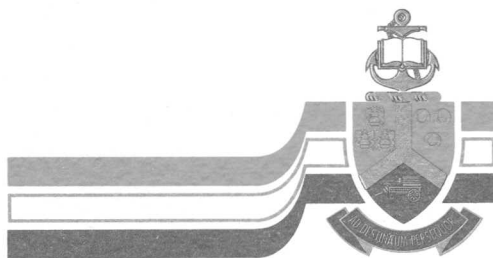


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**DEMOKRATIESE BESTUUR: 'N VERKENNING VAN
SLEUTELBEGRIPPE EN DIE IMPLIKASIES DAARVAN VIR DIE
BESTUUR VAN 'N AKADEMIESE UNIVERSITEITSDEPARTEMENT**

PROFESSOR JOHANNES LODEWYK BECKMANN



Universiteit van Pretoria

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ABBREVIATED CURRICULUM VITAE

JOHANNES LODEWYK BECKMANN

Johannes Lodewyk Beckmann was born in Koppies in the Free State province of South Africa on 16 March 1948.

He completed his school education at the Parys High School. After that he obtained the BA degree at the PU for CHE, the Transvaal Higher Education Diploma at the Potchefstroom Teachers' College, the BEd and MED degrees at the Rand Afrikaans University and the DEd at the University of Pretoria.

He began teaching in 1971 and progressed to the rank of vice-principal of a combined high and primary school before he commenced duties as senior professional officer of the South African Teachers' Council in 1980. He was promoted to deputy registrar and when this Council and the Federal Council of Teachers' Associations were amalgamated in the Teachers' Federal Council, he was promoted to deputy director. In 1992 he was appointed as full professor in the Department of Education Management and Fundamental Pedagogics (at present Education Management) at the University of Pretoria. Since 1 May 1999 he has been the head of department of the Department of Education Management.

Prof Beckmann is registered with the South African Council for Educators (SACE) as an educator and is a member of 7 professional subject associations, including 3 overseas associations.

Prof Beckmann held various leadership positions including member of the Students' Representative Council of the Potchefstroom Teachers' College, chairperson of the South African Association for Education Law and Policy, director of the Interuniversity Centre for Education Law and Education Policy, chairperson of an interest group of the Education Association of South Africa, member of the Executive Committee of the Education Management Association of South Africa, vice-chairperson of the governing body of a school. He was convener, co-ordinator or chairperson of 6 structures of the Faculty of Education and chairperson of the University of Pretoria task team on multiculturalism on the campus. In addition, he is the South African co-ordinator of two joint South Africa-Canada projects on Education Management Development.

Prof Beckmann was also member of 30 other committees, commissions

and investigations of state departments, the organised teaching profession and ministers.

He received grants for visits and conferences abroad from the Centre for Science Development, the University of Pretoria, National Private Colleges, the Flemish government, the Interuniversity Centre for Education Law (ICOR) in Antwerp, the European Educational Law and Policy Association and the Canada-South Africa Education Management Project. He is mentioned in two authoritative South African publications for his contribution to the philosophy of education. The New-Zealand Educational Management Association has invited him to deliver a keynote address at their national conference in 2002.

Since 1992 prof Beckmann has presided at 5 international conferences in South African and has been a functionary or presenter at a further 18 international conferences abroad and in South Africa. He has also read 18 papers at other national and regional conferences in South Africa.

Prof Beckmann contributed to 7 books as co-author. He was also the author or co-author of 10 accredited journal articles and co-author of 3 articles in overseas refereed journals. 11 other articles and 3 refereed international conference contributions were written by him. Through the years he has appeared on various radio programmes and his views were reported in various newspapers. He is a member of the editorial boards of various academic journals and acted as guest editor for a special edition of the Education Law Journal in Canada. He was author or co-author of 11 research reports. 10 doctoral and masters students have already completed their studies under his supervision while he has acted as external examiner for 30 masters and doctoral students. He also acted as evaluator of an academic department at a South African University.

He is married to Niekie Mears (maths teacher) and they have 2 children: a son (Arthur) of 24 years who is a computer programmer after obtaining a degree in Informatics at the University of Pretoria and a daughter of 22 years (Cathy) who is a final year student in industrial engineering at the University of Pretoria.

**DEMOKRATIESE BESTUUR: 'N VERKENNING VAN SLEUTELBE-
GRIPPE EN DIE IMPLIKASIES DAARVAN VIR DIE BESTUUR VAN 'N
AKADEMIESE UNIVERSITEITSDEPARTEMENT /
DEMOCRATIC MANAGEMENT: AN EXPLORATION OF SOME KEY
CONCEPTS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF
A UNIVERSITY ACADEMIC DEPARTMENT**

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1 INLEIDING

Op 27 April 1994 is die eerste demokratiese verkiesings in Suid-Afrika gehou. Demokraties-verkose verteenwoordigers van die mense het kort daarna hulle plekke ingeneem in 'n demokratiese nasionale vergadering en 'n demokraties-onderhandelde grondwet het in werking getree. Die Nasionale Vergadering en die demokratiese wetgewende strukture in die provinsiale sfeer van regering het begin met hulle taak om demokratiese wetgewing daar te stel om Suid-Afrika demokraties transformeer. Terselfdertyd het die demokratiese transformasie van onderwys (insluitende hoër onderwys) in alle erns begin.

Die vaagheid omtrent die betekenis van die woord "demokrasie" (soos hierbo geïllustreer) is nie verbasend nie. Sono (1993:3) stel dat 300 definisies van die woord "demokrasie" in 1960 in 'n studie gevind is, "each at odds with the other."

Hoë verwagtinge is gekoester van die demokrasie om mense te bevry van die boeie van die verlede, om wanbalanse van die verlede reg te stel, om die behoeftes van die mense te bevredig en om 'n tydperk te begin waar die mense werklik sou regeer. In Suid-Afrika het dit op daardie tydstip toepaslik gelyk om Lucas (1965) se verwysing na gelykheid (aangehaal in Beckmann, Bray, Foster, Maile, Smith & Squelch 2000:13) soos volg aan te pas om na demokrasie te verwys:

Democracy is the great political issue of our time ... The demand for democracy obsesses all our political thought. We are not sure what it is ... but we are sure that whatever it is, we want it.

Soos die tyd verbygegaan het, het 'n mate van ontnugtering met die resultate van demokrasie ingetree. In hierdie verband is die Suid-Afrikaanse ondervinding nie anders as dié van nuwe of jong demokrasieë wat ontdek

het dat demokrasie as sodanig nie die buitensporig hoë eise wat daarvan gekoester is kon realiseer nie. Lee (1990:162) merk op dat Suid-Korea uitgevind het dat mense

need to be educated as strong-willed democratic nationalists ready to reject all kinds of imperialistic intervention, to abolish mechanisms of class oppression ...

'n Globale gevoel van teleurstelling is duidelik uit 'n opmerking van Diamond, Plattner en Schedler (in Schedler, Diamond & Plattner 1999:1):

The contemporary wave of transitions from authoritarian rule has swept more countries than ever before to the promised land of democracy. But now that these polities have reached the democratic shores, often after years of intense struggle, they are discovering that they cannot just lean back, relax and enjoy the democratic sun. Instead, they find themselves haunted by old demons that they had hoped to exorcise with democratic rule: violations of human rights, corruption ...

Politieke demokrasie lei nie noodwendig tot demokrasie in ander sferes soos bestuur nie. "[T]he exercise of participation in the political sphere does not guarantee its transference to other institutions, particularly, educational institutions" (Mosoge & Van der Westhuizen 1995:200).

2 STRUKTUUR VAN DIE REDE

Om enkele relevante sleutelbegrippe te kan verken en die implikasies daarvan vir bestuur in 'n universiteitsomgewing te ondersoek, sal die volgende aangeleenthede in die rede hanteer word:

- * Die konteks waarbinne die aangeleenthede ondersoek word
- * Die politieke oorsprong van die woord "demokrasie" en verwysings daarna in bepalings van die Grondwet van die Republiek van Suid-Afrika, Wet 108 van 1996 (Republiek van Suid Afrika 1996b)
- * "Demokrasie" en verwante konsepte onder andere in wetlike bepalings rakende hoër onderwys in Suid-Afrika
- * "Bestuur" en "demokratiese bestuur"
- * Bepaalde sleutelwoorde wat met die konsep "bestuur" verband hou
- * Die voordele en nadele van demokratiese bestuur
- * Enkele implikasies van demokratiese bestuur vir 'n akademiese universiteitsdepartement

3 KONTEKSTUALISERING VAN DIE DEBAT

Die bespreking van demokratiese bestuur verwys na Suid-Afrika, 'n land in transformasie. Mncwabe (1993:198) stel dat die vertrekpunt van alle debat-

te is om Suid-Afrika 'n demokratiese samelewing te maak – iets wat dit nie voor 1994 was nie. (Dit is seker moontlik dat daar tussen die 300 definisies waarna Sono in 1993 verwys het een sal wees wat die situasie in Suid-Afrika voor 1994 sal dek.)

Die ondersoek handel oor bestuur in 'n onderwysomgewing, spesifiek in hoër onderwys en, meer besonder, in 'n akademiese departement aan 'n universiteit. Dit gaan oor die bestuur van hoogs-geskoolde professionele persone wat verantwoordelik is vir komplekse take. Die vertrekpunt is dat bestuur die wyse waarop 'n eenheid soos 'n akademiese departement sy kernbesigheid bedryf, moet verbeter. Dit moet daarom help om die onderwys-, opleidings-, navorsings- en gemeenskapsdiensfunksies van 'n akademiese departement te optimeer.

Hierdie rede verken die konsep "demokrasie" met verwysing na praktiese bestuursbeginsels en -prosesse. Dit wil ook help om riglyne vir die inkorporering van demokratiese waardes en beginsels in bestuurspraktyke te ontwikkel. Hierdie riglyne kan ook geïnkorporeer word in instrumente wat gebruik kan word in self-, eweknie- en ondergeskikte assessering van bestuursprestasie.

Die rede bemoei hom nie met voorkeur vir terme wat in hierdie verband gebruik kan word nie soos "demokratiese bestuur", "bestuur in 'n demokrasie", "bestuur in 'n demokratiese omgewing", "die demokratiese bestuurder", "demokratiese leierskap" of "die demokratiese leier" nie. Dit wil net begin om die buitelyne van bestuurspraktyke en -ideale wat gebaseer is op die demokratiese beginsels en waardes wat in besonder van toepassing is op 'n akademiese departementshoof aan 'n universiteit, te skets. Dit moet nou reeds beklemtoon word dat besondere klem gelê moet word op die realisering van demokratiese waardes in en deur bestuur.

4 'n VERKENNING VAN DIE KONSEP "DEMOKRASIE"

4.1 Algemene terminologie

Beane en Apple (1995:5) wys daarop dat kernbegrippe en etiese ankers geneig is om verander te word in "rhetorical slogans and political codes to gain popular support for all manner of ideas". Aspin (1995:37) merk op dat "democratic management" 'n voorbeeld is van 'n slagspreuk wat bedoel is om dieselfde uitwerking as 'n morele opgawe te hê. Aspin (1995:30-31) sê verder dat dat wetgewers, burokrate en administrateurs die retoriek van demokratisering gebruik as "a self-evident warrant by which they can claim

authority for their proposals and plans.” Gevolglik beskou sommige mense om iets ondemokraties te doen of, meer nog, om ondemokraties te wees, as doodsondes.

In 'n rede soos hierdie moet mens uit die gemaksones van slagspreuke rakende demokratiese bestuur beweeg om die betekenis daarvan te kan verken. Daarvoor moet 'n mens eerstens kyk na demokratiese Athene.

Ober (1989:3-10) verduidelik dat die Griekse woord *demokratia* letterlik beteken: “Die mense (*demos*) het die politieke mag (*kratos*) in die staat.” Dit gee aanleiding tot die vraag of slagspreuke soos “Power to the people” en “The people shall govern” toepaslik is. Mens kan redeneer dat die mense reeds die mag het en dat hulle slegs die mag aan iemand anders gee om dit namens hulle uit te oefen.

In Athene was die Vergadering die belangrikste besluitmakende liggaam. Dit was oop vir almal en het veertig keer per jaar vergader om oor staatsbeleid te debatteer en besluite daarvoor te neem. Enige burger kon die Vergadering daarvoor adviseer. 'n Raad (*boule*), bestaande uit 500 burgerlikes (wat jaarliks deur die lot aangewys is), het agendas vir die Vergaderings opgestel. Besluite van die Vergadering het onmiddellik die volle gesag van die reg gehad. Athene kan daarom beskou word as 'n direkte demokrasie omdat alle burgers gelyke geleenthede gehad het om staatsbeleid te beïnvloed.

Du Plessis (1999:1) suggereer dat demokrasie as meer as net die reg om te stem beskou moet word. Dit moet beskou word as 'n verhouding tussen burgers en die staat waarin elke burger onder normale omstandighede verseker is van 'n **permanente** reg om deel te neem aan die politieke proses. Toegepas op hierdie rede, verwys dit na 'n reg op gereelde deelname aan besluitneming.

Blom (1999:11) sê dat “demokrasie” konseptueel en etimologies 'n **vorm van regering** aandui. Sy beskou demokrasie ook as 'n **lewenswyse** wat die gelykheid en waardigheid van alle persone erken, wat vryheid van spraak en godsdiens voorsien en wat gebaseer is op bespreking en toestemming, gesag van onder en gelykheid. Dit is ook 'n **bestuursbeginsel** in die vorm van 'n organisatoriese beginsel wat gekenmerk word deur 'n besondere wyse van besluitneming.

De Vries (1995:12) wys daarop dat die betekenis van die begrip “demokrasie” verbreed is en dat dit nou verwys na 'n lewenswyse en nie

slegs na 'n vorm van regering nie. In 'n opvoedkundige sin word demokrasie nie gesien as 'n doel op sigself nie maar as 'n middel tot 'n uiteindelijke doel naamlik om te help om by leerders op alle vlakke 'n demokratiese manier van lewe te vestig.

4.2 Aanduidings uit die Grondwet en ander wetgewing

4.2.1 Die Grondwet van die RSA, Wet 108 van 1996

Volgens die Voorrede of Aanhef is die Grondwet aangeneem om:

Die verdeeldheid van die verlede te heel en 'n samelewing gegrond op **demokratiese** waardes, maatskaplike geregtigheid en basiese menseregte te skep;

Die grondslag te lê vir 'n **demokratiese** en oop samelewing waarin regering gegrondves is op die wil van die bevolking en elke burger gelyk deur die reg beskerm word;

Die lewensgehalte van alle burgers te verhoog en die potensiaal van elke mens te ontsluit; en

'n Verenigde en **demokratiese** Suid-Afrika te bou wat sy regmatige plek as 'n soewereine staat in die gemeenskap van nasies kan inneem...

Artikel 1 van die Grondwet bepaal dat die Republiek van Suid-Afrika 'n soewereine demokratiese staat gevestig op die volgende beginsels is:

- (a) Menswaardigheid, die bereiking van **gelykheid** en die uitbou van menseregte en vryhede.
- (b) Nie-rassigheid en nie-seksisme.
- (c) Die oppergesag van die grondwet en die heerskappy van die reg.
- (d) Algemene stemreg vir volwassenes, 'n nasionale gemeenskaplike kieserslys, **gereelde verkiesings** en 'n veelparty-stelsel van **demokratiese** regering, om **verantwoordingspligtigheid**, 'n **responsiewe ingesteldheid**, en **openheid** te verseker.

Dit is betekenisvol dat die woord “demokraties” ses keer in die bostaande uittreksels voorkom. Dit beklemtoon dat demokrasie en gepaardgaande waardes bedoel is om die sentrale waardes in alle aspekte van die Suid-Afrikaanse samelewing (insluitende die bestuur van organisasies en komponente van die onderwysstelsel in Suid-Afrika) te wees.

4.2.2 Groenskrif oor Hoër Onderwys (HO), 1996

Die konteks van hierdie rede regverdig 'n verkenning van beleid en wetgewing rakende Hoër Onderwys. Tabel 1 hieronder toon aspekte van demokrasie wat aangeraak word in die Groenskrif oor Hoër Onderwys (Departement van Onderwys 1996) aan.

Par	Aspek van demokrasie wat aangeraak word
2.1.3	HO dra by tot 'n demokratiese etos en 'n bewustheid van burgerskap
3.3	HO moet 'n demokratiese etos en kultuur van menseregte ondersteun deur toepaslike praktyke en programme
4	Demokratisering en openbare aanspreeklikheid moet die transformasie van HO rig
4.7	Openbare verantwoordingspligtigheid rakende besluitneming en besteding van fondse
5.5	Deursigtige bestuur moet 'n nasionale doel van HO wees. Op die institusionele vlak moet die filosofie en prosedures van demokratisering geïnkorporeer word in transformasie en in beheerstrukture

Tabel 1: Aspekte van demokrasie wat aangeraak word in die Groenskrif op Hoër Onderwys (HO)

Par 4.2 van die Groenskrif bevat 'n rigtinggewende interpretasie van die beginsel van "demokratisering" en dui die praktiese implikasies daarvan vir Hoër Onderwys soos volg aan:

The principle of democratisation requires that governance of the system of higher education and of individual institutions should be **democratic, representative and participatory**. Structures and procedures should ensure that *those affected by decisions have a say in making them*, either directly or through elected representatives. It requires that decision-making processes are **transparent**, and that those taking and implementing decisions are **accountable** for the manner in which they perform their duties and use resources.

4.2.3 Wet op Hoër Onderwys, Wet 101 van 1997

Die Voorrede (Aanhel) tot hierdie Wet bevestig dat dit wenslik is om die waardes wat 'n oop en demokratiese samelewing gebaseer op menswaardigheid, gelykheid en vryheid ondersteun, te bevorder. Dit beklemtoon ook die wenslikheid daarvan om demokrasie, akademiese vryheid en vryheid van uitdrukking te respekteer en aan te moedig. Dit is in ooreenstemming met die besluite van die World Conference on Higher Education wat in 1999 in Parys gehou is. Hierdie konferensie het die opvoedkundige missie van hoër onderwys as die bevordering van demokrasie beklemtoon en dit het ook demokrasie geïdentifiseer as een van die vier aspekte van die nasionale, streeks- en internasionale konteks waarbinne hoër onderwys opereer (Van Zyl 2000:2).

4.2.4 Samevatting

Dit wil voorkom of die volgende sentrale konsepte in demokratiese regering en instellings (organisasies) is: deelname, mag, gesag, verteenwoordigendheid, konsultasie, vryheid, besluitneming, openheid (deursigtigheid), gelykheid en verantwoordingspligtigheid. As demokratiese regeringsinstellings hierdie konsepte moet reflekteer, moet demokratiese bestuur dit sekerlik ook reflekteer.

5 'n VERKENNING VAN DIE BEGRIPPE "BESTUUR" EN "DEMOKRATIESE BESTUUR"

6.1 Bestuur

(In die bespreking hieronder word die konsepte "bestuur", "leierskap" en "toesig" saamgegroepeer vir besprekingsdoeleindes.)

Oldroyd, Elsner en Poster (1996:37) definieer leierskap as die proses wat volgeling op 'n bepaalde wyse rig in die nastrewing van 'n visie, missie of doelstellings en in die maak, implementering en evaluering van beleid. **Bestuur** word deur hierdie outeurs gedefinieer as die strukture vir, en prosesse van, beplanning, koördinerende en rig van die aktiwiteite van mense, departemente of organisasies (Oldroyd et al. 1996:40).

Anderson en Grindberg (1998:332) vestig die aandag op die baie belangrike feit dat bestuur ook verwys na gesag en beheer oor mense en aktiwiteite. Hulle wys daarop dat dit ook verband hou met die "elements of social relations that control, govern, and normalize [internalise norms regarding] individual and collective behavior." Hulle bring 'n interessante aspek wat verband hou met bestuur in 'n omgewing soos 'n universiteit na vore (Anderson & Grindberg 1998:334). Hulle verwys naamlik na Foucault se stelling dat gesag nie iets is wat uitgeoefen word nie maar dat dit ingebed is in verhoudings. Dit impliseer dat die bestuurder slegs sodanige mag as wat ontleen kan word aan die verhouding tussen hom/haarself en die bestuurdes en tussen die bestuurdes as 'n groep, kan uitoefen. Institusionele verhoudings word dus 'n vorm van regulering van dink en doen. (Die uitdrukking "die bestuurdes" word doelbewus gebruik omdat die toepaslikheid van woorde soos "volgeling" en "ondergeskikte" in 'n akademiese omgewing bevestigte kan word.)

Anderson en Grindberg (1998:334) haal ook die Engelse filosoof Jeremy Bentham se konsep van die "panopticon" aan in hulle bespreking van die

idee van gesag of mag wat gegeneer word in en deur verhoudings (Anderson & Grindberg 1998:334). "Panoptic" beteken letterlik "om alles te sien" (Microsoft Encarta 1998) en 'n "panopticon" is 'n (werk)plek wat só ontwerp en gebou is dat 'n toesighouer altyd alles wat almal in die gebou doen vanuit 'n sentrale toring, kan sien:

All that is needed then is to place a supervisor in a central tower and to shut up in each cell a madman, a patient, a condemned man, a worker, or a school boy ... hence the major effect of the Panopticon: to induce in the inmate a state of conscious and permanent visibility that assures the automatic functioning of power. So to arrange things ... that the perfection of power should tend to render its actual exercise unnecessary ...

Wat Jeremy Bentham dus suggereer is dat dit moontlik is dat bestuurdes gerig kan word deur mag en beginsels wat vanuit hulleself kom en dat gesag nie deur 'n bestuurder uitgeoefen hoef te word nie.

Uit die bogenoemde kan mens aflei dat bestuur verband hou met die uitoefening van mag of gesag oor 'n groep om bepaalde doelstellings te realiseer. Dit handel ook oor die gebruik van verhoudings, strukture en aktiwiteite en is nie noodwendig afhanklik van gesag wat deur die bestuurder self uitgeoefen word nie.

6.2 Demokratiese bestuur

Strike (1993:256-261) kontrasteer demokratiese bestuur met burokratisering en nie-profesionaliteit. Beetham (1987:1) beskryf 'n burokrasie soos volg:

Bureaucracy is something we all love to hate. It presents simultaneously the contradictory images of bungling inefficiency and threatening power. Incompetence, red tape, and feather-bedding on the one side; manipulation, obstructionism and Byzantine intrigue on the other: there is almost no evil that has not at some time been debited to its account.

As 'n vertrekpunt kan mens aanvaar dat demokratiese bestuur veronderstel is om die teenoorgestelde van burokratiese beheer te wees.

Luthans (1995:343-345) sê onder andere dat drie **bestuurstyle** naamlik demokratiese, outokratiese en *laissez faire* kan onderskei word. Hy identifiseer ook vier **bestuurstelsels** waarvan een 'n demokratiese stelsel is (Luthans 1995:377).

In die lig van konstitusionele opgawes en in die huidige klimaat van transformasie in Suid-Afrika is 'n demokratiese styl of stelsel van bestuur waarskynlik nie slegs 'n alternatief wat bestuurders volgens keuse sou kon gebruik nie. Dit is waarskynlik dat dit nader aan 'n verpligte benadering tot

bestuur sal wees veral in 'n omgewing soos in 'n universiteit waar die bestuurdes hoogsgevoel is en waar daar verantwoordingspligtigheid vir die gebruik van regeringsfondse is.

In die paragrafe hieronder sal 'n aantal van die essensiële elemente van demokratiese bestuur belig word.

Deelname

McLennan (in Beckmann **et al.** 2000:6) beklemtoon dat toepaslike praktyke, norme, prosedures en taal om deelname in [onderwys]bestuur te medieer of moontlik te maak, ontwikkel moet word. Sodanige deelname was voorheen grootliks afwesig in onderwysbestuur.

Desentralisasie

Roos (2000) definieer devolusie as "the temporary delegation from the centre of those aspects of authority and responsibility that senior management currently thinks it can't be bothered with." Alhoewel sy definisie bedoel is om lighartig te wees toon dit ongemaklike ooreenkomste met wat uit die literatuur in hierdie verband na vore kom (kyk paragraaf 7.2 hieronder).

Volgens Beckmann en Blom (2000:2-3) behels demokrasie in bestuur die devolusie van mag en gesag. Devolusie of desentralisasie van gesag behels die verskuiwing van besluitneming na die laagste toepaslike vlak. Dit is daarop gerig om organisasies te transformeer sodat toepaslike persone aan besluitneming wat hulle raak, kan deelneem. Chapman (in Chapman, Froumin & Aspin 1995:11), Chamley, McFarlane, Young en Caprio (1992:2) en Angus (in Smyth 1993:22) lewer almal kommentaar op die betekenis van desentralisering. Aspin (in Chapman **et al.** 1993:30) voeg by dat desentralisering die gee van "most of the power to those whose interests are most directly affected by it", behels.

Verantwoordingspligtigheid

Die aangeleentheid van verantwoordingspligtigheid vir die uitoefening van gesag, gebruik van bronne en implementering van beleid is nou verbonde aan demokratiese bestuur. Dit word beklemtoon onder andere deur Beckmann en Blom (2000:1, 12) en sal in groter besonderhede in paragraaf 6.2 hieronder bespreek word.

Bestuurstrukture

Spicer (in Chapman **et al.** 1995:132) dui aan dat demokratiese bestuur die begrip van "flatter, more participative structures with great emphasis on the role of the team" insluit. Tipiese hiërgiesse strukture met baie verskillende, geslote vlakke van bestuur ondersteun demokratiese bestuur nie weselik nie. Daar moet minder vlakke van bestuur en meer deelname deur rolspelers op elke vlak wees.

Samevatting

Bray (1999:3) verwys na die kern van demokratiese bestuur met die opmerking dat alle handeling en optrede in Suid-Afrika uit die waardes van gelykheid en vryheid en die noodsaaklikheid daarvan om mense altyd billik en redelik te behandel, moet voortspruit. Rautenbach en Malherbe (1999:7) stem saam dat demokratiese bestuur en aktiwiteite uitdrukking moet gee aan demokratiese waardes anders kan dit nie aan demokratiese kriteria voldoen nie.

Blom (1999:12) beklemtoon dat demokrasie (*in casu* demokratiese bestuur) in besonder gekarakteriseer word deur die manier waarop besluitneming geskied. Sy definieer daarom demokratiese bestuur as 'n "management principle based on the right of all individuals to co-determine and influence, in freedom and equality, workplace policies and procedures. This right to participate is coupled with associated obligations of responsibility to all affected by these policies. It is characterised by the way in which decision-making procedures are conducted."

Twee van die verpligtinge wat gekoppel word aan die reg om deel te neem is "verantwoordingspligtigheid" en "deursigtigheid" (McLennan in Beckmann **et al.** (2000), Beckmann & Blom (2000), Dorn (1998), Blom (1999), Schedler (in Schedler **et al.** (1999)), Wagner (1989), Scott (1994), Deem (1994), Edwards (1991), Bray (1999), Vattimo (1992) en Departement van Onderwys (1996)). Hierdie twee begrippe sal saam met "deelname" bespreek word as die sleutelemente van die begrip "demokratiese bestuur".

6 SOME KEY CONCEPTS: "PARTICIPATION", "ACCOUNTABILITY" AND "TRANSPARENCY"

6.1 Participation

Roos (2000) describes participation as "an organisational system whereby you as a manager try to implicate as many staff as possible in the decision-making process. You then have scapegoats readily available when decisions are seen to have had catastrophic consequences and the inevitable panic and hunt for the guilty parties ensues. This process is best summed up in the injunction to 'round up the usual suspects'."

This definition is also intended to be light-hearted but, once again, it is often borne out by reality (see par 7.2 below).

Deem (1994:58) contends that there are two models underpinning participation in management and administration. One stresses the significance of democracy, public accountability and collective concerns in terms of the *collective concerns ideology*. The other emphasises markets, competition, consumer rights and private interests and is referred to as the *consumer interest ideology*. It would appear that both concerns underpin participative decision making in universities.

Beckmann and Blom (2000:1) describe the facilitation of increased participation in decision making as the key objective of democratic management. White (1983:25) says that participation ensures that the likelihood of an individual's interests being ignored is minimised by the process of participation.

Blom (1999:14) points out that participation is about the right to have a part in or take part in decision-making processes within an organisation. She comments that it is about the right to be included and about the involvement of persons in a group situation to contribute to decisions and share responsibility for them. Involvement implies either physical presence at, or an opportunity to provide input during, decision-making processes. Participating builds a sense of belonging, honouring the thinking and actions of others. It is central to the development of trust within a workplace or organisation without which no leader can operate properly. She also alludes to the fact that participation implies weak outside control, collective inside decisions, flat internal structures and control from below.

Decision-making areas that are suited to participative decision making

Mosoge and Van der Westhuizen (1997:197, 199) did research which

revealed participation saturation among educators regarding decision making on certain "technical issues" while the desire for participation regarding matters such as fiscal management and personnel selection was not satisfied. They also indicate that the following areas, among others, could allow participative decision making: policy changes, setting assessment standards, orientation of new staff members, determining in-service needs, setting codes of conduct, determining goals and objectives and setting work standards.

Matthai, Pareek and Rao (1992:37) believe that decision making in universities may concern matters such as objectives (goals), policies, procedures, things and persons. According to them (Matthai *et al.* 1992:39) there are **four types of decisions** to be made in universities: directional (to guide activities), administrative, entrepreneurial and academic administration.

Which stake-holders need to be involved in participative decision making?

Aspin (in Chapman *et al.* 1995:30) makes a general statement about democracy which may well serve as a guideline regarding what people to involve in participative decision making. He makes the practical observation that democratisation is about giving "most of the power to those whose interests are most directly affected by it".

Various authors have commented on the lack of participation on the part of those affected by decision making generally and in South Africa in particular, among them Squelch (in Lemmer 1999:128-130), Hoy and Tarter (1993), Strike (1993:270) and Matthai *et al.* (1992).

Pampallis (in Education Policy Unit 1998:91) refers to the tension between the imperatives that the "masses" (*in casu* the managed) should participate and that the democratically elected should determine policy. (The word "masses" would seem to be inappropriate in a higher education context.) Sithole (in Education Policy Unit 1998:107-110), for instance, argues that learners should participate equally in school governance and rejects arguments that would restrict their participation. (It is interesting to note that subsequent legislation (the South African Schools Act, 84 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa 1996) did place restrictions on the participation of learners in public school governing bodies (section 32)).

It would thus seem to be fair to assume that not all involved in education at a particular institution need to be involved in decision making and that those

who are involved do not always need to participate equally. It would appear that, in a university academic department, the stake-holders in decision making could include: the departmental head, lecturers, administrative staff, other university staff who possess knowledge relevant to the decision to be made, the department's client base, partners of the department, policy makers in state departments of education, etc.

Influences on the effects of participation

Van Oostrum and Rabbie (1995) investigated factors that influence the effect of participation in decision making on task satisfaction and performance. They found that democratic organisations were characterised by greater task satisfaction. They found even higher satisfaction in democratic organisations where there were co-operative (as opposed to competitive) intergroup relationships. It was, however, found that productivity was higher in more autocratic organisations in regard to routine, low complexity level tasks.

Can there be too much participation?

Hoy and Tarter (1993:4) discuss circumstances under which participation in decision making is indicated or not indicated. They comment that always "involving subordinates [in decision making] is as short-sighted as never involving them." Participation in decision making (PDM) can improve the quality of decisions and promote co-operation if the right strategy is linked to the right situation." A decision on subordinate involvement is therefore best made using a contingency model.

They come to the conclusion that participative (collaborative) decision making is called for when people have expertise regarding the decision to be made, when it is relevant to them, when they have a personal stake in the decision and when they are committed to a sound decision. Where all the elements are present, "the only issue ... is whether the decision should be a product of total consensus (*a consensual situation*) or a simple majority (*a majoritarian situation*)." However desirable it is, consensus is not usually realistic. "When the decision requires total acceptance (by law or for successful implementation), an administrator must hold out for unanimity. These situations are rare. More commonly, teachers and administrators seek a democratic solution" (Hoy & Tarter 1993:8).

Hoy and Tarter (1993:14) suggest that, before expecting people to be involved in participation in decision making, one should consider four questions:

- 1) Does the decision to be made fall within the specific person's zone of acceptance (the zone of decision making where a person accepts decisions unquestioningly and is indifferent to them)?
- 2) Does the person have particular expertise regarding the matter?
- 3) Is the matter relevant to the person?
- 4) Does the person have a personal stake in the issue and is he or she therefore committed to a sound decision on the issue?

If the answer to the first question is positive and the answers to the remaining three questions are negative, it makes no sense to involve such a person in a decision-making process.

Opponents of participative decision making often invoke the spectre of too many meetings and too many committees and not enough work getting done in an organisation. Strike (1993:270) calls this fear a hybrid vision of democracy emanating from the works of Locke and Habermas which can be seen as "an invitation to create institutions where there is no end to discussion and in which consensus is likely to be a product of fatigue more than persuasion."

Administrative leadership and delegation of routine decisions are never precluded. "An idea is not delegitimated because it originated with an administrator. Nor is consultation needed about pencil orders and the deployment of toilet paper." It is important for the success of deliberative communities that deliberation not be endless as the ideal of deliberative communities is not endless talk. In a deliberative community "decisions are seen as properties of the community more than as the province of experts or the authority of the appointees of legislatures" (Strike 1993:270). ("More than" is a key element in this address as it indicates a balance between consultation or participation and individual decision-making prerogatives of managers.) (Ironically the matter of how much talk and in what sorts of forums may itself be a matter for deliberation.)

From the foregoing, it does indeed appear that a sound balance needs to be struck between participation and individual decision making in democratic management so that participation will not cripple the organisation but enhance it.

The role of the manager in participative decision making

Chamley et al. (1990:1-3) observe that every manager or leader can fall victim to a super manager or leader complex and try to be an expert in all fields and take all decision-making responsibilities upon himself or herself. They suggest that managers should rather try to be experts in "processing infor-

mation and making decisions, not in trying to be everything to everyone."

In order to make informed decisions, a manager should use the following:

- **Participatory (participative) management:** getting inputs from all staff members on a problem.
- **Process consultation:** asking and listening to opinions.
- **The STP model of process analysis** (situation - target - proposal): analyse the problem in terms of current data, intended goals and possible ways of achieving them.

In a community of leaders (such as an academic department), participative management is appropriate.

Hoy and Tarter (1993:9-13) also explore the various possible roles and responsibilities of a leader in participative decision making according to various decision-making purposes (Table 2).

Decision-making goal	Responsibility of leader	Role of leader
Group consensus	To involve group and then to let them decide	Integrator
Group decision	To involve group and to get a decision using parliamentary processes	Parliamentarian
Group advisory	To seek group's opinions and then to make a decision	Educator
Individual advisory	To consult individual experts and then to make a decision	Consultant
Unilateral	(No consulting with anybody)	Director

Table 2: Responsibilities and roles of leaders in participative decision making (Hoy & Tarter 1993:9-13)

It would appear that mediating, encouraging and deciding on the participation of group members in decision making are particular challenges to which all managers and leaders must respond in one way or another. Such mediation has to be based on knowledge of the types of decisions that invite participative decision making and the expertise, interests and commitment of possible participants in decision-making processes.

6.2 Accountability

Schedler (in Schedler et al. 1999:13-17) analyses the concept *accountability* and states that it expresses the "continuing concern for checks and over-

sights, for surveillance and institutional constraints on the exercise of power.” The semantic root of accountability is “accounting” which is in essence a two-dimensional construct that implies *answerability* (i.e. the obligation (of public officials) to inform about and explain what they are doing) and *enforcement* (the capacity of accounting agencies to impose sanctions on power-holders who have violated their [public] duties).

Answerability implies being accountable to, or being judged by, somebody (Dorn 1998:8-9) and having to respond to “nasty questions” and “the opportunity to ask uncomfortable questions” (Schedler in Schedler et al. 1999:14). Questions relate to reliable information about decisions (what has been done or will be done) or valid explanations of decisions. It is about finding facts, generating evidence and subjecting the exercise of power to the rule of law as well as to reason.

Enforcement refers to the element of accountability that can be linked to the rewarding of good and the punishing of unacceptable behaviour.

Accountability is therefore usually linked to three elements (information, justification and punishment). Beckmann and Blom (2000:1-2) also link accountability to demonstration of the achievement of a goal. To them, accountability can be owed both to superiors (from above) and subordinates (from below) and appears to have moral, contractual, public and political dimensions (also see Diamond, Plattner and Schedler (in Schedler et al. 1999:1) and Bacharach, Bamberger, Conley and Bauer (1990:127)). Accountability implies self-restraint and a restraint on the exercise of power without which democracies tend to be low quality democracies (Beckmann & Blom 2000:2).

Accountability implies three ways of controlling (and redressing if necessary) the use of political and other power by managers (Schedler in Schedler et al. 1999:13; McLennan (in Beckmann et al. 2000:6; Scott 1994:1):

1. Subjecting power to the threat of sanctions (enforcement)
2. Obliging power to be exercised in a *transparent* way (monitoring).
3. Forcing power-holders to justify their acts (answerability).

Dorn (1998:8-9) says that the **purposes** of accountability include: judging an educational institution, judging educators, judging learners, judging policy and marketing institutions.

Edwards (1995:31) states that accountability can also be incurred because

of using state funds and points out (1995:29-35) that the application of accountability in educational settings (such as higher education institutions) is not unproblematic. Accountability is first of all a somewhat foreign concept in education because educational goals are not easy to define or measure. Education is an activity carried out by professionals who are generally expected to use resources wisely, possess appropriate knowledge and who are “responsible professionals who can work with minimal supervision” (Edwards 1991:29).

Another problem is that accountability can become a “technology to control” (Edwards 1995:35). It seeks easy, objective or quantified answers to either reward or punish in order to extend future targets. According to Edwards, this approach may work well in a factory but not necessarily in an educational environment.

Although there may be problems with the application of accountability in educational settings, it is also true that no power (e.g. to participate in decision making) can be exercised without some form of accountability (De Vries 1995:14). According to Schedler (in Schedler et al. 1999:22-23) 10 types of accountability can be distinguished (see Table 3 below).

Type of accountability	Description
Political	Appropriateness of policies and policy-making processes
Administrative	Expedience and procedural correctness of bureaucratic acts
Professional	Ethical standards
Financial	Use of public money in terms of norms of propriety, austerity and efficiency
Moral	Assessment on basis of prevailing normative standards
Legal	The observance of legal rules
Constitutional	Compliance of legislation with the Constitution
Top down	Subordinates held accountable
Bottom up	Electorate hold representatives accountable
Horizontal	Approximate equals holding one another accountable

Table 3: Types of accountability (Schedler in Schedler et al. 1999:22-23)

It would appear that accountability, as an element of democratic management, emphasises the answerability of the manager to subordinates and superiors alike while it also requires him or her to provide information that would help interested parties gain clarity regarding decisions, policies and activities. Beckmann and Blom (2000:11) stress that accountability processes need to be open and fair and accountability criteria need to be explicit.

Sklar (in Schedler *et al.* 1998:53) perhaps captures the spirit of accountably best, saying that it refers to “the right of persons who are affected by the actions or decisions of officeholders or leaders to renew, rescind, or revise the mandates of those who exercise authority.” This seems to imply that being accountable is not an option or a prerogative on the part of a decision maker (manager) but an obligation.

6.3 Transparency

McLennan (in Beckmann *et al.* 2000:6) insists that all decisions have to be transparent. Luthans (1995:342) alludes to the possible uncertainty of stake-holders about what happens in decision-making processes and structures and what happens during certain processes by using the metaphor of a black box. People want to know what happens when a decision is taken, what reasons there are for a decision, what the implications of decisions are and what processes were used and what facts were taken into account in the decision-making process. Sometimes decisions are made in a “black box” into which no-one can see from the outside.

Schedler (in Schedler *et al.* 1999:18-23) says that the aim of transparency is to help control the exercise of power by power-holders and not to eliminate it. It therefore has overtones of accountability (Schedler in Schedler 1999:18). Requiring information and justification attempts to shed light on what happens in “the black box” of decision making and what is done with the power someone has to influence an organisation or a group of people. Despite the strong focus on wanting to shed light on and understand decisions, decision-making processes and structures, one has to understand what Schedler calls the “opacity of power.” It is therefore not easy to make the exercise of power perfectly transparent.

Transparency presupposes imperfect communication that leaves gaps in the information available to someone who needs to understand a certain decision, process or structure. The opaque realms of power concern the *arcanae imperii* – “the dark playgrounds of power shut off from public scruti-

ny for no other reason than the self-contained arrogance of power” (Schedler in Schedler 1999:20-21). Presumably the self-contained arrogance of power is used here to refer to concepts such as privileged information, management information or management prerogatives.

However, Schedler points out that legitimate “realms of secrecy exist where decisionmakers deliberate and decide behind closed doors” (Schedler in Schedler 1999:21). The example is given of bankers setting exchange rates or judges forming judgements. Processes with legitimate zones of confidentiality need not be open to the eyes of the general public (or all stake-holders) from beginning to end – however *ex post facto* explanations and revealing of grounds for decisions need to be in place.

In a book entitled “The transparent society” Vattimo (1992:1) refers to modern society as a “society of generalized communication” and he asks if the saturation of society with information and communication has helped make society more transparent. He comes to the conclusion that the mass media and generalised communication do not make our society [and decision making] more transparent. He contends that mass communication tends to make things more complex and even chaotic (Vattimo 1992:4). It would appear that flooding people with information to keep them informed can have an unintended effect of obscuring what it is supposed to reveal.

7 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF DEMOCRATIC MANAGEMENT

7.1 Some advantages

A number of possible advantages of democratic management emerged in the course of the above discussions. Some of them are listed below:

- Participatory decision making leads to greater efficiency, effectiveness and better outcomes (Leithwood (in Beckmann & Blom 2000:6)).
- Control can become unobtrusive and non-overt as power comes from the group itself (Anderson & Grindberg 1998:337).
- Democratic management is superior to other forms of management in regard to job satisfaction and, under certain circumstances where complex tasks have to be carried out, productivity (Van Oostrum & Rabbie 1995:270)
- The “managed” can exercise more influence throughout an organisation that is democratically managed than in other systems.
- Democratic managers can shed a super manager image and involve

other staff members in authentic participative decision making (Chamley *et al.* 1992:1-3).

- Better decisions may ensue from processes when all the members of talented and skilled teams apply their minds in synergy among others to policy problems (Hoy & Tarter 1993:4, Crous in Kroon 1986 219).
- Group decisions do not necessarily interfere with a manager's rights and obligations to make decisions (Blom 1999:14).
- Democratic management is a flexible concept and can be made to fit a particular setting (for example higher education), a particular institution (for example a university) (Bezzina 1993:21), different types of decisions (Hoy & Tarter 1993:9, 11) and different leadership roles (Hoy & Tarter 1993:11-12).
- Democratic management can be a fulcrum of organisational development (Bezzina 1993:21).
- Democratic decision making and accountability can foster or restore confidence in decision makers and decision making by shedding light on decision-making processes and structures (Luthans 1995:342) and still respect "legitimate realms of secrecy" (Schedler in Schedler *et al.* 1999:21).
- Comprehensive recent research suggests that "[p]articipation generally fosters a sense of identification ..., a positive quality of working life ... Participation has been shown to result in higher productivity, decreased turnover, and increased job satisfaction" (Luthans 1995:451).
- Increased satisfaction about, and acceptance of, decisions (Crous in Kroon 1986:219)
- Democratic management can discipline and restrain power and keep it from "running wild" (Schedler in Schedler *et al.* 1999:19). It can do so without eliminating the decision-making power of a manager.
- Democracy seems to work best where there are problems (Popper quoted by Aspin in Chapman *et al.* 1995:57) and is therefore suited to problem resolution (Aspin in Chapman *et al.* 1995:57).
- Democratic management can counter some of the more pernicious features of bureaucracies (Beetham 1987:1).

Luthans (1991:451) concedes that disadvantages are associated with participative decision making but he concludes that "from a behavioral standpoint, however, the advantages far outweigh the disadvantages."

7.2 Some disadvantages

Some disadvantages of democratic management, particularly in South Africa in the present time, emerged during the discussions in the previous

paragraphs and are summarised here:

- Beckmann and Blom (2000:4) point out that devolution or decentralisation of authority as an aspect of democratisation of management "can also go seriously wrong: It could strengthen the hand of the manager in making a broader range of policy, programme and policy decisions than in other management models."
According to these authors, apparently democratic managers may among others:
 - create the impression of consultation while retaining power
 - restrict debate on key or contentious issues by controlling the debate
 - set up restricted channels of participation (restricting access to upper managerial levels)
 - deprive staff of information
 - discourage staff from scrutinising and challenging decisions
- Luthans (1995:453) observes that the tendency towards pseudo-participation is a problem. "Many managers ask for participation, but whenever subordinates take them up on it by making a suggestion or trying to give some input into a decision, they are put down or never receive any feedback. In some cases managers try to get their subordinates involved in the task but not in the decision-making process."
- Staff who have not really participated in decision making before will have to undertake a number of tasks previously unfamiliar to them (such as performance management) (Maxcy quoted in Beckmann & Blom 2000:7; Mosoge & Van der Westhuizen 1995:196). They will have to become familiar with (expert at) issues previously the concern or domain of the manager (decision maker). The roles and responsibilities of both managers (leaders) and, very importantly, the managed may have to be re-conceptualised and re-defined and the managed, in particular, will have to shoulder a great deal of responsibility to ensure democracy in decision making.
- People who do not want to be held accountable for their activities and conduct may abuse the concept of professionalism to avoid being exposed (Dorn 1998:16).
- People who critique aspects of the functioning of a supposedly democratic education system may find that they are being branded as obstructionists and people who want to entrench previously-held unfair privileges (Die Unie 1998:6).
- There is a danger of "democratism" in universities (Dos Santos Filho 1993:397) when democracy and transformation become ends unto themselves instead of strategies to improve higher education institutions. Hoy and Tarter (1993:4) say that always involving subordinates

- in decision making is as short-sighted as never involving them.
- Activities in an institution may be hamstrung by endless meetings coming to no conclusion and a plethora of consultative (and sometimes unnecessary) committees. Leaders may lose confidence in their own ability to make correct and justifiable decisions (Strike 1993:270). In any case, it has to be conceded that democratic management is time consuming (Luthans 1995:453).
- Aspin (in Chapman *et al.* 1995:55) concedes that commitment to democracy is expensive in terms of:
 - effort and activity (work and active engagement in processes and activities),
 - time (the conception, development, establishment and refinement of democratic institutions and procedures takes a long time) and
 - resources (specific ways of consultation, policy determination and evaluation require "appropriate levels of finance and funding").
- Crous (in Kroon 1986:220) points out that:
 - some members may dominate groups and obscure the contributions of some members
 - differences may lead to conflict and
 - excessive sensitivity concerning possible group conflict may lead to compromises that may not necessarily be the best alternatives
- Misguided conceptions about equality and non-discrimination may complicate processes and procedures (Angus in Smyth 1993:22).
- Democratic managers may forever be caught up in the tension between the need for participation and the responsibility to make decisions and formulate policy (Pampallis in Education Policy Unit 1998:91).

8 SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR A UNIVERSITY ACADEMIC DEPARTMENT

It would appear that a university in South Africa cannot choose but identify closely with the ideals and values of democratic governance and management. (It would be a very brave individual who would come out in favour of undemocratic management in South Africa today.) Democratic structures do not automatically constitute democratic management and institutions should demonstrate their adherence to democracy by the way all their activities, processes and structures reflect appropriate values and principles.

The factors to be considered regarding democratic management approaches in a university setting (e.g. in an academic department) include:

- Democratic management is not the domain only of senior management but should be a concern of managers at all levels. The "managed" must also support democratic management values by the way in which they respond to direction and initiatives and facilitate their implementation. They need to be "strong-willed democrats" (Lee 1990:162).
- There must be accountability from above and, especially, from below and transparency needs to be an integral part of all communication and planning as well as policy procedures and processes.
- The origin of democratic principles is in the world of politics and adjustments will have to be made to accommodate the peculiar characteristics of the higher education environment. Insofar as certain management principles can also be related to industrial manufacturing processes, they will also have to be re-interpreted to suit the world of higher education.
- In a university department the superior-subordinate relationship is replaced by the first among equals principle (Van der Bank 1991). The head of a department is particularly dependent on sound person skills to succeed as a leader. He or she does not necessarily have the formal authority that other managers may have. Thus, he or she may have to resign himself or herself to the idea of having more influence than power (Green & McDade 1991:141). It is an uncomfortable position, knowing that one's formal power is severely restricted and that the equals together with whom one works may even form alliances against one (Green & McDade 1991:141). Moreover, one may be perceived to be representing one's department when communicating with others. If one has been appointed through a process that did not allow one's fellow staff members an adequate voice, this fact can cause additional tension in a hostile environment where people exercise their rights aggressively.
- It needs to be stressed that the "academic champion" concept in regard to the management of a department is fraught with danger. The temptation to under-utilise the knowledge, skills and commitment of fellow department members could significantly impair the performance of the unit in question.
- Department heads and members together need to explore the concept democratic management and jointly decide on the processes, procedures, resources, conduct and criteria needed to make democratic management succeed. Together they should develop a suitable, democratic approach to all aspects of the operation of their department.
- Participative management should not dissipate the energy of staff members by unnecessarily involving them in management decisions falling in their zones of acceptance and for which they have little or no expert-

ise, commitment or inclination.

- There should be a realisation that managing a department entails first and foremost the exercise of authority. Power needs to come from all members of a unit and self-discipline must be exercised if strict supervision is to be avoided. The manager's duty is alleviated by the fact that this "concertive power" to lead and manage is embedded in relationships (Anderson & Grindberg 1998:334-7, also referring to Foucault).

9 CONCLUSION

A democratic university and democratic university departments could effectively contribute to the establishment and promotion of a democratic country through the promotion of appropriate values and ideals. The Preamble of the Constitution intentionally expresses the belief that a united and democratic South Africa must be built by the people of the country.

Although it is clear that democratic management is not infallible, it appears to be an alternative well worth pursuing. It would seem that Churchill's words (spoken in 1947 and quoted by Aspin (in Chapman *et al.* 1995:58)) may hold true in this respect:

Many forms of government [and management] have been tried, and will be tried in this world of sin and woe. No-one pretends that democracy is perfect or all-wise. Indeed it has been said that democracy is the worst form of government – except all those other forms that have been tried from time to time

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