). The case study used instruments that enabled for an in-depth investigation of a single unity in order to give a full understanding of the unit. Case study was also advantageous in that any method of data collection could be be utilised (Hancock, 2002).

4.3.1. Population

Govender et al. (2013) state that a population is a collective group from which a sample can be drawn and to whom results are applicable and generalizable after a sample has been studied. The targeted population, which according to Govender et al. (2013) is the broadest population to which the researcher is generalising findings, was all workers who are estimated at 2000 (since others are contract part-time workers at the time of data collection) in the university under study. The study population in this research was the workers who all affiliate to either of the two unions (NTEU and NEHAWU).

4.3.2. **Sampling**

A sample is a portion or a subset of the research population selected to participate in the study, representing the entire research population (LoBiondo-Wood & Haber, 1998, p. 250). Authors are cautious in debating the question of numbers that may constitute an accurate sample that is both representative and can give some form of generalisation of the results. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) argue that sample sizes in qualitative research should not be too large that it is difficult to extract thick and rich data. Neumaan (2000) says that the basis of sampling in qualitative research is relevance of the sample group to the research topic rather than representativeness of the sample as required in a quantitative study. Thus, deductively, the size of the sample was determined by the nature of the study and the kind of data the researcher needed.

For purposes of this study, the researcher selected labour unions to represent the views of workers. These worker unions included two existing labour unions in the university under study: National Education Health Allied Workers Union and National Tertiary Education Union

(NEHAWU and NTEU). 5 focus groups participants were initially chosen. From each of the four campuses, between five (5) and eight (8) people from the workers were chosen from the two unions. Since NTEU exists in 2 campuses, only two campuses had two different labour unions participating, NEHAWU and NTEU. However, Moreover, NTEU preferred that the researcher meets its central executive, something that did not happen (this will be clarified in the fourth Chapter). The HR institutional manager whom the researcher strongly believed had a clearly detailed appreciation of implications of the model was part of the initially sample. Finally, the senior officials in the HR department of each campus (the most senior person) were chosen to be part of the study. However, only one HR campus manager was willing to participate and 3 campuses with their labour unions, with the exception of NTEU – more about that will be reported in chapter 4. Individual interviews were conducted with the HR manager of the campus.

4.3.3. Non-probability sampling

It was not possible that this kind of study could rely on simple random sampling. That is to say, participants had to be chosen carefully. In this way, subjective methods were used to decide which elements were going to be included in the sample (Battaglia, 2008). Clearly the researcher had to exercise judgment in choosing who would participate in the study.

4.3.4. Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling is about selecting people who possess knowledge required by the researcher and it is a non-random method because questions of what is to be known and the kind of people who have experience and knowledge about the subject are deliberately located and asked to participate (Bernard, 2002; Lewis & Shepard, 2006). Unions were selected because they were "regarded as the most sufficiently informed and knowledgeable" (Babbie, 2007, p. 184; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 112; Denscombe, 2003, p. 15; Berg, 2001, p. 32; Struwig & Stead, 2001, p. 111) about the model. They are most informed in the section of workers and can provide rich data with regards to the views, beliefs, perceptions and attitudes of workers in relation to the change and the transitional processes of the university. Moreover, workers are represented by labour unions highlighted above and the entire worker processes, policies, procedures and operations are known best by the department that deals with management of HR. In the HR department specifically, the HR senior manager, followed by other HR senior officials in the campuses were selected purposely. The intention therefore was to gather data from such informed participants. In essence, as purposive sampling implies, the participants were "hand-picked" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 112; Denscombe, 2003, p. 15).

4.4. Research instrumentation

Let it be pointed out that the researcher not only employed instruments to collect data, qualitative research is an exercise that requires engagement or interaction and utmost involvement of the researcher (Le Voi, 2002, p. 160). Le Voi (2002) states that the researcher has to be involved as a research instrument. This is supported by Patton (2002, p. 600). Ponterotto (2002) does point to the fact that the researcher, who is an instrument, is made aware of his/her stereotypes, expectations and beliefs, and thus the researcher's own professional and personal growth is made possible (Ponterotto, 2002, p. 339). A qualitative case study uses interviews as a main instrument.

4.4.1. Interviews

An interview is a conversational process between the researcher and the participants. It is defined as a conversation, the purpose of which is to gather information (Babbie, 2007, p. 306; Berg, 2001, p. 66). What an interview consists of is a description of the experience and the reflection on the description (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche' & Delport*.,* 2005: 287). The interview is actively interactive between the researcher and the participants (Denscombe, 2003) because there are assumptions and understandings that do not exist from other kinds of casual conversations. Before an interview, planning must take place to decide on certain topics that will be covered, which thereby acts as the moderator of the conversation (Babbie, 2007, p. 306). Shneiderman and Plaisant (2005) reveal that interviews are advantageous in that (a) the direct contact with the users often leads to specific, constructive suggestions; (b) they are good at obtaining detailed information, and (c) few participants are needed to gather rich information.

There are various degrees of structuredness in interviews that are possible. Interviews between structured and unstructured extremes are called semi-structured. Instead of an interview schedule, interview guides are used in the semi-structured interview. The latter involves a list of topics and aspects of these topics which have a bearing on the given theme and which the interviewer should mention during the course of the interview.

4.4.1.1. Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews were used in collecting data on face-to-face bases. This type of interview is believed to be the most popular form of interviewing that is utilized in research studies (Turner, 2010). One author summarily explains semi-structured interviews as follows: “the order in which the various topics are dealt with and the wording of the questions are left to the interviewer’s discretion (Corbetta, 2003, p. 270). Thus, in the context of the semi structured interviewed as was chosen by the researcher, “within each topic, the interviewer was free to conduct the conversation as he thought fit, to ask the questions he deemed appropriate in the words he considered best, to give explanation and ask for clarification when the answers were not clear, to prompt the respondent to elucidate further if necessary, and he established his own style of conversation” Corbetta, 2003, p. 270).The questions that the researcher asked to all participants were similar and worded in such a way that responses were open ended (Gall Gall, Gall, and Borg, 2003) which allowed participants to contribute as much as possible by providing sufficient deal of information (Turner, 2010). This allowed time for probing questions as a means of follow-up (Turner, 2010, p. 756).

4.4.1.2. Focus group interviews

In a focus group interview there was a group discussion that was moderated by the researcher and a topic or different topics were examined at length in order to elicit rich information from it (Kitzinger, 2005). The environment in which this was done was non-threatening in that it was less rigid and was not structured in such a way that there is a need for "yes or no" answers. There are two key elements of a focus group interview: (1) a trained moderator who sets the stage with prepared questions or an interview guide, and (2) the goal of eliciting participants' feelings, attitudes and perceptions about a selected topic (Puchta & Potter 2004, p. 6). The goal of focus group interviews was to elicit ideas, feelings and perceptions about the topic(s) under group discussion. These goals were achieved, given the fact that more people formed part of the group and that time which could have been spent on individuals was dramatically reduced**.** Cohen and Manion (2008) hold a principle that participants in the focus group interview process must have homogeneity of background. It must be added that they must already be in the same characteristics and born from those homogeneous backgrounds, with the same characteristics – this was the case with unions and the office of the HR manager. The union participants belong to a single that is guided by similar standards, aims and objectives.

4.4.2. Document analysis

The researcher also used document analysis to collect data. According to Yanow (2007), documents can provide background information to the researcher prior to the design or the interviews.

Additionally, the analysis of document can therefore be used to corroborate observations of the researcher and interviews in the process of collection and analysis of data, in which case the researcher is “armed” with evidence that can be used to clarify or perhaps to challenge what is being told; a role that the observational data may also play (Yanow, 2007, p. 411). The researcher looked at and analyzed the documents. These documents included the university statute and policy documents related to change and transition.

4.5. Data collection procedure

The researcher, first and foremost, got ethics clearance from faculty and permission from the vice-chancellor of the university in which the case study was conducted, after which he wrote to the respective participants (two labor unions: NTEU and NEHAWU). Specifically, the letters were sent to the secretaries of the unions. The senior official belonging to the HR unit, together with the campus officials in the senior posts were written to. There was a telephonic arrangement with the different labor union leaders intended to find a suitable schedule for the focus group semi-structured interviews in terms of dates and times.

A consent form was presented and signatures requested from participants as part of an ethical consideration. In such a process, *all* ethical considerations were taken into account. These include privacy, confidentiality and anonymity and the right to pull out of the study if a participant so wished. These are discussed sufficiently under the topic of ethical considerations later in this chapter.

There was only one (1) session (interview) with each labor union as a means to allow enough time to engage thoroughly all the questions and do justice to responding to the primary research question. The interview with campus unions interviewed took a total of 90 minutes.

There was one session with the campus HR unit official in the campus the researcher was able to conduct an interview. In this session, a tape recorder was used. The researcher used the advice of Lecompte and Schensul (1999) to inscribe and describe during data collection and transcribe after that. The researcher, after the collection and interpretation, confirmed to the participants the accuracy of meaning and content of the data.

4.6. Data treatment and analysis

Data analysis refers to a process of reducing data in such a way as to make sense of their entire responses of the participants (Kawulich, n.d.). This process was what Turner (2010) refers to as a process of interpretation of data that was gathered during the interviews. The researcher was able to group information, that is, create themes and codes (Creswell, 2003, 2007). Such themes and phrases were consistent expressions, ideas or phrases that were common to all research groups and individuals (Kvale, 2007).

4.6.1. Content analysis

Content analysis refers to a process of classification of written or oral materials into categories which resemble similar meanings (Moretti et al., 2011). Other authors say that qualitative content analysis can be referred to as "a research method for subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns" **(**Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278). Hsieh and Shannon (2005) argue that classified categories represent either inferred or explicit, or both meaning. Thus, content analysis implies a systematic method of describing the meaning of qualitative data (Schreier, 2012, p. 1).

Though content analysis was initially used as a quantitative research method to analyse data (Priest et al., 2002, p. 35), it gained criticism for its being simplified and distorted meaning occurring as a consequence of breaking down texts into quantifiable units in the analytic process (Cho & Lee, 2014), and as a consequence qualitative content analysis was developed in which systematic use of category system was applied **(**Mayring, 2000; Priest et al., 2002).

Content analysis was chosen in this study as a method of data analysis. The researcher transcribed the recorded data achieved from individual and semi-structured focus group interviews. Categories, themes and codes were arrived at inductively since the researcher was not in a position to have adequate and appropriate prior knowledge of the phenomenon that was under study, and because any little knowledge was fragmented as it was (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). Marrying (2000, pp. 4-5) suggested that inductive approach was one of the procedures for qualitative content analysis and proposed that the researcher has to: (1) keep in mind the research question, (2) determine categories and their levels of abstraction, (3) develop inductive categories from material (4) revise categories (5) work through text and (6) interpret results. After that, each theme was interpreted separately in order to give contextual deeper or in-depth meaning to it.

Having followed the above processes, the researcher was able to extract data and analyse manifest and latent data (Cho & Lee, 2014). Manifest data was that which appeared in the surface of the content of text or verbal responses and the latent data was that which the researcher coded in terms of the underlying meaning of the text, that is, the meaning that was rather hidden beneath the surface of the text (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). The researcher was further cautious to reduce data analysis to the aspects that were relevant and suitable to the research questions (Schreier, 2012) and objectives.

4.7. Credibility and trustworthiness of the research study

In qualitative studies reliability and validity are conceptualised differently as trustworthiness, rigor, and quality in qualitative paradigm (Bashir, Afzal & Azeem, 2008, p. 43). That is why Cutcliffe and Mckenna (1999, p. 375) say that qualitative findings should be tested for credibility or accuracy using terms and criteria that been developed for that approach. The idea of trustworthiness is that qualitative data is consistent, dependable, stable, predictable and reliable, thus producing the same outcomes or result in the future as it had in the past (Delport & Roestenburg, 2011, p. 177).

4.7.1. Ensuring trustworthiness of the research

Trustworthiness is not a substitutive concept for validity; it is a concept that is more appropriate for use and application in the qualitative studies. This is confirmed by many authors who say that researchers have developed their own concepts of validity, rigor and trustworthiness and have adopted appropriate terms such as quality (Davies & Dodd, 2002; Mishler, 2000; Stenbacka, 2001). Trustworthiness refers to the "quality of qualitative data" (Anastas, 2004, p. 63). Issues of validity in qualitative studies should be linked not to 'truth' or 'value' as they are for the positivists, but rather to 'trustworthiness', which "becomes a matter of persuasion whereby the scientist is viewed as having made those practices visible and, therefore, auditable" (Sandelowski 1993, p. 2). In order to ensure that the findings of this study can be taken note of and are trustworthy, the researcher looked into the following questions asked by Guba & Lincoln (1985, p. 290).

"How can one establish confidence in the "truth" of the findings of the study for the respondents with which (and the context in which) the study was conducted?" – "truth value". With regards to this question, Creswell (2003, p. 196) suggests measures to ensure that the study is trustworthy: triangulation, verification of themes, looking for counter themes, peer debriefing and external auditor. These would be done by the supervisor and the external examiners. Others are explained briefly below.

Triangulation: this refers to the use of different methods of data gathering. Shenton (2004) asserts that these different methods may include focus groups, individual interviews and observation. According to this author, triangulation mitigates the fact that these varieties of methods have limitations on the one hand, and also exploits individual strengths possessed by all of them on the other hand.

Another important means to strengthen the trustworthiness and credibility of outcomes is an examination of documents related to the study in question in order to provide a background and help explain perceptions and behaviours of the group or individuals under scrutiny (Shenton, 2004). The basic logic of triangulation is that no single method ever adequately solves the problem of rival explanations, because each method reveals different aspects of empirical reality; multiple methods of data collection and analysis provide more grist for the research mill (Patton, 1999, p. 1192). The author advises, amongst other kinds of triangulation, two kinds that contribute to the verification and validation of qualitative analysis: (1) examining the consistency of different data sources within the same method, that is, *triangulation of sources*; (2) using multiple analysts to review findings, that is, *analyst triangulation.* The researcher made profound use of these two kinds.

Observations were made, documents analysed and interviews administered, with corroboration of these methods having been undergone to validate the trustworthiness and credibility of the study. Moreover, the interviewees were given a chance to actually confirm the truthfulness of the study by reviewing the findings and making corrections where necessary (Patton, 1999).

"How can one determine the extent to which the findings of this study have applicability in other contexts or with other respondents?"

In a qualitative study, the researcher deals with a specific context and with a relatively small group of people. Thus already it is problematic to even think about making possible the transfer of results of one specific context to a wider group of people or community in another context. Shenton (2004) goes as far as suggesting that it is impossible to actually demonstrate the transferability and applicability of outcomes from one situation to another wider situation. Therefore it would seem plausible to argue that the responsibility lies not with the researcher, rather it lies with those who want to apply the outcomes to demonstrate the transferability of such outcomes.

"How can one determine whether the findings of the study would be repeated if the study were replicated with the same respondents in a similar context?"

For positivists, dependability relates to whether or not the same outcomes can be achieved if similar questions were asked to the same participants in a similar context and with the use of similar methods (Shenton, 2004). Shenton (2004) suggests that triangulation is significant in terms of using different data collection sources. He adds that spending more time with the participants allows the researcher to make accurate observations in the field. As has been made clear, the researcher has stayed for a period of a week in each of the campuses where the research was conducted.

Moreover, it has been made clear that the researcher is familiar with the context of the study and this made it fairly easy for him to make observations and analyses, in as much as it was important to distance the researcher from any prejudices that came with him being a researcher as an instrument.

"How can one establish the degree to which the findings of the study are determined by the respondents and conditions of the study and not by the biases, motivations, interests, or perspectives of the researcher?"

This question is predicated, understandably, on the view that a researcher is an instrument himself (Denscombe, 2003, p. 273) and therefore is likely to contaminate the data and undermine outcomes because of his lack of neutrality. This is mitigated by two arguments: the fact that emphasis should be placed on the characteristics of data and not of the researcher Guba and Lincoln (1985, p. 300), and placing emphasis on the question of whether or not data are confirmable. In other words, what has to be tested and proven is whether or not the data help confirm general findings and lead to the implications (De Vos et al., 2005, p. 347).

4.7.2. Addressing the Credibility of the researcher

Patton (1999) warns that there are effects on the researcher's credibility and how his/her findings are received. Patton (1999, p. 1198) advises that since the researcher is actually an instrument in the process of data collection, the report must be inclusive of information about the researcher. This information must answer questions such as: What experience, training, and perspective does the researcher bring to the field? What personal connections does the researcher have to the people, program, or topic studied? In response to these important questions, the researcher is a former student of the university that is under study and has studied in it for a period of six (6) years.

He was in the leadership of the Student Representative Council (SRC) for a period of four (4) years. He was also involved in the capacity of himself as a leader/Premier of the Student Representative Council (SRC) and an ex-officio member of the Institutional SRC during the time of inception of the change strategy in the university. Moreover, he had an opportunity in various institutional forums to interact with the proposed TS as a representative of the student population at that time, towards the end of 2013 and was also closer to the majority of labour union leaders who were participating in the inception of the strategy of change. It could therefore be concluded that many of the participants were known to the researcher and there was already a sense of familiarity with some of the statutory documents and other related documents that he got from the university.

Writing about the role of a researcher and researcher effects, Patton (1999, p. 1202) says that there are four ways in which the presence of the researcher, or the fact that an evaluation is taking place, can directly affect the findings of a study: (1) reactions of program participants and staff to the presence of the qualitative fieldworker; (2) changes in the fieldworker (the measuring instrument) during the course of the data collection or analysis, that is, instrumentation effects; (3) the predispositions, selective perceptions, and/or biases of the qualitative researcher; and (4) researcher incompetence (including lack of sufficient training or preparation). These are some of the issues that the researcher was aware of and became cautious in the collection and interpretation of data.

4.7.3. Other specific issues related to the credibility of the research

4.7.3.1. Member checking

Member checking is defined as a quality control process used by the researcher to make accurate, valid and credible what has been recorded or transcribed during the process of interviews (Barbour, 2001; Byrne, 2001; Doyle, 2007). It is also known as participant verification (Rager, 2005). During the interviews with all participants, the researcher restated the information gathered and then questioned the participants in the quest to determine accuracy, to which the participants agreed, clarified what they meant by their responses and ultimately affirmed and validated the collected data in order to make the study credible (Creswell, 2007). This process was done on the spot during the data collection (Shenton (2004). The researcher referred back the data that was transcribed in which respondents were able to actually confirm or disconfirm, to edit or omit the transcription. Creswell (2007) does not insist that member-checking is without fault. However, the researcher believed that it decreased chances of incorrect data and incorrect interpretation of data and as findings are dependable, authentic and original (Creswell, 2007), and thus the validity of the study was, to a large extent, guaranteed (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006).

4.7.3.2. Minimization of researcher bias

The researcher bias, which exists even in the most experienced of researchers, was minimized by spending some time in the field and by employing multiple data collection strategies to corroborate the findings (Bashir et al., 2008, p. 41). Moreover, triangulation was used.

Basically the latter implies that the researcher uses different methods of data collection (Patton, 2001). These various techniques included interviews, observations and document analysis.

4.7.3.3. Use of low-inference descriptors

Because a tape recorder was used, the researcher recorded and transcribed precise words and literally described the situation of the participants, and also made use of verbatim quotations from participants' responses (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006), in order to increase conformability and dependability of the data and its analysis.

4.8. Ethical considerations

Research ethics refers to the moral dimensions of researching about what is right and wrong while one engaged in research (Janse van Rensburg, 2001, p. 28). Therefore, rresearchers have a duty and obligation to abide by the code of conduct that governs most professions (Babbie, 2007, p. 62). This moral conception in the process of doing research is so fundamental because of its implications for research and participants in general. When conducting the research study, the researcher entered into the private lives of their participants (Berg, 2001, p. 39) in relation to their personal feelings, reactions and attitudes and so on. Logically, following from the latter's assertion, the researcher owed it to the participants in order to fully protect the interests of the participants while engaged in the pursuit of data collection and provision of outcomes which both contribute to the individual participant and the community surrounding that individual.

Essentially the researcher understood well that any research necessarily imposes ethical issues and as such, an appropriate balance was made between achieving the aim and objectives of the research and protecting participants from harm and risk (Orb, Eisenhauer & Wynaden, 2001). These were achieved by ensuring autonomy of participants and beneficence (Orb et al., 2001).

4.8.1. Autonomy: Informed consent and voluntary participation

Autonomy refers to independence of the participant and the obligations of the researcher to facilitate information dissemination about the study, the nature thereof and the possible consequences of the study for the participant in order that informed agreements and conscious decisions to participate can be made. Thus, it is vital to not deceive the participants or give ambiguous statements in the process of information giving. This also includes the handling of the participants' identity, as well as being honest about one's own identity as a researcher (Babbie, 2007, p. 67).

The researcher noted and borrowed Berg's (2001) advice with regards to what "unethical" means in relation to information giving. The author says that "unethical" refers to means that may lead to inaccurate information which includes "fabrications, fraudulent materials, omissions, and contrivances" (Berg, 2001, pp. 40-44; 56-59). A consent form was given to the participants with sufficient details about what they were getting themselves into insofar as the study is concerned.

This consent form was edited from the Fort Hare University standard consent form as made by the research section in the University. This allowed them the right to or not to participate in the study (Orb et al., 2001).

4.8.2. Beneficence: anonymity and confidentiality

The researcher informed the participants that pseudo names were going to be used (Orb et al., 2001) in ensuring they remain anonymous and so far as the researcher wanted to maintain the principle of confidentiality or protection of privacy of the participants. The researcher simply referred to the participants as participant A, B,C, D, E in the place of the names of those who participated on the worker side, and the same was done for HR unit participants.

4.9. Conclusion

This chapter detailed a comprehensive plan of the study was conducted. The chapter explained the qualitative approach to the study, the interpretivist paradigm as a researcher's choice in the inquiry of how participants feel their attitude and their socially constructed reality in relation to the study that was done. Sampling procedures and participants were clearly explained, together with the data collection techniques which were used to help collect the data. The quality of data (its trustworthiness) was explained and justified by explaining the use of triangulation (corroboration of observation, document analysis with the semi-structured focus group interviews) to minimize bias and possible reliability concerns. The method of analysis, which is content analysis, was elucidated.

Finally, a thorough discussion of ethical considerations (autonomy and beneficence) was made. Effectively the entire methodology and methods were explained and justified.

CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

5. Introduction

This research study sought to respond to the following objectives: understanding change and transition and its implications on the HR unit, particularly workers; the HR plan/strategy; reactions of labour on the plan; effects of the HR plan on workers, and the mechanisms put in place to attenuate the perceived effects. An explanation of the structure of the report of data will be provided, followed by a brief method of analysis will be explained, followed by the discussion of results, after which, finally, the observations of the researcher will be explained and documents of the university analysed in order to corroborate or disconfirm the data collected.

5.1. Structure of the report

Firstly, the responses of interviewed unions and HR campus official are provided in tables. Each table presents responses of participants on the questions which directly addresses directly the objectives of the study. After all the tables for all questions and responses have been presented, the researcher discusses the results in detail with constant verbatim quotations to validate the interpretation of results. The same process is followed during the discussion of results: in each question a discussion is made for each participant(s), with all emerging themes on that question separately discussed, right up to the last question.

The researcher has developed shorthand for each participating focus group and the campus HR official: **C*a*,** shorthand for Campus A; **C*b*,** shorthand for Campus B; **C*c*,** is a shorthand for Campus C, and **SCHRO, C*a*** is a shorthand for senior campus HR official in campus A.

5.2. Participants who did not participate in the study

The initial sample was five focus groups and four individual participants in the HR unit in the four autonomous campuses of the university under study. However, the researcher could only find out that, of the 4 autonomous campuses, one campus does not have an HR campus manager and legitimate/constitutional leadership of the union. This is because the researcher discovered that the campus in question in still managed, administered and governed using pre-merger systems. Consequently the researcher could not find participants, either from HR or the union, from that campus. On the remaining three autonomous campuses, the researcher ended up not conducting one focus group interviews with one union leadership because of constant postponements of the interview dates for meeting on the part of the participants. The researcher could no longer wait anymore, owing to time constraints for submission of the researcher paper.

Finally, the HR unit also did not participate, with the exception of one campus HR official from one of the three campuses. The researcher constantly made strides to get the managers to agree. At first the officials had given an impression that they were willing to participate. Once the researcher had obtained permission to conduct the study, they started changing their minds about participating in the study. Because of ethical considerations, the researcher had to uphold the principle of non-coercion of participants. Consequently the researcher proceeded without them.

Thus, there are three focus groups only that were interviewed, and one semi-structured interview with the campus HR manager. However, the researcher holds a view that masses of data was still extracted from those who participated, and it was meaningful enough to assist the researcher to complete the process of data collection and generate authentic findings.

5.3. Method of analysis

The method of analysis employed by the researcher was content analysis, and has already been discussed in the previous chapter. What is particularly important is that themes and categories were established in correctly understanding, discussing and giving meaning to data that was collected. The process of categorising and creating themes was done as data was collected; it was not done prior the study. Transcription helped the researcher to consolidate extraction of themes and categorise them accordingly, in the same way documents helped to confirm or disconfirm.

5.4. Responses from participants

5.4.1. Table 5.5.1.1. : Responses on the HR plan/strategy

PARTICIPANT(s)	THEMES AND CATEGORIES
C*a*	• no clear, articulate, written, widely distributed and known HR plan/strategy speaking: ✓ resource allocation ✓ harmonisation of worker conditions ✓ migration of staff ✓ staff transitioning • No organogram to work with • Implementation is piecemeal • no communication and sudden changes with little communication; • No implementation time frames whatsoever;
C*b*	• No plan/strategy • No transition phase plan • No strategy to address campus imbalances • Have no sense of proper timelines, timeframes in terms of implementation
C*c*	• No framework or organisational structure; HR document is still being developed; • No plan to integrate HR from legacy institutions to fit the new DMM;

	• Strategic Elements of HR include change management and integration of payroll administration, and availability of positions; • Harmonisation is not a smooth process because of different worker interests; • No recognition agreements for unions s; unions still under legacy institutions; • Staff transitioning is haphazard, unclear and complex
SCHRO, C*a*	• There is no plan yet; • However operationalising has already started

5.4.2. Table 5.5.1.2.: Responses on Reactions of labour

PARTICIPANT	THEMES AND CATEGORIES
C*a*	• If complexities such as resource allocation are sorted, we support the HR plan. • We do not know what challenges we are going to experience since the DMM is new and unique in South Africa.
C*b*	• Long standing issues must be resolved first before anyone is moved around harmonisation and basic conditions of employment.
C*c*	• Labour is happy with the model, but HR plan does not really talk to legacy disparities. • Generally there will be efficiency and effectiveness. • There will be cost reduction and effectiveness. • There will also be retrenchments. • There is no collective preparation of workers by management and labour, only the latter does.
SCHRO, C*a*	• Satisfied with the transition processes so far • Work load reduction • University does not stand to lose anything • Labour is being engaged through its leadership and shows satisfaction so far

5.4.3. Table 5.5.1.3.: Responses on the effects of the HR plan on workers

PARTICIPANT(s)	THEMES AND CATEGORIES
C*a*	• Job losses; • Uncertainty, and • There will be efficiency and effectiveness.
C*b*	• Relative to individual workers.
Cc	• Uncertainty, Fear and Resignations; • Low morale and lack of productivity; • Academic part-time workers will be affected, and • Positives: subsidies to further studies.
SCHRO, Ca	• Full-time workers not to be affected • Contract workers likely to be affected • Part-time workers are more likely to be affected • Change in requirements for academic staff

5.4.4. Table 5.5.1.4.: Responses on mechanisms to reduce perceived effects

ITEMS	THEMES AND CATEGORIES
C*a*	• No programmes or plans to reduce effects on workers • No mechanisms to ensure social cohesion
C*b*	• There are no plans in place; • There is not even change management in this transitional period.
Cc	• There is a voluntary service package. • Collective engagement and participation in every process of this change and transition. • Making contributions in workshops, committees and gatherings or forums.
SCHRO, C*a*	• Assistance of employees to reach minimum requirements will be offered.

5.5. Discussion of results

5.5.1. HR allocation plan

5.5.1.1. Response from C*a*

When the researcher enquired about what the plan entails and also in terms of how is being rolled out, C*a* responded by saying that there is no clear, articulate, written, widely circulated and known HR plan. Instead, the union lamented that everything happened on a piecemeal basis in a sudden, poorly communicated way, and there is little democracy in terms of collective decision-making between management and the union about the coming to place of the plan. The union protested that they are not fully informed, remain unsure where things are (at the time of data collection), and are constantly confused about how they are moving from one to the last point of this piecemeal process of implementation. Effectively, the union was arguing that management is failing to communicate how the transition is proceeding. Communication is an important tool in the hands of leaders for ensuring and enhancing change and can be utilised to build dedication and devotion to change programmes (De Bruyn & Kruger, 2001) Adding to John, Mary succinctly summarised the problem of HR plan by saying that:

> *"There is no clear document on HR allocation strategy that is in place currently, and we have been calling for that as the union. I must make it very clear that in terms of implementing this DMM, management has not been very upfront in terms of rolling out a clear plan about how we are going to go about implementing."*

When the researcher asked where the university was in its reported piecemeal process of rolling out the plan, the union pointed out that there are some things which have already happened. These included the establishment of a university Council, the appointment of CP/campus rectors, and the employment of deans of eleven faculties.

They called this process “a top down approach” in terms of rolling out the plan. They have not however pointed out how specifically the HR unit is rolling out the plan since they protested that the plan does not exist whatsoever, except the sudden changes made with little of their engagement. While there is a piecemeal process happening broadly in the institution, there is no specific HR plan. Jane justified why that was not happening by saying that:

> *“The challenge we have is that we could not approve an organisational structure* (referring to the time the university was under administration) *because the consultants where very stubborn”* and that “*the management is stuck now because it cannot proceed with the process until the organogram is put in place.”*

What is drawn from the above is that the process of HR unit is contingent on an organogram or organisational structure, about which and it is at that time that the CPs can work on campuses with such approved organogram and structure and use these as basis for effecting change in the HR unit. Therefore issues about what will happen to workers largely depend on this structure therefore, as per the union’s initial understanding of this change and transition. The fact that there are piecemeal sudden changes happening in the university implies that what literature says about organisational structure often being overlooked in the process of change (McMillan, n.d.) is true. Consequently without such the absence of an organisational structure during transition, while changes are being made goes contrary to what literature understands about change and restructuring. Organisational restructuring as “planned changes in a firm’s organisational structure that affect its use of people” (Cascio, 2002, p. 4). Thus, the absence of the organisational structure on the time of collection of data means the university is in indeed operating without a plan and may fumble and find itself wanting when it finally has organisational structures on respective campuses.

Elsewhere, responding to a follow-up question about whether or not they knew where the process was at the time of data collection and how it was moving from each stage to another, and from the latter to completion, another participant echoed the same problem of lack of proper knowledge of the process of phasing in and rolling out a clearly articulate plan. Lebo said that

> "*The problematic area revolves around the rollout of this DMM. There is no clear plan that every worker on the ground is able to articulate. Therefore, if there was a circulated document….that would put managers and ordinary workers in a proper position. So it's a dog eat dog situation."*

The other participant further characterised the problem the Xhosa term "*apha kuyaqhutywa qha"* which connotes a reckless and irresponsible course of action. This is a word used loosely in a Xhosa language and specifically by unionists and politicians to mean that one simply does as one pleases and has no due care or regard of procedures, processes, principles underpinning an organisation or entity, and what the implications or consequences of such actions are. He even complained that there was explanation of what short-term and medium-term goals were, and this he attached to the existent lack of a plan by management. This problem of lack of plan, clear and articulate circulated document on the processes of HR allocation, can be summarised by quoting directly the words of Phila who seemed to put to rest the question of what the plan to roll out is:

> *"In fact that is a failure of management, because if you roll out a plan and you have no circulated document, we cannot be able to say this or that ….but hence I was saying that it is a dog eat dog situation. We are told at a specific time that this is happening now, and we protest where we can and so on."*

5.5.1.1.1. Harmonisation

C*a* pointed out that the question of harmonisation is as old as the merger itself and has been a bone of contention ever since. They added that it is one of the issues that led to the *"toppling of the previous management",* which led to the appointment of the administrator. According Phila, their main

> *"Concern has always been harmonisation in relation to benefits, conditions of employment because we are still sitting with major disparities."*

His hopes lie on the new DMM to create a possible viable condition for resolving this problem of harmonisation:

> *"In terms of giving campuses so much money and say to them if you do not prioritise its use, then you are not going to be self-sustainable."*

However, the researcher noticed that from this latter quote appears a lot of speculation about how the question of harmonisation may be dealt with by the university. The thinking here is that an independent campus might decide on its own how to deal with worker conditions, benefits and other general issues of harmonisation. Effectively this speculation is born out the fact that the participant does not see any other way that harmonisation will ever work. In his justification of his speculative argument, the Phila further states:

> *"There is no hope on the side of management that they will ever deal with this issue…for example, we are paying different pensions…that is far from over in terms of sorting that one out."*

Clearly this speculation is one which reflects hopelessness on any form of success whatsoever of harmonisation during the transition, on the one hand, and an attempt to present a proposition about how it can best be dealt with at autonomous campus levels, on the other – this may also, as a latent proposal, be in contradiction with the fact that the campuses are process users and not process owners, that is to say the university institutional management makes and determines all policy issues and the management of campuses only works within the confines of those already existent policies. Thus, the main framework already binds and bars the HR unit from decentralising the questions relating to university employees, despite the fact that their accountability roles are at campus levels to CP. Of course, this hopeless speculative propositional argument by the respondent is neither premised on any concrete tabled plan on the part of the union, nor does it present itself as an effective panacea to the problem of handling harmonisation during this turbulent stage of change and transition in the university. It is, however, clear that the union does not believe that the problem of harmonisation can be solved because it has been the case since 2005 during the time of merger. Now it is 2015, nine years later, and the problem still sits at it was back then.

5.5.1.1.2. Staff transitioning

The researcher found that there was no attempt by management to make effective transition from the old to the new model, no sense of responsibility to take initiatives, create programmes and activities *"to unite us and ensure smooth transition".* According to the words of Jane:

> *"There has never been that plan to transition staff by management."*

The union said that there were no attempts on the part of managers to actually take seriously the question of integration. John offered the following example to validate his argument by saying that:

"I remember we were at a workshop at eNkululekweni, and a direct question was asked to the campus director as to what plans are you employing to ensure that there is integration. You find that these managers have no plan. In fact I doubt if they ever bother."

The union also pointed that there were such reactionary forces within themselves as workers between the integrating campus and site, and it pointed out that this was largely due to the historical legacy of these two sites, the one belong to the former technikons and the other to the traditional university. Their conception of staff transition is unity and cohesion, some get-togethers through sport, arts and culture and other related activities which are not necessarily work-based. They believe that such should have been done by management throughout this process. Instead, the opposite happened and continues to happen at the watch of management. To prove this, Mary, in trying to demonstrate what is happening at the moment of data collection, said that:

"Instead some differences between campuses are orchestrated by management wherein management favours a particular campus over the other. For example, if I am heading a particular department and I am here at this campus and finance happens to have a head office here because I am heading finance…forgetting that finance has institutional site and to force all other campuses to come and beg here. And this issue is similar to all other departments."

The union made other complaints that staff integration between the campuses that came together to form one are becoming difficult because of management since "*it favours one over the other campus."* To add pain to this is their sense of feeling that management is not only *"orchestrating differences";* but that it is actively silent of creating an atmosphere of amicability, and leadership of transition in a quest to influence workers to the correct destination of change.

The union argues that whatever it is doing for transition and integration of staff *"is done by us on our own through sport, arts and cultural activities with other campuses."*

5.5.1.1.3. Migration of staff

About whether or not there would be staff migration, the unions said that they were making speculations and assumptions in the absence of what they called *"a migration plan"* of staff and a clear organogram which forms the basis for moving staff from one campus to another. According to John:

> *"It is going to be very difficult to start such a process* (migration of staff) *before the organogram is finalised, because the organogram must form a foundation* [of deciding to move staff], *to say you are moving to a post that is there* [in a particular campus], *and the justification of why such and such a post exists."*

The participant also went on to say that:

> *"There should also be justifications why institutional items [*equipment and machines for example] *and responsibilities and offices are sitting in campuses."*

The participant legitimised his argument by pointing out possible favouritism when institutional items are located in any of the autonomous sites. The participant said:

> "*There cannot be any justification of the institutional site not to be equipped correctly because it might be easy to paralyse the institution so that it must favour a particular campus."*

Essentially the union, apart from the fact that there is no organogram, said that they *"hear on corridors that some departments might be moved to the other site"* with which their campus is integrating, and that in turn the site will be moving some of its own departments to theirs.

They said that the union *"was never engaged, and that is going to be an issue"*. Thus, they were largely using shenanigans as their form of reference that some staff working in offices of institutional managers might be moved from their campus to a place far from any other autonomous campuses.

These were some of their responses to this question of staff migration in relation also to the transitioning of staff to that effect:

> *"We hear on corridors; we do not know; we are not told of these things; there is nothing written down and…"we are assuming."*

The above paragraph continues to demonstrate their initial argument that there is no plan for rolling out the process of change, that there is no clear democratic processes in doing this and that the management is constantly on a process of surprising workers with changes, and that the union protest where it can, negotiate at bay and make concessions where they can and so on.

This is a very dangerous situation because it has a tendency of bringing conflicts between managers and unions/workers, of breaking unity and fragmenting the relationship between the two, or creating speculations, assumptions and doubts, mistrust against one another, and finally of creating a justification for resisting certain changes by workers and use of the situation to defend themselves. Effectively the transition process might be undermined altogether.

5.5.1.2. Responses from C*b*

The union in this campus reported that there was no framework, no plan, no organogram, no transition plan; no clear timeframes of when each process should be completed.

It became clear that the university has not given out a clear document explaining the process, what plan it has or how it will be rolled out. Workers are left out in terms of a plan. Caroline said that before anything there must be a *“Framework on how you are going to consolidate campuses; the framework on transition phase, on how you are going to move members of staff around.”* She then warned that in terms of the university under study, that very key thing *“is a grey area.”* The respondent felt that such things as allocation of resources: finances in relation to campuses that stand unequal in terms of student population, there had to be a prior plan on how such complexities are to be dealt with. She pointed out problems relating to student enrolment numbers because their three satellite delivery sites are now being removed from them to add in numbers to another campus and one other site being a stand-alone. There is already a question of whether or not campuses can be self-sufficient and sustainable. Jabu, in a form of a question, said:

> “*Our campus now is a becoming small… so, which plan do you [referring to senior management] have to grow our campus so as to ensure that it can sustain itself?”*

5.5.1.3. *Responses from* Cc

C*c* reported that there was no final document addressing the HR plan. Rather they responded by saying that there was a workshop which sought to develop a document that shall speak on HR allocation, in which they made an input. According to Kholiswa, at the moment the document “*is not a final document. But there is a document that is being developed, that talks to resource allocation.”* The union also noted that the HR plan was “*very confusing”.*

The reason it was confusing is that administration of payroll for other sites is still centralised in one of the autonomous campuses, and this is because of the legacy problems wherein there is a campus that has three delivery sites which are now being integrated into two different autonomous campuses, and with one site assuming autonomy as a single campus on its own.

According to Lulama, the problem, confusion and uncertainty lies on the issue that there is no plan:

> "*There is this issue of Divisional Management Model in these campuses that have sites. For example, one campus has a site in another town, a site again elsewhere in another different town and finally in another one. All its administration in relation to payroll and other things still falls under one campus* [this latter campus is now an autonomous and will no longer have three delivery sites]. *There is no plan on how to integrate that…there is no plan on how to integrate these* [three satellite campuses] *to their autonomous campuses now. There is no direct plan on how to do that."*

Beyond the above, the union reported that there was no framework and no organogram for autonomous campuses. It lamented that they have been seeking to get it but to no avail. Lulama said this:

> "*They have been promising and promising, and nothing is coming forth to give us the framework, up to this time. I think for the past 6 months, in fact from the previous semester, we have been calling for the framework on how to integrate, nothing has come forth."*

These campus organograms, according to the respondents, were very important in that they were a skeleton into which everything would fit, and so its absence would now mean that nothing is known in terms of how it fits into and aligns with the demands of the skeleton. Kholiswa explained that conceptually the organogram said:

> *"It is a skeleton thing. It tells you exactly that in such and such a department we need so many people; for example, in this campus you need so many senior librarians."*

Thus, all other questions are contingent on this organogram primarily. That is why the union pointed out that "*labour is trying to influence how that organogram looks like",* because once it is finalised, signed and sealed, then it is binding and it is all systems go. When asked what some of the strategic elements are in the HR plan, the union said that change management was the first key element "*Because you have to work on people to change people, so that they can know that they are not anymore under the previous sites or campus."*

The participants argued that change demanded that the people who must change need to be helped deal with change in order to transition in the most effective way. This is only possible when change management is tied in as a key strategic element of HR. Moreover, the union argued that the integration of administration of payroll systems and structures were vital in ensuring a proper HR plan; this is despite the fact that they protested that there is no such a proper plan to deal with integration of systems and structures. For example, quoting verbatim from the respondents to validate the significance of this element and its urgency in the process of HR plan, Samantha said this about integration:

> *"Talking about the integration of the HR plan to other campuses, you mention things such as benefits of workers now, because in your previous campus in which you belonged, you use to have benefits such as car scheme.*

Now in this campus to which you are being integrated, there is no car scheme. So how are you going to deal with those issues? Those are the benefits related issues."

Clearly this element echoes the problem of how the HR plan addresses the legacy complexity in relation to how systems and structural changes must effectively address the problem of integration if any real meaningful autonomy of any campus is to be realised.

5.5.1.3.1. Harmonisation

It was reported by the respondents that there are processes that occurred some time ago to try to reach agreements on this question of harmonisation. Specifically when asked what these issues were which needed to be harmonised, one participant mentioned that they compromised of "*housing allowances, travelling allowances and benefits that include medical aids, car subsidies*." The argument, however, was that it is difficult to harmonise these benefits because some workers who are currently enjoying them might lose out. Consequently, there are differences in how these must be resolved since other workers belong to legacy institutions and still enjoy these benefits. To validate this, Sammy said during the focus group:

"*No one wants to lose the benefits they have from the legacy institution. So we are fighting around those issues."*

This is a clear indication of the complexity of the issue. Moreover, what makes the latter complex is that one person might be moved from one campus that has some benefits to another that does not have any benefits. This is why the union was adamant that the key issues included harmonisation, integration of payroll and standardisation of worker conditions across all autonomous campuses before anything else can happen, such as transitioning and migrating workers.

5.5.1.3.2. Staff transitioning

The union believed that the plan to transition staff is disorganised, unstructured, confusing, unclear and complex. They believe that the fact that the DMM is gazetted and clear in terms of being each campus being operationally autonomous is one thing, and does nothing to explain how such a skeleton main framework should then be concretised in a practical rollout of the plan. Responding to the question of how staff is being transitioned, Sammy said such a process

> *"is haphazard. It's haphazard. Well.., the issue of Divisional Management Model is gazetted and it is clear there. But now how do we move people and fit them into that? That is what is not clear."*

In addition, it became clear that there was confusion largely because of lack of clarity in terms of where workers are in relation to their being transitioned from the old to the new wave of the DMM in terms of the HR plan.

Effectively this matter is complex in that some of the workers who must be integrated in their now autonomous campuses, and be transitioned from their earlier legacy institutions and structures to the new campuses, are not sure where the process is at the point of data collection. Providing a narrative explanation about some existing complexities in the process of staff transitioning, because there is no clarity on how it would be done since solutions have not yet been provided, Kholiswa had this to say:

> "*You work with such people here* [the staff that is supposed to be incorporated to the new autonomous campus*], but their loyalty is still to that person whom they report to* [in terms of the old structure of the university].

So we are not yet there as staff members, to an extent that even we as unions… because their subscriptions are not paid to our account, yet we have to service them. It is even hard for them to come to our general meetings because they are still belonging to that branch on other side. So there is no plan on how to move people from campuses to the autonomous campuses. There is no plan."

The complexity above appears in three forms: firstly, the unions themselves are still arranged and organised in the manner that reflects a pre-merger stage. They are servicing their constituencies in the pre-merger manner. Members belonging to the same union are still fragmented. However, this is also partly because of, secondly, the fact that the systems, administration, processes and structures are still the same, never really changed from the legacy institution, are constantly reflective of technikons, and traditional universities, and not a new university. But also, thirdly, and finally, it is partly because *"there is no recognition agreement for those unions who now belong to the new autonomous campuses."* They are still sites of the former technikons central campus.

5.5.1.3.3. Staff migration

According to the union, there is a guide on how the question of migration of staff will be handled, and this guide is that which both labour and management have agreed on. This migration plan, which in itself is not yet signed by labour and management, but agreed upon by both, is waiting for the approval of the organogram. There is no clear timeframe in terms of completing the organogram. When asked what the staff migration plan looked like, the union argued the following:

"Now the migration document which we agreed upon with the management, says how we match and place the people ….we start with people who belong to those campuses, the permanent workers and fit them into that organogram [of each campus, and in each campus where those workers are currently at before taking others from other campuses], *and then with the contract workers with three years in the institution of that campus. If there are extra positions, then we will come to other campuses. Otherwise the migration document is specific for each campus* [each campus has to have its own organogram as per its needs, departments, academic demands, administration, management and service departments], *and if people of those campuses fill the entire positions, then that is it"* [that is, in that case, no other person from elsewhere can be able to be accommodated In the campus structure]."

5.5.1.4. Response from SCHRO, C*a*

The participant indicated that there was a document that was promised to be made available, which was not clearly explained of its exact contents. That document is not yet at his disposal as an HR manager of C*a.* To validate the above, below is the response from Lizo in relation to the question about what the HR plan entailed:

"We had a meeting but the meeting did not explain clearly. We were told there would be a document."

Evidently, the participant did not have a clear idea about many other issues such as the issues relating to staff transitioning, harmonisation of basic conditions of employment, migration of staff and mechanisms related to this process of transition. When probed about when such a document might be made available, the responded was not sure, nor could he speculate. It had, however, became clear that the campus in which this respondent resided had already started their processes of working as an autonomous campus. The campus had already started integrating at an operational level such as that of HR processes, documentation, filing and approving of requisitions. This is happening despite the fact that there is no document explaining how transition is working. Zola said:

> *"We are already processing things as a single campus now, despite the fact that the other site is previously administered in a pre-merger way. Things are approved by the Rector already and need not be approved again in the former pre-merger and post-merger system."*

What this demonstrates is that the campus already understands the concept of creating an autonomous campus with its ability to survive as a business unit. This is further evidenced by the fact that the HR of the campus has put has an informal structure called HR family which seats in meetings to deal with issues of recruitment and so on. The same participant had this to say about this HR family:

> *"The HR family meeting for example has been putting up a process where HR works with faculties and department with their officers."*

Beyond the above, the respondent could not explain the plan at a university level, and it was apparent that such a plan does not yet exist or is not yet at the disposal of his office – at worst, if the plan is there it could be that the HR manager of C*a* had not gone through it.

5.5.2. Reactions of labour on the HR plan

5.5.2.1. Responses from C*a*

The researcher asked whether the union supported the HR plan in order to solicit their reactions thereto. Their initial response was that they have no problem with the plan, if it can be circulated to them, discussed and agreed upon**.** However, they quickly pointed out that there has always been *"an issue which was never discussed, the issue of resource allocation"* for autonomous campuses, and that until that has been ironed out, they would not really say they support the HR plan. The following are issues Jane mentioned in response to several questions, and demonstrate that their initial reaction is that there are a lot of unanswered questions in relation to the plan:

> *"I think with that plan circulated to labour, there is no problem. We first sort all these problems: the resource allocation model. There has not been a place where we discussed that. We have never been given a platform to discuss.*
>
> *Also on the HR allocation, the general resources that will make this university operate, this was never opened in any forum for discussion…Then at what stage are we going to have ours? How do we allocate staff members? So it's based on assumptions. How do you place staff members per campus? And what justifies such a number per department?"*

Beyond these questions, the union was not able to further demonstrate its reaction. They constantly argued that everything hinged on a plan, a framework, something which they continuously lamented they do not have.

5.5.2.2. Responses from **C***b*

When asked whether the union supported the HR plan, the union could not give a definite answer on the basis that they do not have any sort of plan on which to begin to object. Otherwise, and overall, it became clear that they were not willing to allow any sort of process of moving staff to campuses without any approved structure explaining how that process will be going about. Their strong reaction was that there are complex issues that need to be resolved before anything was done, basic things which have been pending forever, lest when an organogram is there, people still refuse to be moved around. They cited that a reason for this was that

> **"***When the time comes for staff to move from their legacy campuses to others, they will be moving to different working conditions, in terms of benefits. That means that you may get there and be a misfit because when you get there you might not have, for example, a car scheme."*

The union was adamant that this is a kind of bridge that will be crossed when they get to it because there was no plan whatsoever to resolve harmonisation and staff transition. Beyond these almost redundant reactions, the union, owing to what they called a lack of proper plan, could not give detail to their responses in this question.

5.5.2.3. Responses of Cc

The researcher asked if the union agreed with the plan of HR. The response of C*c* was somewhat ambiguous. While they said they were part of the process, about which they are happy, they shared reservations.

Some of these reservations included the fact that the plan of HR is not reflective of different conditions under which technikons existed and continued to exist in. Their argument was that the plan *demands higher qualifications,* that one must have a PhD and or be a professor with some quantities of papers and supervision experience. These are, according to them, "*qualifications that former technikons do not have"* at their academic disposal, since they offered diplomas and B-Techs and the highest qualification was a master's degree, not PhD or professoriate qualification.

Essentially the union felt that the plan perpetuates disparities between the legacy institutions and affects negatively Technikons in particular. Starting from acceding to having participated, to pointing out the disparities, Jabu argued:

> *"We were part and parcel of drafting the strategy. We are happy with the strategy, though sometimes it does not really talk to our different situations. For example, you can see that the recruitment processes in terms of demands is based on traditional university qualifications. Sometimes a professor with so many supervised students and with so many published papers etc. is demanded… it means that there is some sort of discrimination because technikons studied up to master's degree and B-Techs… you have a professional qualification to work. But professors, we do not have them as technikons. It is even difficult to have a doctor, worse a professor. So yes there are imbalances in the HR strategy. They forget that there is this component which believed in diplomas and B-techs and all that."*

The researcher proceeded to probe whether there were some things which were beneficial in the HR plan.

Their response was that the "*plan would definitely bring about efficiency and effectiveness".* They held a view that some of the costs in some other departments were truly unnecessary in the sense that they could not be reasonably justified whatsoever. According to them some costs could be saved and efficient use of resources could be realised under the plan. Justifying his argumentative perspective, the Jabu said:

> *"Let me make an example: just recently we discovered that there are two departments in one of our campuses, because it is in-sourced* [in terms of its catering and cleaning company]. *Now, those are 80 people who are senior dieticians. But there is no need for them because students go and buy in the nearest store. So we do not need those people, from a management point of view."*

Regarding the questions about what losses did they think they were, or are, going to incur, a participant said that retrenchments were eminent, withstanding the fact that such a process will only take place after three processes have been followed: after voluntary service package has been gone through; after match and place has taken place, and after the contract workers have been placed into any appropriate available positions in autonomous campuses in terms of the organogram in relation to the migration document guide. The union conceded that some workers would be affected by downsizing. The respondents went on to demonstrate how the process of cost-cutting will affect personnel/workers. However, they vowed that labour is critically *"influencing the organogram"* in order that it does not hit hard on the workers whom they represent. To validate this, especially when the researcher asked what their reaction was on the question of reduction of personnel costs, is a quote from Kholiswa:

> "*Hayi kaloku!! There is no way the unions can ever allow that to happen, though we know at the back of our minds that there will be casualties."*

The expression *"hayi kaloku"*, which ordinarily reflect a defensive point of view, was exclaimed in its response to demonstrate the position of workers in relation to defending their own interests as workers.

5.5.2.3.1. Preparation of workers for retrenchments

The researcher also concerned himself with understanding whether workers were prepared to deal with the possibility that some of them might be casualties of job losses in this transition phase, especially given the fact that literature has suggested that change and transition leads to fear, uncertainty, doubt, low morale etc. The union argued that they, by themselves as leaders, in the absence of management and with no change management in place to transition workers in this turbulent situation, were able to call gatherings, report the situation and alert workers that anything was possible, that people could lose jobs through retrenchments. Furthermore, their reaction was that it was unfair that management did not take this matter into their own hands and that "*it would make us as leaders unpopular*" to their constituencies.

To **validate this analysis, below is a response by Samantha, which stood uncontested:**

> *"From the labour point of view, we report to them, we hold meetings with them and say to them, comrades, this thing can happen…Management, they are managers and leave it to us to talk to our constituencies…, which is a bit of a problem, because we do not want to be unpopular to our members. It would be better if all of us, management and labour were in this thing together…come to workers and say workers this is likely to happen and not leave it to us to say it, because we might say what we want to say. Whereas if they are visible to the workers and say this is likely to happen…so we are playing that role."*

5.5.2.4. Responses from SCHRO, C*a*

The participant said that workers are always involved in all forums and platforms to express their views in the best possible way. In line with this view, the participant indicated that in his opinion, workers are content at least with the HR allocation plan so long. Lizo said:

> "*Workers are always represented through labour union leaders. Unions have been in all meetings where plans are conceptualised and are able to voice their views. Therefore, in my opinion labour is content with the HR plan."*

The respondent did, however, also note that workers in the form of unions are concerned about issues related to harmonisation and migration of staff. These concerns are very important in as far as the respondent responded to the questions, but generally he still maintained that workers are satisfied. Overall the respondent was not willing to engage the matter further since he was arguing that he could not speak for unions and speculate much on what its reactions were toward the HR plan.

5.5.3. Effects of the plan on workers

5.5.3.1. Response from C*a*

The union pointed out that there was going to be efficiency in management because all managers will be in the campus at the needed time to process activities of the autonomous campus. This is one benefit they pointed out which did not exist in the previous model of management. They were confident that effectiveness will also become possible in this context of transition and change.

On the negative side, the union felt that there would be a lot of casualties in terms of job losses and retrenchments. This they attached to the fact that there is a cost-cutting process and that the latter is directly at the level of personnel. Consequently, those who are part-time and contract workers, about which they said the institution might not have a huge obligation, are likely to lose out. The participants also pointed that there are specific departments that may be compromised, such as catering and cleaning services. In this case Phila argued:

> "*Because there are reactionary forces who want outsourcing of catering and cleaning services, they do not know exactly what is going to happen to those kinds of workers."*

Essentially the argument was that those workers are as uncertain as the union is. This is confirmed by some authors who say that restructuring causes uncertainty, high levels of anxiety, low morale and performance decline, absenteeism and low productivity in general (Martin & Roodt, 2008). In this situation, a transformational leadership should be able to calm down the situation and make sure the organisation continues to perform. Transformational leadership mitigates effects of uncertainty during change and effectively guides workers to achieve their occupational goals (Groenewald and Ashfield (2008).

Clearly according to the participants, with such uncertainty, we can infer that there is no truly transformational leadership. Perhaps there is too much involvement in management than leadership. In relation to the effects of the HR plan, Jane said:

> *"We are anticipating losses, lots of casualties"; "we are very worried"; "workers are going to find themselves in a very difficult position."*

The union said that managers at the middle and top levels are also facing the possibility of being casualties. Jane said that "*If you were a director, and a director is no longer needed, you are now lingering in the space"*. But they pointed out that though that was the case, "*They [senior management] have a way of accommodating each other up there",* about which one participant said *“I am not sure about how far they* [management] *are willing to go for us* [in terms of accommodating ordinary workers and making sure they keep their jobs].”

5.5.3.2. Responses of C*b*

The union felt that the question of effects of the HR plan is a relative question, which it depends on how you look at it as a person affected by the restructuring, and that *“there is positive and negative, depending on the nature of the effect itself”.* On the one hand, the union argued that a person who might be relocated to another campus, because spaces have been filled in terms of the organogram, might feel that such a movement is not a bad thing, and on the other hand, there might be temporal workers who might be absorbed in the process of matching and placing, while there are some who might lose out. Effectively, the union was arguing that there will be benefits for a temporal worker who becomes a permanently employed employee through absorption owing to the vacant spaces in the campus.

5.5.3.2.1. Improved qualifications

One participant stated that the academic staff will be definitely affected in that there are high demands for qualifications for HoDs. According to Caroline:

> “*The DVC said they were coming up with hybrid departments, and those departments, demand highly qualified staff as head of departments.*”

She added that the problem was that such positions for HoDs will be open to any applicant, in other words the match and place policy will not be applicable. Rather the participant said:

> *"If we do not get what we want, the quality we need in terms of skills, the DVC said they will go outside* [the university]*…,which means the qualifications in an academic environment is there at the top."*

Consequently, they said that even lecturers will be affected also by these new demands. In response to this process of demands for higher qualifications, the union had said, in contemplation, that labour should be having

> "*A framework to say how is a DVC bridging the gap between the former technikons and traditional university because if we are going to leave them do that, we are not going to be doing justice."*

This reflects the concerns labour has with the disparities between former traditional universities and technikons in that in the latter institutions there "*masters were not a problem because we were practical based".* These demands, the union argued, need to allow time for lecturers in the technikons to advance their studies.

5.5.3.3. Responses from C*c*

The union said that workers were demoralised because they do not know what will happen to them in the near future, or sometime sooner, when the plan is fully rolled out. They [workers] are uncertain, underprepared to deal with these uncertainties and are generally unclear about whether they will retain or lose their jobs, whether they will be migrated or moved around to different campuses and so on. Consequently, they have lamented that some workers are already resigning from their posts because they do not feel secured. The HR unit has been informing them [the union leaders] to actually talk workers out of resigning from the institution.

The union further attached some of the reasons for these resignations to the fact that "*there is no change management to deal with this crisis"* and that such a problem is escalating unstoppably. Literature wars conclusively that there cannot be successful change without change management. According to Nickols (2010) change management is a *task of managing change*, an *area of professional practice* and a process that uses *control mechanisms* in ensuring that an organisation moves from the unwanted state to a desired one. Responding to the main question in terms of how workers are being affected, Lulama argued thus:

> *"Firstly, morally, because they* [workers] *do not know* [what the future holds for them]. *Secondly, uncertainty: people do not know what is going to happen to them. They do not know whether they will still have their jobs by next year or what…there are a lot of things at stake. So it has affected our members a lot, to an extent that there is a rise in terms of resignations. We got a report from HR saying that we must try to stop people from resigning all because they are uncertain. There is no change management to deal with this process, between top management and workers. They only depend on labour leadership."*

5.5.3.3.1. Worker productivity levels

The researcher continued to probe and looked at productive levels of workers during this time of transition. It became clear that because they are demoralised, workers are not productive. They are not even planning ahead now in terms of their tasks/job since there is no certainty of them securing their jobs in the future. They argued that their "*plans are rather for a very short term"*, between today and the time of lectures or general work. Samantha reflected on his own personal circumstances by saying:

“Obviously*, if you are demotivated you cannot be productive. Even I, myself, use to have plans here for the year.*

But now you cannot make plans for the next year to come because you might not be here in the next year. Or you might not be in that position anymore. So there is a short term life that you plan for. You cannot plan for a long time.”

5.5.3.3.2. Improved qualifications

The union pointed out that there are demands for improved qualifications, especially for academics. Samuel (2013) had a similar finding in the University of Rwanda whe he found that change required that staff should have new qualifications even for administration positions they occupy. According to the participants the purpose of improving qualifications was to ensure that workers become more competitive and can have access to marketing themselves for senior posts which require higher qualifications such as a PhDs for HoDs of academic departments. The union further pointed out that the university was encouraging staff to actually further their studies by making available sabbatical leaves.

On the role management plays to help advance qualifications of staff members, Jane shared:

“On paper they encourage us as workers to further our studies, by raising the bar in terms of qualification. For example now, whether you are going to be an HoD you have to have a PhD upwards. So they encourage us to go and study... They encourage this because also there is a study subsidy given. You can go to sabbatical leave for 18 months and study and come back. They pay you while you are away. That speaks to academic and non-academics. Even I was in a study leave for 2 years.”

5.5.3.3.3. Retrenchments

The union admitted that restructuring had inevitable consequences on the personnel, that cost-cutting processes mean that some casualties will be born and that, most significantly, part-time academic workers/contract workers will be surely affected by this process, notwithstanding the fact that they have vowed to defend them where they can. This, they said, will become clear when the organogram comes to the fore, explaining workloads of lecturers, thus disadvantaging those part-time workers who occupy some of the modules which should be occupied by some full-time lecturers. To validate this analysis, Kholiswa explained how some retrenchments will come about:

> *"Part-time academic workers will be affected. When we are doing the organisational structure, we are going to check workload for each lecturer. If it is said that a lecturer must have 8 periods in four modules, then it means that part-time lecturers may be affected because previously a lecturer could take 2 modules and the part-time lecturer takes the other two. But now if now it is said that you must have 4 classes, for you to have that workload, that will mean taking from the part-time lecturers that work, and they will be in that sense affected."*

As for contract workers, another Sammy had this to say, in relation to match and place policy:

> *"Coming to the other part-time workers, contract workers will be matched and placed at the end, after full-time workers are placed and matched. If there are vacant positions, some part-time workers will be absorbed permanently. So, so if there is a place for the contract workers, they will be absorbed. If not, then tough."*

There are clearly three key/pertinent things about retrenchments: one is that they will happen, one way or the other. Two, they will affect part-time workers (predominantly academic and at least some non-academic staff) and contract workers. three, there will be match and place in each campus, after which contract and part time workers will fill the remaining vacancies.

The remainder, after filling those vacant spaces, will be excluded altogether by the very structure of the new organisation that would have been designed, agreed upon, signed and sealed.

5.5.3.4. **Response of SCHRO, C*a***

The participant noted that there will no real negative effects for full-time workers, notwithstanding the need to meet revised requirements for the work they do. Such full-time workers, according to the participant would be a priority of those who will be fitted in the organisational structure of the campuses. The participant also commented that contract workers who have long-term contracts such as five year contracts with the university may also be fitted into the structure, though he could not say with certainty since there was no organogram at the time of the data collection. Lizo said:

> *"Through match and place, the first priority will be given to full-time workers before any other category. After that contract workers will also be fitted into the organisational structure."*

The participant did caution that part-time workers and contract workers whose contracts are limited to between 6 months and 18 months may be highly affected by the process of transition, specifically during match and place. He noted that part-time workers are not necessarily a responsibility of the university since they are assumed also to be workers elsewhere, and because they are not on a permanent contract with the university.

That is why they are not in the priority list during the process of matching and placing. Consequently, the respondent lamented such workers might end up being retrenched altogether, provided they cannot be fitted in the structure.

One other issue that was highlighted was that of how workers are going to be affected because of the demands for specific requirements. Effectively the problem is that some posts previously occupied on the basis of low qualification (such as the HoD post) would be difficult in terms of competition for those posts. This would compromise those with low qualifications. Lizo lamented:

> *"Qualifications requirements are being improved, thus making it difficult for those with low qualifications to sustain their posts. That is why the university is also subsidising those who want to pursue their studies in order to meet these qualifications."*

5.5.4. Mechanisms to mitigate perceived effects on workers

5.5.4.1. Responses from C*a*

The researcher could not spend any sizeable amount of time on this question because participants responded that there were no plans presented to them in a quest to attenuate and of the perceived effects.

The participants lamented that the management had no programme for workers in this respect and that, moreover, there is nothing they have written down tabling their own suggestions in terms of different strategies and plans to reduce effects. Rather they said that they would usually make their contributions in organised official gatherings (of) the university.

Summarily one Phila said this in relation to the question, to which no one added anything:

"Clearly there is no plan, no programmes on the ground in terms of reducing effects such as uncertainty. In a normal institution you not should have such problems. They have no plan, if they have those plans, then we do not know."

5.5.4.2. *Responses from* C*b*

The union reported that there is no plan or mechanisms put in place to deal with any of the foreseeable consequences of the process of restructuring, with the challenges of possible migration and general problems of staff transition. The union went as far as saying that there is no change management in place, which they considered to be one the most important things to have during transition. These were brief comments they made during the interview when asked what plans, strategies and mechanisms the university has in store to deal with the effects of the HR plan:

"There are no mechanisms from management"; "There is no documented plan"; "We do not know."

Beyond these brief comments, the union felt that there were also no clear mechanisms of dealing with workers who were long in the campus but have never really had a required qualification. They said mechanisms such as the RPL were not being engaged whatsoever by the management.

5.5.4.3. Responses from C*c*

5.5.4.3.1. Voluntary service package mechanism

C*c* suggested that there were two mitigating mechanisms that they can clearly see. Firstly they pointed that the voluntary service package serves as an important mechanism.

This service plan simply means that a person applies to leave the institution and in turn gets a package with which to leave, thus leaving a vacant post for another who would have otherwise been removed or retrenched had such a mechanism not been in place. Moreover, they added that this can be done by old people/workers who are already approaching their time of pension, or any person who is willing to leave the institution. Jabu offered the following comprehensive answer in relation to the question asked about this mitigating mechanism, VSP:

> *"Firstly, these effects are mitigated by the voluntary service package. I think that that is the first thing that is assisting. The purpose of this voluntary service package is to open spaces for the staff. Because the voluntary service package, you will apply for it, for example as a senior residence officer, and then you will leave the space open and vacant, then that position becomes available – at that time we would not have matched and placed. Then one else from another office in, say Sport may do so. This is a mitigating effect so that we can have more people moving out and opening vacancies for more. And labour is happy with that."*

5.5.4.3.2. Collective engagements between labour and management

The second mechanism this union pointed out was that there was a process of constant engagement between labour and management. In this context, the union argued that effects can only be attenuated when in these engagements; the institution is able to absorb *"warm bodies"* into the organogram.

That is to say that effectively the plan of the collective engagement is that of *"trying not to leave people outside the organogram",* and the best way to do so is to apply mechanism one and then proceed to "absorb" those "warm bodies" who are already occupying certain positions. When asked about what concerns they had with the mechanisms, one respondent said that their biggest issue, notwithstanding its necessity and despite the fact that it was not possible to keep everyone, that all workers should keep their jobs. However, they had already acknowledged earlier on that job losses were inevitable. Below is a quotation from Kholiswa on their concerns with the mechanisms in place:

> *"At the moment if it were for us, everyone should have a position, but then we cannot help it."*

5.5.4.4. Response from SCHR, Ca

The respondent did not have much to say in response to the question of what mechanisms were put in place to actually mitigate the effects. He only pointed out that the university has put forth a process of assisting those who will not possess the necessary required qualifications. It will give them financial assistance to further their studies. Beyond this mechanism, the respondent only said that the university may buy out some people on the basis of age – those who might take early pensions and so on.

5.5.5. Observation

The **labour unions** were we mostly calm and seemed to have accepted that the fate of their constituency was not really in their hands. They were not rebellious about the fact that changes were taking place and were able to respond in a most articulate way.

However, they seemed to be passionate about the process of transition and could be seen sometimes to be emphatic on some issues such as lack of a plan on harmonisation, transitioning of staff and the organogram. The researcher could see that what appeared most important to them was that a plan must be put into place and be widely known – this was an issue that caused the respondents to show discontent about. Overall they were calm and the researcher observed that they were not putting their politics of wanting to protect their constituencies at all cost. They also showed confidence in all their articulations.

The **campus HR senior manager** was the most collected. He was very articulate of those things which he knew and could point out what he did not know. He also seemed passionate about the HR issues and had also seemed as though he was an energetic person around making sure the model succeeds at an HR level.

5.5.6. Document analysis

The university could not provide the much talked about document relating to match and place of staff members.

The university pointed out that the document was still a work in progress and not yet publicised beyond the boundaries of the university. It also lamented that such a document was a sensitive matter and as such its release to the researcher could have potential harm.

The only documents therefore that were analysed are the following: the Turnaround Bulletin and the statute of the university. These two were used to corroborate the responses of the respondents where applicable.

5.5.6.1. Turnaround bulletin

According to the turnaround, the university has to review HR policies. Parts of these policies, amongst others, are: employment contracts; job descriptions; basic employment conditions; reduction of costs; monitoring of performance of workers; job alignment and grading; revision of staff qualification requirements; recruitment and selection of staff processes; harmonisation of conditions of service; review of benefits structures, and a development of an HR strategy.

The respondents, talk about staff reduction or retrenchments, fears, doubts, uncertainties, stresses and anxieties related to the HR processes as issues of concern to them and as issues that have not yet been properly addressed. There is, however, corroboration between what the Turnaround Bulletin says and what their fears are. Essentially if and when the process of fitting people into the organisational structure happens, some people might lose out because the university has to reduce costs and one of the ways of doing so is staff reduction.

With regard to mechanisms put in place to mitigate these perceived effects, the Bulletin talks about skills development and training of staff, looking at ways of developing individual workers at a level of personal growth, induction of staff into the mission and vision of the university, establishment of forums to engage labour unions. The unions say that some of these processes do not exist now and there are no documents in place to harmonise working conditions and to train and transition staff. However, some unions did concede that there is funding put in place to help those who want to pursue their studies and time frames to complete the necessary requirements.

Effectively there is corroboration on issues of what the turnaround plan entails on the one hand and the fears of workers on the other hand, especially in terms of negative effects on workers. The issue that cannot be corroborated properly is that which relates to whether or not what the turnaround bulletin says about other mechanisms to reduce perceived effects is not being actioned in practice as the unions have lamented. Even the HR campus manager who was interviewed could not confirm whether the turnaround is being actioned as it is.

5.5.6.2. The university statute

According to the statute, the university is the owner of processes and the campuses are the users of the processes and are accountable to the university about the manner of the use of institutional policies, application of rules and regulations and compliance to procedures. The statute also gives to the campus, through the CP, authority to manage the autonomous campus. In terms of what the respondents have said about the creation of campus organograms and the putting mechanisms to make each campus sustainable on its own, there is corroboration of that with what the statute says.

5.6. Conclusion

This chapter presented data in tables from all focus groups and the HR official, after which results were discussed at length, with literature and theoretical frameworks used to support analysis given by the researcher. The results showed that there is no plan that is collectively owned by the unions and the management. Instead sudden changes were made, since there were no clear-time frames, with little consultation and involvement of workers on the ground through the labour unions.

Furthermore, it had been clear that there was clear transitional and migration plan that has received popular support of the members of worker community. Despite not having a plan, the university was reported to have been continuing with business as usual. In light of this, labour unions were not so much opposed but were more concerned about how things were happening.

The unions and the HR official all agreed that there would be possible retrenchments on contract and part-time workers, something which also created fear, doubt, uncertainty, staff-turnover, low productivity and morale on staff. Pressure was also mounting since there were demands for academic qualifications for academic staff in particular.

Finally it became clear that the mechanisms which the university had put in place (voluntary service package and subsidies for furtherance of higher qualifications), though labour unions were elated about them, were not adequate to mitigate the effects of the process of restructuring in the context. In light of the findings, the researcher sought to make recommendations, and the latter will be fully elaborated in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY OF RESULTS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6. Introduction

Chapter 5 data was reported and analysed at length. In this chapter, a summary of findings will be made from Chapters 2 and 3, including a report of the research data. The last aspect of this research deals with summary of results, conclusion and recommendations. These recommendations will deal with how change and transition within the HR unit must be managed by the university under study.

6.1. Synopsis of the study

The problem statement was stated and described in Chapter 1. The objectives of the study were to: investigate the implications of the Divisional Management Model on HR in a merged multi-campus university; find out what the HR allocation strategy of the management model of the university entailed; Investigate the reactions of labour on the HR allocation strategy; explore the effects of the university's management model on its employees, and understand the current processes, strategies and tactics that the university has put in place to mitigate the DMM effects on staff.

Chapter 2 surveyed and analysed literature, and the key topics were: organisational change, models of change, management and leadership of change and effects of change and transition on the workers. Chapter 3 provided GST and 6-step model of Mabey as a theoretical spectacles, together with the suitability and applicability of these theories to the study. Chapter 4 discussed the methodology and methods of the research study, after which data was reported and analysed in Chapter 5.

6.2. Summary of results

There was a total of 16 participants that were interviewed, five (5) from each of the three focus group and one (1) was a campus HR manager from one campus. The researcher will provide a concrete summary of findings below.

6.2.1. HR strategy/plan

There is no clear, articulate, widely distributed and known document about what the HR plan is all about, except assumptions, speculations and informal talks about it in university circles. Even the office of HR that the researcher articulated confirms what the unions have said in this regard. What is generally known is that there is a match and place document which is waiting for the completion of the university organogram. There is no plan to transition staff and certainly no clarity on harmonisation in terms of how basic employment conditions will be synchronised in the university.

6.2.2. Reactions of Labour

Workers do not object to any plan, as long as it is widely consulted and communicated to the leadership, and as long as everyone is included and their input take into account. However, labour unions are concerned about the welfare of workers and the possibilities of retrenchments during the period of transition. They acknowledge their need to constantly represent the interests of workers in all this process. The HR manager believes that workers are satisfied with the HR strategy (though it is not yet out in the open) because they are represented and give input by their leadership.

6.2.3. Effects of the HR strategy on employees

Workers are fearful, uncertain, doubtful, stressed and generally concerned about their future job security. Consequently, productivity levels are low and morale has declined. Additionally, because of the new demands, workers will need to upgrade their qualifications in order to stand a chance of being fitted in the organisational structure. Those who are mostly affected are former technikon campuses since they do not have all the necessary qualification in the academic departments. Finally, part-time workers and contract workers are also likely to be retrenched, especially those workers whose contracts are only obligatory for a limited period of 6, 12 or 18 months.

6.2.4. Mechanisms to mitigate the effects

It was suggested that the university has voluntary service package as its mechanisms. This means that some workers who would wish to leave on the basis of age or another reason can be bought out through voluntary service package. Moreover, participants revealed that those who do not possess proper and required qualification are subsidised to further their studies and are given time frames to attain the qualifications.

6.3. Conclusion

In the beginning of the study, in chapter one, the researcher stated the following as the objectives: to investigate the implications of the Divisional Management Model on HR in a merged multi-campus university; to find out what the HR allocation strategy of the management model of the university entailed to investigate the reactions of labour on the HR allocation strategy; explore the effects of the university's management model on its employees;

to understand the current processes, strategies and tactics that the university has put in place to mitigate the DMM effects on staff. From the level of the literature surveyed, the methodology and methods chosen and used, up to the data presented and analysed, the researcher has been able to respond to these objectives.

6.4. Recommendations

Below is a list of recommendations and they are based on reported and analysed data.

6.4.1. Change management

Literature in Chapter 2 suggests that change management is vital and cannot be overemphasised. When a university has no change management in its processes of change and transition, then all feelings, attitudes, characters, behaviours and general complexities of change cannot be fully dealt with. Therefore, the researcher recommends that change management must be put in place to deal with transition and its implications, lest all never truly materialise.

Particularly each autonomous campus must have a change manager who has: (1) political acumen to deal with the politics of change, resistance, labour-management politics, lobbying and informal skills to engage, seek consensus and understanding between university stakeholders; (2) academic objectivist outlook in order to facilitate the necessity of prioritisation of the academic project and to neutralise ulterior interests that are not predicated on protecting the academic project;

(3) analytic and process management skills in order to help others on the ground understand the theoretical in its relation to the practical, insofar as concretising the HR plan/strategy, and (4) a change leader(s) who has/have a combination of transformational, charismatic and transactional leadership qualities in order to help everyone buy into this change and transition, own it and bless its outcomes. Essentially the university change manager must have a multifaceted nature of skills that encapsulate all the above mentioned aspects.

6.4.2. Collective participation of workers by building a communication network

The university must not only rely on platforms where there are workshops, meetings or related gatherings because those platforms only have leaders and not workers who are tasked with implementation of change. Moreover, decisions taken in such platforms, even if agreed upon, may still not reach workers on the ground with the same sense of accuracy and clarity they have in those gatherings. Equally, e-mails and circulars may not be enough, though important, to use during the time of transition because this period is very sensitive and needs special treatment and care of the human aspect.

The university must look at other alternatives such as the following: (a) Campus Indabas, spearheaded by CPs and change managers, in which platforms the feelings and perceptions of workers can be heard directly from them in a dialogical process, and be taken into account in strengthening the transitional process; (b) Building an online communication in which workers are all included in order to post their concerns, discuss them and recommend. In this way the management of the university is able to tell how the transition is being understood, clear confusions which it discerns, and pave ways to deal with concerns, reactions, resistances, fears, doubts, uncertainties and morale-based issues.

Some workers may freely express themselves in such a communication collective network than even in an Indaba or summit and (c) Such a communication network should also do a lot to communicate: short-term, medium and long-term goals, progress and advances made, and constantly update workers where the university is, explain reasons if things do not go according to plans, and seek advice from workers in terms of soliciting their contributions.

6.4.3. Design a transition plan

The university must have a transitional plan. This plan must entail ways of helping workers deal with the emotions, behaviours and loses relating to transition. Furthermore, it must look at how the HR unit is able to build strong relations with even those who might survive the period of fitting workers into the campus organograms, for example. Another aspect that is to deal with how campuses that were operationally dependent on others, which have now become autonomous on their own or have been integrated to the other autonomous campuses now, and make sure that such campuses are able to integrate their systems and people to the new modus operandi. This process may need programmes and activities such as informal sports, arts and culture to help workers gel together and break any perceived stereotypes, creation of collaborations in work, delegations of authorities to those sites that previously or currently feel undermined and effectively either formalising significant aspects of operational functions which need taking of responsibility or simply allowing an environment where such transition becomes possible. Such mechanisms can enable cultural integration, assimilation or a creation of a new culture of each campus altogether. Caution should be taken, however, to make sure cultures of autonomous campuses are not such that the creation of singular institutional cultural supremacy occurs – this might compromise ability for the university to be one and to perceive itself as one with its culture.

6.4.4. Decide on harmonisation approaches

The university will probably have all its change and transition plans fail if it does not deal with harmonisation, especially because the problem has been in existence for the duration of the merger of the university. There are two approaches and mechanisms which the researcher believes are mechanisms for dealing with harmonisation, and from which one or a combination of corresponding elements can be used: Firstly, the university can leave the matter to autonomous campuses do deal with it. This could work if one considers the fact that each campus will have to be self-sustainable in financial terms. Thus, such things as salaries, benefits and allowances may be issues which should be understood in relation to a capacity of each campus to afford them from a budgetary perspective. If a campus can afford, it could regulate that policy within the confines of what is acceptable by the institution, of at the approval of the university management. The challenge with this recommendation is that if this mechanism was to be used, the campus might believe they are no longer part of the institution and this perception might work against the consolidation of institutional culture and identity. At another level there would be no synchrony at a policy level and this might temper with the creation of equal treatment of workers across the university. However the researcher believes that the university should analyse the opportunity cost of this recommendation in the light of the conceptualised model.

Secondly, the university can have one uniform approach to harmonisation. This approach could mean creating a single set of mechanisms that must bind all campuses and effectively enforce implementation. The problem to be dealt with in relation to this recommendation is that there has not been a process of where harmonisation in the university has succeeded since the time of merger.

Thus, a university will have to decide what is more important: whether to create a single policy that negates contexts of different locations of these autonomous campuses and to design a blanket policy, or to effectively create a single university policy with a risk of sustaining lack of enforceability of failure to implement as has been the case.

6.4.5. Migrate institutional items, responsibilities and offices to an independent site

It is logical that if an institutional site is to retain its independence, it must be located in an area where such independence can be discernible. That an institutional site is not on any of the autonomous campuses is commendable. However, more must be done to move all institutional items and offices to such an independent site. Equipment, infrastructure and machinery of institutional nature must be equally moved. This is vital in that issues relating to favouritism [because of campus loyalty and attachment of institutional officials residing in campuses where institutional items reside] are inevitable and to eliminate such things, the university must be willing to relocate altogether.

6.4.6. Facilitate recognition agreements for unions with respect to the DMM

The creation of autonomous campuses necessitates a condition for changes in the manner unions are structured and related to university management. The union that belongs to the former satellite campus, which is currently still structured along the historical lines of a technikon, needs to be recognised in order that in its being autonomous it can have a legitimate voice.

6.5. Suggestion for further researcher

In the four years since the turnaround plan was promulgated in 2012, some documents have not been completed. These documents relate to the organogram for each campus. Consequently, the match and place document has not been tested on such an organisational plan. Moreover there is no clear transitional plan and harmonisation document even after so many years. Therefore a further study needs to be done after the completion of the organisational structure, the implementation of the match and place document and the concretisation of the harmonisation and transitional plan.

6.6. Conclusion

This chapter provided a report on the summary of findings and the recommendations. The latter is informed by the evidence generated from the data that was collected. According to the findings, the participants are not fully conversant about the HR plan in relation to harmonisation, transitioning and possible migration of staff because there was no concrete organogram at the time of data collection. There are great fears, doubts and uncertainties on the part of workers in relation to the transitional process. It had become clear that labour unions are not disputing change and transition, but are concerned about the impact of such a process on jobs of their constituencies. Some of them felt there was no clear mechanism to mitigate all perceived effects. Others thought that the VSP and the subsidies given to facilitate a process of making sure that all academic staff meets the minimum requirements. Effectively the study responded to and met all its objectives that were stated in the first chapter.

REFERENCES

Abrahams M.R., & Lawrence, P.R. (2001). *The Challenge of Transforming Organizations: Lessons Learned about Revitalizing Organizations*. MD: Rowman & Littlefield.

Ajay, O. (2002). *Leading change.* USA: Capstone Publishing.

Alter, S. (2007). Could the work system method embrace systems concepts more fully? *Information Resource Management Journal*, *20*(2), 33-43.

Amagoh, F. (2008). Perspectives on Organizational Change: Systems and Complexity Theories. *The Innovation Journal: The Public Sector Innovation Journal, 13*(3), 1–14.

Antonakis, J., Avolio, B.J. & Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003). Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor full-range leadership theory using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *14*, 261–295.

Appelbaum, S. H and Donia, M. (2000). The realistic downsizing preview: A management intervention in the prevention of survivor syndrome (part 1). *Career Development International, 5*(7), 333 –350.

Aarons, G. A. (2006). Transformational and transactional leadership: Association with attitudes toward evidence-based practice. *Psychiatric Services, 57*(8), 1162-1169.

Ashkenas, R., Ulrich, D., Jick, T., & Kerr, S. (1995). *The Boundaryless organisation breaking the chains of organisational structure.* San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Avolio, B. & Bass, B.M. (2002). *Developing potential across full range cases on transactional and transformational leadership*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Babbie, E. (2007). *The Practice of Social Research* (11^{th} ed.) Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth Publishing Co.

Barbour, R. S. (2001). Checklists for improving rigor in qualitative research: *A case of the tail wagging the dog. British Medical Journal, 322,* 1115-1117

Barile, S. (eds.) (2006). *L'impresa come sistema. Contributi sull'Approccio Sistemico Vitale, I ed.* Torino: Giappichelli.

Barile, S. (eds.) (2008). *L'impresa come sistema – Contributi sull'Approccio Sistemico Vitale*, II ed. Torino: Giappichelli.

Barnard & Stoll. (2010). *Organisational Change Management: A rapid literature review*. Retrieved: May, 25, 2014, from http://www.cubec.org.uk/.

Baron, J.N., Hannan, M.T. and Burton M.D. (2001). Labor pains: Change in organisational models and employee turnover in young, high-tech firms. *American Journal of Sociology*, *106*(4), 960–1012.

Baruch, Y.; Hind, P. (2000) "Survivor syndrome" – a management myth? *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 15*(1), 29-45.

Bashir, M., Afzal, M.T.& Azeem, M. (2008). Reliability and validity of qualitative and operational research paradigm. *Division of Education, University of Education 4*(1), 35-44.

Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. (2001). Shatter the glass ceiling: Women may make better managers. In K. Grint (Ed). *Leadership: Classical, contemporary, and critical approaches.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bass, B. M., and Riggio, R.E. (2006). *Transformational leadership, 2nd ed*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Battaglia, M.P. (2008). *Non-probability sampling. Encyclopedia of Survey Research Methods*. Sage Publications.

Bateman, T.S. and Snell, S.A. (2002). *Management: Competing in the New Era*. McGraw-Hill Irwin: Boston.

Bausch, K. 2002. Roots and branches: A brief, picaresque, personal history of systems theory. *Systems Research and Behavioral Science*, *19*(5), 417-428.

Berg, B.L. (2001). *Qualitative Research Methods for the social sciences* (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Beer, M. and N. Nohria. (2000). Cracking the Code of Change. *Harvard Business Review, Best of HBR*,14-22.

Bezuidenhout, A. & Schultz, C. (2013). Transformational leadership and employee engagement in the Mining industry, *Journal of Contemporary Management*.

Bhengu, T.T. (2005). *Principals as Professional Leaders: Implications for Management of Rural Secondary Schools during Transition.* Doctoral Thesis (Unpublished). Pietermaritzburg: School of Education, University of Kwa-Zulu Natal.

Bishop, J., W. Scott, K. D., Goldsby, M. G. & Cropanzano R. (2005). A construct validity study of commitment and perceived support variables: A multifoci approach. *Group Organization Management, 30,* 153−180.

Bolton, E.B. (2007). Leadership Styles and Leadership Change in Human and Community Service Organizations. University of Florida. Retrieved at June, 20, 2014 http://fycs.ifas.ufl.edu

Bossidy, L., & Charan, R. (2002). Execution: *The discipline of getting things done*. New York: Crown.

Boulding, K. (1956). General systems theory – the skeleton of science. *Management Science*, *2*(1), 197-208.

Bowin, R.B. (2001). H*uman resource management: An experiential approach*. 2nd edition. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

BuaNews (2003). *Higher education mergers named*. Retrieved May 24, 2014, from http://www.buanews.gov.za/news/12/12040412351001.

Buckley, W. (1968). *Morden systems research for the behavioural scientist*. Chigago: Aldine publishing company.

Byrne, M. M. (2001). Evaluating findings of qualitative research. *AORN Journal, 73*, 703-704

Capps, C., and S. E. Hazen. (2002). Applying general systems theory to the strategic scanning of the environment from 2015 to 2050. *International Journal of management*, *19*(2), 308-314.

Carnall, C. (1999). *Managing change in organizations*. London: Prentice Hall.

Cascio, W.F. 2002. *Responsible Restructuring: Creative and profitable Alternatives to Layoffs*. USA, Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Change management Leadership Guide (2011). *Human resources: Organisational and employee effectiveness.* Ryerson University.

Chen, S.S. (2006). Leadership styles and organization structural configurations *The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning*, *February*, 39-45.

Chen, S.S. and Chang, L.K.C. (2001). Exploring technical and vocational education (TVE) leader‟s character and their beliefs and attitudes towards TVE. *Journal of Technology, 16*(4), 605-11.

Chen, S.S. (2003). The philosophy of existence and cognition, *Journal of Dahan Institute of Technology*, *18*, 35-52.

Cho, J. Y., & Lee, E-H. (2014).Reducing confusion about grounded theory and qualitative content analysis: Similarities and differences. *The Qualitative Report, 19*(64), 1-20. Retrieved 2014, September, 30 from: http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR19/cho64.pdf.

Christopher, W.F. (2007). *Holistic Management: Managing What Matters for Company Success*. Hoboken: Wiley-Interscience.

Cohen, D.,& Crabtree, B. (2006). *Qualitative Research Guidelines Project*. Retrieved 2014, September 12, from http://www.qualres.org.

Corbetta, P. (2003). *Social Research: Theory, Method and Techniques.* Sage Publications.

Coyle-Shapiro, K. and Kessler, I. (2000). Consequences of the psychological contract for the employment relationship: A large scale survey', *Journal of Management Studies*, *37*, 903-930.

Cresswell J.W., and Clark, V.L. (2007). *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*. Sage Publications Inc, Thousand Oaks, CA.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Crotty, M. (2003). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. *2nd edition*. London, UK: Sage.

Cutchliffe, J.R. & Mckenna, H.P. (1999). Establishing the credibility of qualitative research findings: the plot thickens. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 30(2), 370-380.

Daft, R.L. (2005). *The leadership experience.* 3rd edition. Mason OH: Thompson, South-western.

Daft, R.L. and Marcic, D. (2004). *Understanding Management*. South-Western, Mason, Ohio.

Dahl, M.S. (2010). *Organisational change and employee stress*. Druid, Aalborg University: Denmark.

De Bruyn, H.E.C. & Kruger, S. (2001). 3rd ed. *Strategic Management: A South African perspective*. Johannesburg: Entrepro Publishers.

Denscombe, M. 2003. *The Good Research Guide* (2nd ed). Philadelphia: Open University Press.

De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. (2005). *Research at grass roots: For social sciences and human professions*. (3rd edn.). Paarl: Paarl Print.

Dolan, S; Belout, A , Balkin, D. (2000). Downsizing without downgrading; learning how firms manage their survivors. *International Journal of Manpower, 21*(1), 34-46.

Doyle, S. (2007). Member checking with older women: A framework for negotiating meaning. *Healthcare for Women International, 28*, 888-908

Dubrovsky, V. (2004). Toward system principles: general system theory and the alternative approach. *Systems Research and Behavioral Science*, *21*(2), 109-122.

Dvir, T., Eden, D., Avolio, B.J. and Shamir, B. (2002), Impact of transformational leadership on follower development and performance: a field experiment, *Academy of Management Journal*, *45*(4), 735-44.

Dyer, W.G. & Dyer, W.G. (1986). Organisational development: system change or culture change. *Personnel*, 14-22.

Easton, D. (1965). *A systems analysis of political life.* New York: Wiley.

Egan, G. (1988). *Change-agent skills: managing innovation and change*. San Diego: University Associates.

EisenbacGh, R., Watson, K. & Pillia, R. (1999). Transformational leadership in the context of organisational change. *Journal of Organisational Change Management, 12*(2), 80-88.

Elizur, D. and Koslowsky, M. (2001) Values and organisational commitment. *International Journal of Manpower, 22*(7), 593-599.

Elo, S., & Kyngäs, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 62*(1), 107-115

Emery, F.E. & Trist, E.L. (1960). Socio-Technical Systems. *Management sciences, models and technique*, C.W and others Churchman. London: Pergamon.

Engelbrecht, A.S. (2002). The effect of organisational leadership on value congruence and effectiveness: An integrated model. In S.M. Brink. (Ed.). South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences. Pretoria. University of Pretoria*.* *5*(3), 589-608.

Espejo, R. & Harnden, R.J. (1989). *The Viable System Model*. London: John Wiley.

Espejo, R. (1999). Seeing systems: overcoming organisational fragmentation, in Castell, A.M., Gregory, A.J. Hindle, G.A., James, M.E. & Ragsdell, G. (eds.). *Synergy Matters: Working with Systems in the 21st Century*. New York: Kluwer Academic / Plenum Publishers.

French, W. L. and Bell, C. H. 1999. *Organisation development – Behavioral science interventions for organisation improvement.* 6th ed. Englewood Cliffs (NJ): Prentice-Hall.

Frenkel, S. (2003). The Embedded Character of Organisational Restructuring, *Journal of Works and Occupation*. *30*, 135-153.

Fullan, M. (2001). *Leading in a culture of change.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2003). *Educational research: An introduction* (8th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Gaughan, P. (2002). *Merger, Acquisition and Corporate Restructuring*, New York, USA: Wiley Publications.

Gillespie, N. & Mann, L. (2000). *The building blocks of trust: The role of transformational leadership and shared values in predicting team members' trust in their leaders*. Paper presented at the 2000 Academy of Management Conference, Toronto.

Gilley, A., Gilley,J.W. and McMillan, H.S. (2009). Organisational change: Motivation, communication and leadership effectiveness. *Performance Improvement Quarterly, 21*(4), 75-94.

Gilley, A. (2005). *The manager as change leader.* Westport, CT: Praeger.

Godard, A. & Lenhardt, V. (2000). *Transformational leadership: Shared dreams to succeed*. New York: Palgrave.

Golinelli, G.M. (2000). *L'approccio sistemico al governo dell'impresa. L'impresa sistema vitale*, I ed. Padova: CEDAM.

Gotsill, G. & Natchez, M. (2007). From resistance to assistance: How to implement change. *T+D, 61*(11), 24-27.

Govender, I., Mabuza, L.H., Ogunbanjo, G.A. & Mash, B. (2014). African primary care research: Performing surveys using questionnaires. *African Journal of Primary Health Care and Family Medicine.* Retrieved 2014, September 20 from http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/phcfm.v6i1.589.

Govender, P., Moodley, S. & Parumasur, S.B. 2005. The management of change at selected Higher Education Institutions: An exploration of the critical ingredients for effective change management. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *31*(1), 76–86.

Graneheim, U. H., & Lundman, B. (2004). Qualitative content analysis in nursing research: Concepts, procedures and measures to achieve trustworthiness. *Nurse Education Today, 24*(2), 105-112.

Greenberg, J. & Baron, R.A. (2000). *Behavior in organisations: understanding and managing the human side of work*. 7th Edition. New Jersey: Prentice Hall

Groenewald, A. & Ashfield G. (2008). When leaders are also explorers. *The Star Workplace,* 7 May, 56.

Gruban, B. (2003). Kompetence: moda, ki traja že štiri desetletja. *Finance*, *168*, 5-19.

Hammond, V. (1999). Managing change in complex environments. Orgnisations & people. *The quarterly journal of AMED 6*(2), 33-38

Hancock, B. (2002). *An introduction to qualitative research*. Division of General Practice: University of Nottingham.

Harman, G. & Harman, K. 2003. Institutional mergers in higher education: Lessons from International Experience. *Tertiary Education and Management*, *9*(1), 29-44.

Harman, K. & Meek L.V. 2002. Introduction − Merger revisited: international perspectives on mergers in higher education. *Higher Education*, *44*(1), 1-4.

Handy, G.(1993). Understanding organisations. 4th edition. London, Penguin Books.

Hans E. R.and Kasia, Z-K. (2010).The central-decentral paradox: The University as a merging organisation. Humburg university press.

Harman, K. (2002). Merging Divergent Campus Cultures into Coherent Educational Communities: Challenges for Higher Education Leaders. *Higher Education*, *44*, 91-114.

Hatton, E. J. (2002). Charles Stuart University: A case study of institutional amalgamation. *Higher Education*, *44*, 5-27.

Havenga, R. (2002). The new leadership challenge: Teaming principles with practices in times of change. *Management Today, February 2002, 4*+

Henning, E. 2004. *Finding Your Way in Qualitative Research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

.Hesketh. I. (2011). *Leading through change: To what extent is a Transformational approach appropriate during unprecedented restructuring of the Police?* Lancaster University Management School.

Higher Education Leadership and Management Programme. (2004). Retrieved August, 15, 2014 from: http://www.sauvca.org.za/keyprojects/.

Higher Education Quality Committee, (2011). *Audit report on Walter Sisulu University*. (Higher Education Quality Committee Report) (cmnd. 33) Council on Higher Education.

Hirsch, P. & Sourcey, M. (2006). Organisational restructuring and its consequences – rhetorical and structural. *Annual Review of Sociology* vol. *32*,171-189.

Howell, J. M., & Shamir, B. (2005). The role of followers in the charismatic leadership process: Relationships and their consequences. *Academy of Management Review*, *30*(1), 96-112.

Hsieh, H-F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research, 15*(9),1277-1288.

Hughes, M. 2010. *The leadership of change. In M. Hughes (Ed). Managing change: A critical perspective.* London: CIPD.

Irene, N.G., Maull, R. and Yip, N. (2009). Outcome-based Contracts as a driver for Systems thinking and Service-Dominant Logic in Service Science: Evidence from the Defence industry. *European Management Journal*, *27*, 377-387.

Ivancevich, J.M., Konopaske, R. & Matteson, M.T. (2008). *Organizational Behavior and Management*, McGraw-Hill/Irvin, Boston.

Jansen, J. (2003). *Mergers in South African higher education: Theorising change in transitional contexts*. Retrieved May 12, 2014, from http://repository.up.ac.za/xmlui/bitstream/handle/2263/118/Jansen%20(2003)a.pdf?sequence=3.

Janse van Rensburg (2001). *An Orientation to Research*. Rhodes University Environment Education Unit, Research Methods Short Course.

Johns, G. (1996). *Organizational Behavior.* HarperCollins College Publisher, N. Y.

Johnson, G., Scholes, K., & Whittington, R. (2008). *Exploring Corporate Strategy 8th Edition.* London: Pearson Education.

Jungle, D.I. & Avolio B.J. (2000). Opening the black box: An experimental investigation of the mediating effects of trust and value congruence on transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 21*, 949-964

Kast, R. E., & Rosenweig, J. E. (1972). General systems theory: Applications for organization and management. *Academy of Management Journal, 15*, 447-465.

Katz, D. K. (1966). *The Social Psychology of Organisations*. New York: Wiley.

Kawulich, B.B. (Nd). Data analysis techniques in qualitative research. State university of Georgia.

Kinicki, A. and Williams, B.K. (2003). Management. McGraw-Hill: Boston.

Kitzinger, J. (2005). The methodology of focus groups: The importance of interaction between research participants. *Sociology of Health and Illness, 16*(1), 103–121

Klenke, K. (2006). *Keeping Control in non-hierarchical organisations*. 2nd ed. Retrieved June, 11, 2014 from: http://www.ldi-intl.com.

Kotter, J.P. (n.d.) *Leadership – what is it?* Harvard business school.

Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. (2002). *Leadership challenge.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

kritsonis, A. (2005). Comparison of change theories. *International journal of scholarly academic intellectual diversity, 8*(1), 1-7.

Kruger, S. (2003). *Change dynamics: Business Management.* Unpublished Lecture notes.

Lai, A. (2011). *Transactional-transformational leadership theory.* 2011 Capstone project. Paper 17.

Lalla, V. (2009). *The impact of the merger on the employees of Tshwane University of Technology.* Unpublished Masters dissertation, Faculty of Humanities, University of Pretoria. South Africa.

Lam, Y. L., Wei, H. C. P., Pan, H. L. W., & Chan, C. M. (2002). In search of basic sources that propel organizational learning under recent Taiwanese school reforms. *The International Journal of Educational Management, 16*(5), 216-28.

Lanning, H. (2001). *Planning and implementation of change in organisations: A construct for managing change projects.* Helsinki University of Technology, Industrial Economics and Work Psychology.

Lawson, E. & Price, C. (2003). The challenge of change management. *McKensely Quarterly, 2*, 30-41.

Leanna R.C. and Barry, B. (2000). Stability and change as simultaneous experiences in organisational life. *The Academy of Management Review, 25*(4), 753–759. Retrieved June 20, 2014, from http://www.jstor.org/stable/259203

Lecompte, M.D. and Schensul, J.J. (1999). *Analysing and interpreting ethnographic data.* Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.

Le Voi, M. (2002). *Responsibilities, Rights and Ethics, in S. Potter (Ed). Doing Postgraduate Research.* London: Sage.

Lewin, J. & Johnston, W. (2000). The Impact of Downsizing and Restructuring on organisational competitiveness. *Competitiveness Review*, *January*, 65-84.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Litterer, J.A. (1969). *Organizations: Structure and Behaviour.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

LoBiondo-Wood, G. & Haber, J. (1998). 4th edition. *Nursing research: Critical appraisal, and Utilization.* Mosby: St. Louis.

Lorsch J.W. and Lawrence, P.R. (1970), *Studies in Organizational Design.* Homewood, Illinois: Irwin-Dorsey.

Mabey, C. 2007. *Fundamentals of senior management: Managing projects and change.* 3rd ed. Hobbs the printer Ltd: Hampshire. United Kingdom

Mabey, C., Salam, G. & Storey, J. (2001). *Organisational structuring and restructuring' in Salam, G. Ed. Understanding business organisations*. London Routledge.

Manktelow, J. 2011. *The Cultural web: Aligning your team's or organisation's culture with strategy. Retrieved July, 20, 2014*,

from: http://www.mindtools.com/pages/Newsletters/31May07.htm.

Mantashe, L.X. (2013). *Stakeholder perceptions on the impact of the Walter Sisulu University (WSU) Turnaround Strategy (TS), with special reference to the Divisional Management Model (DMM).* Unpublished Honours Mini-dissertation, Walter Sisulu University, Butterworth. South Africa.

Mapasela, M. & Hay, H.R. (2005). Through the magnifying glass: A descriptive theoretical analysis of possible impact of the South African higher education policies on academic staff and their job satisfaction. *Higher Education 50*, 111–128.

Retrieved: May, 29, 2014, from http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10734-004-6358-9

Martin, A. and Roodt, G. (2008) Perceptions of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions in a post-merger South African tertiary institution. *South African Journal of Engineering and Psychology*, *34*(1), 23 – 31.

Martinelli, D. P. 2001. "Systems hierarchies and management". *Systems Research and Behavioral Science*, *18*(1), 69-82.

Mayring, P. (2000). Qualitative content analysis. Forum: Qualitative Social Research, 1(2). Retrieved September, 2014, 30 from http://217.160.35.246/fqs-texte/2-00/2-00mayring-e.pdf.

Massingham, P. (2001). Australia's federated network universities: What happened?

Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, *23*(1), 19-32.

Mawila (2009). *Manifestations of race and gender equity post-merger: A case study of a merger in South African higher education*. A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctoral of Philosophy (Education) in The University of Michigan.

Mclagan, P. (2002). *Change is everybody's business*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2006). *Research in education: Evidence-Based Inquiry*. New York. Pearson Education, Inc.

Mele, C., Polese, F. (2010). Key dimensions of Service Systems: Interaction in social & technological networks to foster value co-creation, in Demirkan, H., Spohrer, J., Krishna, V. (eds.). *The Science of Service Systems*. Springer, in print.

Metcalfe, A. (1998) Alimo-Metcalfe. (1998). 360 Degree Feedback and Leadership Development. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment,* Vol 6.

Meyer, J. P and Herscovitch, L. (2001) Commitment in the workp(ace. Toward a general model. *Human Resource Management Review, 11,* 299-326.

Miller & M. S. Sidney (Eds.), *Handbook of Public Policy Analysis: Theory, Politics, and Methods,* pp. 405-416. Boca Raton: CRC/Taylor & Francis.

Miller, E. (1967). *Systems of organisation*. London: Tavistock.

Ministry of Education. (2001), *National Plan for Higher Education.* Retrieved: June, 30, 2014, from http://www.sun025.sun.ac.za/portal/page/portal/Administrative_Divisions/INB/Home/Documentation/Documentation_National/National%20Plan%20for%20Higher%20Education%20in%20South%20Africa.pdf

Mintzberg, H. (1989). *Mintzberg on Management*. The Free Press, New York.

Mmope, P.P. (2010). The role of senior managers at the North-West University in internal communication and employee engagement. *Mini-dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree.* North-West University.

Montuori, L. A. 2000. Organizational longevity. Integrating systems thinking, learning and conceptual complexity, *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 13(1), pp. 61-73.

Moran, J. W. and Brightman, B. K. (2001) Leading organizational change, *Career Development International,* 6(2),111–118.

Morgan G. (1986). *Images of organization*. London: Sage Publications.

Morgan, D.L. 2007. Paradigms Lost and Paradigms Regained: Methodological Implications of Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research.* 1(1).

Mosia, M.S. (2003). The importance of different leadership roles in the strategic management process. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Johannesburg: RAU.

Moynihan, D.P., Pandey, S.K. and Wright, B.E. (2011). Setting the Table: how Transformational leadership fosters performance information use. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory,* 1–23.

Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) *Employee-Organisation Linkages. The Psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover.* Academic Press: New York.

Mungunda, C. (2003). *An Investigation into School Principal's Experience and Perceptions of Participative Management*. Unpublished M.Ed. thesis. Grahamstown: Rhodes University.

Mullins, L.J. (2002). *Management and organisational behaviour.* 6th Edition. New York: Prentice Hall.

Nahavandi, A. and Malekzadeh, A.R. 1999. *Organisational behaviour: The personorganisation fit*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Naidu, J. and Van de Walt, M.S. (2005). An exploration of the relationship between leadership styles and the implementation of transformation interventions. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 3 (2), 1-1.*

Ncayiyana, D.J. (2011). *Report of the independent assessor into the affairs of the Walter Sisulu University, appointed by the minister of Higher Education and Training.* (Report of the independent assessor) (Cmnd 34641). Department of Higher Education and Training.

Ndlovu, N. & Parumasur, S.B. (2005). The perceived impact of downsizing and organisational transformation on survivors. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 31 (2), 14-21.

Nguni, S., Sleegers, P., & Denessen, E. (2006). Transformational and transactional leadership effects on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior in primary schools: The Tanzanian case. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement,* 17 (2), 145-177.

Nickels, J. (2002). *The Invisible Cost of Organisational Restructuring. A Theory of Disengagement.* University of Wales, College of Medicine and Centre for Health Leadership (Wales).

Nickols, F. (2010). *Change Management 101: A premier.* Retrieved: July, 24, 2014 from: http://www.nickols.us/change.pdf.

Noor, K. (2008). Case study: A strategic research methodology. *American Journal of Applied Sciences, 5*(11), 1602-1604.

Northouse P.G. (2010). *Leadership: Theory of practice*. 5th edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Northouse, P.G. (2001). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Ogunbameru, O. (2007). *Organisational Dynamics*, Ibadan, Nigeria: Spectrum Books Limited.

Oluyakode, L. (2013). Social Effects of organisational restructuring on employee workplace attitudes in selected manufacturing industries in Nigeria. *Multidisciplinary Journal, 7(3), 292-307. Retrieved July, 30, 2014 from: http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/afrrev.v7i3.21.*

Orb, A. Eisenhauer, L. & Wynaden, D. (2001). Ethics in qualitative research. *Journal of nursing*, *33*(1), 93-96.

Pagon. M, Banutai. E & Bizjak. U (2008), *Leadership competencies for successful change management*, a preliminary study report. University of Maribor, Slovenia.

Palmer, I., Dunford, R., & Akin, G. (2009). Managing Organizational Change 2nd Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Parry, K., & Sinha, P. (2005). Researching the Trainability of Transformational Organizational Leadership. *Human Resource Development International*, *8*(2), 165-183.

Paton, R.A. & McCalman, J. (2001). Change management: A guide to effective implementation. London: SAGE.

Patton, M. Q. (2001). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods (3rd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Pearce, C.L. & Sims, H.P. Jnr. (2002). Vertical versus shared leadership as predictors of the effectiveness of change management teams: An examination of Aversive, Directive, Transactional, Transformational, and Empowering leader behaviours. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research and Practice, 6*(2), 172-197.

Ponterotto, J.G. 2002. Qualitative Research Methods: The Fifth Force in Psychology. *The Counseling Psychologist, 30*(3).

Price Water Coppers. (2010). *In the eye of the storm; moving from collaboration to consolidation.* Retrieved: May, 28, 2014, from http://www.prsc-pwc.com (Accessed on 6 July 2013).

Puchta, C. and Potter, J. (2004). *Focus Group Practice*. Sage Publications.

Quillan, M. (2007). Organisational Restructuring (Downsizing OHS Regulation and Worker‘s Health and Well-being. *Working paper No. 2 – National Research Centre for OHS regulation, Australian National University. South Wales, Sydney,Australia*.

Rager, K. B. (2005). Self-care and the qualitative researcher: when collecting data can break your heart. *Educational Researcher, 34*(4), 23-27.

Rainey, H.G. (2009). *Understanding and managing public organizations*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Rice, A.K. (1970). *The Modern University* London: Tavistock Publications.

Rue, L.W. and Byars, L.L. (2003). *Management.* McGraw-Hill, Boston.

from: http://www.7.kellogg,northwestern.edu/murmann/week/10/w10a3.doc

Samuel, K. (2013). The effects of change management in a organisation: A case study of national university of Rwanda (NUR). *Wyno Journal of Management & Business Studies,* 1(1), pp. 1-18. Retrieved July, 25, 2014:

http://www.wynoacademicjournals.org/management_biz.html

Sarros, J. C., Cooper, B.K., & Santora, J.. (2008). Building a climate for innovation through transformational leadership and organizational culture. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies* 15, 145–58.

Schmid, H. (2006). Leadership styles and leadership change in human and community service organizations. *Non-profit Management and Leadership*, *17*(2), 179-194. Retrieved July 31, 2014 from: http://www.interscience.wiley.com.

Schraeder, M. & Self, D.R. (2003). Enhancing the success of mergers and acquisitions: An organisational culture perspective. *Management Decision, 41*(5), 511-522. Retrieved: May, 30, 2014, from http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00251740310479359

Schully. S. (2008). ‚Transformational leadership during transformational change. A model for leadership change. *The International Consortium for Organisational Resilience,* 1-5.

Schreier, M. (2012). Qualitative content analysis in practice. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Priest, H., Roberts, P., & Woods, L. (2002). An overview of three different approaches to the interpretation of qualitative data. *Part 1: Theoretical* issues*. Nurse Researcher, 10*(1), 30.

Schultz, C.M. (2009). Building a human resource strategy for a merging higher education institution in South Africa*. South African Journal of Labour Relations*, *33*(2), 11–18.

Scott, D. & Usher, R. (Eds). 1996. *Understanding Educational Research*. London: Routledge.

Schuller, T. (1996). *The changing university*. Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press.

Seijts, G.H. & O’Farrell. (2003). Engage the heart: Appealing to the emotions facilitates change. *Ivey Business Journal,* January/February 2003, 1-5.

Shamir, B., House, R.J. and Arthur, M.B. (1993), "The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: a self-concept based theory", Organizational Science, *4*(4), 577-94.

Shenton, A.K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness of qualitative research enquiry. *Education For Information*, *22*, 63-75.

Shneiderman, B. and Plaisant, C. (2005). *Designing the user interface - strategies for effective human-computer interaction*. 4th Edition. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Sidra, A., Zuhair, M.F., Noman, S. & Sajid, A. (n.d.). Role of Leadership in Change Management Process. *Abasyn Journal of Social Sciences,* 5(2), 111-124.

Sidumba, L. (2011). Don't close under-fire Medunsa – report. News24. Retrieved: July, 24, 2011, from http://www.news24.com/SouthAfrica/Politics/The-university-nobody-wants-to-touch-20110723-2

Skyttner, L. 1996. *General Systems Theory: An Introduction.* London: Macmillan Press, Ltd.

Smith, I. (2006). Continuing professional development and workplace learning. *Library Management*, *27(*4/5), 300-306.

Smith, J.A. and Osborn, M. 2003. Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis, in J.A. Smith (Ed.) *Qualitative Psychology: A Practical Guide to Research Methods*. London: Sage.

Society for Human Resources Management, 2007). *HR: leading people, leading organistions (Survey report)*. United States: Society of Human Management Research.

Spreitzer, A. & Mishra, A. (2002).To stay or to go: Voluntary survivor turnover following an organisational downsizing. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 23(6),* p707-729.

Stander, M.W. & Rothman, S. (2010). The relationship between leadership, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management, 7*(3), 7-13.

Steele, M. D. 2003. Margins count: systems thinking and cost. *AACE International Transactions*.

Stewart, J. (2006). Transformational leadership: An evolving concept examined through the works of Burns, Bass, Avolio, and Leithwood. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*, 54, 1-29.

Stone, A.G. (2003). Transformation versus servant leadership: a difference in leader focus. *Servant Leadership Research Roundtable,* 1-10

Struwig, F.W. & Stead, G.B. (2001). *Planning, designing and reporting research*. Cape Town: Pearson Education.

Stumpf, R.H. (2008). *Evaluation of North-West University's management model.* (Report compiled by Dr RH Stumpf, consultant at the request of NWU). September 2008. Unpublished.

Sturges, J. 2007. *Fundamentals of senior management: Managing projects and change.* 3rd edition. Hampshire. United Kingdom: Hobbs the printer Ltd.

Terr Blanch, M.T. & Durrheim, K. (1999). *Research in practice: applied methods for the social sciences.* Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Theissen, C. (2004). The impact of organisational restructuring on employee commitment at the Otago Polytechnic. An action based research report (MANT591) submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business in Management at the University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand.

Thompson, J.D. (1967). *Organizations in Action. Social Science Bases of Administrative Theory.* New York: McGraw Hill

Thorn, M. (2003). Leadership in organizations: Global leadership competencies. Retrieved March 15, 2004, from: http://www.academy.udm.edu/publication/globalleadership/marlene_htm

Tsoukas, H. and R. Chia. 2002. 'On Organizational Becoming: Rethinking Organizational Change', *Organization Science, 13*(5), 567-82.

Tucker, B. A., & Russell, R. F. (2004). The influence of the transformational leader. *Journal of Leadership &Organizational Studies, 10*(4), 103-111.

Turner, D. W., III (2010). Qualitative interview design: A practical guide for novice investigators. *The Qualitative Report*, *15*(3), 754-760. Retrieved July, 29, 2014 from: http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR15-3/qid.pdf

Van de Walt, C.F.C. (2012). [*Revised: characteristics of WSU going forward as a Unitary, Comprehensive, Multi-campus University, with a Divisional Management Approach]*. Unpublished raw document.

Van de Walt, J.N. (2005). An exploration of the relationship between leadership styles and the implementation of transformation interventions*. SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 3*(2), 1-10.

van Niekerk, M.M. (2005). *Transformational leadership at a higher education institution.* Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts. University of South Africa.

Van Rooyen, G. (2000). *Strategising and managing in a crisis: Lessons from the Public Sector. In N. Cloete, I. Bunting & T. Kulati. (Eds.). Leadership and institutional change in higher education*. Pretoria: Centre for Higher Education Transformation.

Van Straaten Theron, A. & Dodd, N.M. (2011). Organisational commitment in a post-merger situation. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences 14*(3), 333-345.

Van Tonder, C.L. (2004). *Organisational change: Theory and practice.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Van Wart, M. (2003). Public-sector leadership theory: An assessment. *Public Administration Review* 23, 214–228.

Viljoen, J.P. & Rothman, S., (2002). Transformation in a tertiary education institution: a case study. *Management Dynamics* 11(2), 2–10.

Waldman, D.A., Ramirez, G.G., House, R.J. and Puranam, P. (2001). Does leadership matter? CEO leadership attributes and profitability under conditions of perceived environmental uncertainty, *Academy of Management Journal*, *44*(1), 134-143.

Walter Sisulu University, 2012. *Turnaround strategy. Institutional strategies, goals and objectives. 1st issue. First Draft.* Walter Sisulu University.

Wang, G., et al. (2011). Transformational leadership and performance across criteria and levels: a meta-analytic review of 25 years of research. *Group and Organization Management, 36*, 233-270.

Wyngaard, A. & Kapp, C. (2004). Rethinking and reimagining mergers in further and higher education: A human perspective. *South African Journal of Higher Education* 18(1), 185–201. Retrieved: May, 28, 2014, from http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/sajhe.v18i1.25437.

Yanow, D. (2007). *Qualitative-Interpretive Methods in Policy Research*.

Yoon, S., and K. P. Kuchinke. 2005. Systems theory and technology: Lenses to analyse an organization. *Performance Improvement*, *44*(4), 15-20.

Yukl, Gary R. (2008). How leaders influence organizational effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly, 19*, 708–22.

Yukl, G. (2006). *Leadership in organisations.* 6th edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Yu, H., Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2002). The effects of transformational leadership on teachers' commitment to change in Hong Kong. *Journal of Educational Administration, 40*(4), 368-89.

Zhou, J., Plaisent, M., Zheng, L. & Bernard, P. (2014). Psychological Contract, Organizational Commitment and Work Satisfaction: Survey of Researchers in Chinese State-Owned Engineering Research Institutions. *Open Journal of Social Sciences,* 2, 217-225.

Zimmermann, C., & Fletcher, I. (2011). A standardized approach to qualitative content analysis of focus group discussions from different countries. *Patient Education and Counseling, 82*(3), 420-428.

APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

University of Fort Hare
Together In Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE
REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number:	ADU071 SMAN01
Project title:	**Understanding transition and implications of divisional management model (DMM) in a merged multi- campus institution in South African higher education**
Nature of Project:	Masters
Principal Researcher:	Lunga Xolisa Mantashe
Supervisor:	Prof EO Adu
Co-supervisor:	

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
  - o Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
  - o Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
  - o Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
  - o The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to

- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.

- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely

Professor Gideon de Wet
Dean of Research
23 September 2014

APPENDIX B: LETTER OF REQUEST OF PERMISSION TO CONDUCT THE STUDY

P.O. Box 2092
Dutywa
5000

01 September 2014

Walter Sisulu University
Nelson Mandela Drive
Eastern Cape
Mthatha
5099

Dear Vice Chancellor

Request for permission to conduct a research study

I hereby request your permission to conduct a research at your university on the topic **"Understanding transition and implications of Divisional Management Model (DMM) on the Human Resource (HR) unit in a merged multi-campus university"** in fulfilment of my Master's degree in Education (Med).

I have developed the interest to do this study for three reasons:

- Management of change during a transitional period is undoubtedly a complicated phenomenon because it requires restructuring of the organisation and people. This creates uncertainty, fear, stress, staff turnover, psychological contract issues and other issues related to organisational commitment
- As a person who was a student in the university for six years and, in addition an SRC for 4 years, I have since became attached to the institution both as a student, leader of students and general human being within the community of your university. I have sought to make it my business to want to contribute by conducting this study and produce a sound scientific understanding of

transition from unitary to divisional system of management which I believe would help the institution pursue its change effectively.

- I believe that the university will benefit profoundly from the outcomes of the study, particularly because the latter touches on the sensitive aspect of HR unit which is a constituent element that is at the centre of implementation of the DMM. Moreover, a more scientific outcome can facilitate understanding of workers, through their representatives, and the extent to which the university still has to go in order to ensure successful implementation of the DMM.

NB: All ethical considerations relating to the name of the institution, autonomy, privacy and voluntary participation will be strictly adhered to. Moreover, the outcomes of the study will be made available to your university after the completion of my study. Such a study will have most informed recommendations for the university.

Your permission for me to conduct the study will make me more than elated to engage in the exciting process of producing scientifically underpinned outcomes.

Yours faithfully

………………..

Lunga Mantashe

Researcher full name	: Lunga Xolisa Mantashe
Qualification	: Master of Education
Student number	: 2014 15641
Cell number	: 078 3999 162
Email address	: lungas133@webmail.co.za

Supervisor	: Professor E. Adu
Email address	: EAdu@ufh.ac.za
Cell number	: 084 9251 948

APPENDIX C: PERMISSION FROM THE UNIVERSITY TO CONDUCT THE STUDY

NB: the approval to collect data was given in an e-mail thread by the university **DVC: Academic** office. Thus, appropriate alignments and adaptations to the thread were made to make it readable.

>>>ReynoldSonn 01/13/15 11:40 AM >>>
Dear Prof Songca

Compliments of the season. Hope 2015 will be better than 2014 and that the huge task you have to drive the process of change at the university will really bear some fruits.

I am forwarding this email from Mr Mantashe for your attention. As I have indicated before all ethical issues have been looked at and we found the study in order. Further to that I am requested to serve as co-supervisor and I made sure that no harm will be caused to the good name of the institution. Mr Mantashe's supervisor has indicated that he is expected to hand in the work at the end of January. The problem is that he may loose the bursary if he does not finish in time.

I hereby request your good office to grant him the permission to finish the outstanding interviews. Hope you will find this in order and he will hear from you soon.

Regards

Ray Sonn

PROFESSOR R.A. SONN
DEAN FACULTY OF EDUCATION
BUTTERWORTH CAMPUS
PRIVATE BAG X3182
BUTTERWORTH 4960
Office Telephone: 047-4016115
0822021072 or 08339912991
Email: rsonn@wsu.ac.za or reynold.sonn27@yahoo.com
FAX: 0866296253
>>> Sandile Songca 01/13/15 12:24 PM >>>

Dear Prof. Sonn
I wish to give my approval for the required data collection.
Prof. SPSongca

On Tue, Jan 13, 2015 at 12:27 PM, Reynold Sonn <rsonn@wsu.ac.za> wrote:
Thank you Prof. Much appreciated.

PROFESSOR R.A. SONN
DEAN FACULTY OF EDUCATION
BUTTERWORTH CAMPUS
PRIVATE BAG X3182
BUTTERWORTH 4960
Office Telephone: 047-4016115
0822021072 or 08339912991
Email: rsonn@wsu.ac.za or reynold.sonn27@yahoo.com
FAX: 0866296253

CERTIFICATION

This document hereby certifies that

Chapters 1-5 of thesis

Written by

Lunga Mantashe

Has been professionally proofread by
Lauren Wainwright
(BA Languages & Literature)

28 March 2015