

**BUREAUCRACY AND DECISION-MAKING IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE
UNIVERSITIES IN UGANDA: A COMPARATIVE STUDY**

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**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND
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DECLARATION

I, Kyatuha Ovia Mwisaka, hereby declare that this is my own work and it has not been submitted to any institution for any award. Where ideas of other scholars have been incorporated, acknowledgement has been made through citations and in references.

Signature

Date.....

APPROVAL

We certify that this research report satisfies the fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctoral of Philosophy of Public Administration of Mbarara University of Science and Technology.

Signature.....

Prof. Benon C. Basheka

Signature.....

Dr. Gertrude Zziwa

DEDICATION

I dedicate my research report to my dear husband, Rev. Aloni Mwisaka Wandeeka, my lovely children, Anne Ruby Kirabo and Favour Eric Wandeeka, for their support and patience during my studies.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACHEPA	-	Australian Centre for Higher Education Policy Analysis
CEO	-	Chief Executive Officer
CHE	-	Commission for Higher Education
CVI	-	Content Validity Index
DSS	-	Decision Support Systems
IDP	-	Internally Displaced Persons
MUBS	-	Makerere University Business School
MUST	-	Mbarara University of Science and Technology
NCHE	-	National Council for Higher Education
NPM	-	New Public Management
PDM	-	Participatory Decision Making
SPSS	-	Statistical Packages for Social Scientists
UN	-	United Nations
USA	-	United States of America
UNDP	-	United Nations Development Programme
WB	-	World Bank

ABSTRACT

The quality of higher education is affected by the changing university customs, characteristics, increasing competition, rising costs, and the impending crises. This study set out to establish the effect of bureaucracy on decision-making in universities in Uganda. The study focused on the effect of the division of labour, the authoritative structure, the position and role of the individual staff; and of the type of rules that regulate the relations between organizational staff on decision-making. The study adopted a descriptive survey research design using both qualitative and quantitative approaches that targeted University Council Members, representatives of Senate, teaching staff, student leaders and university community people (parents, guardians and business people). Structured questionnaire and face-to-face interviews were used to collect data from the various respondents. There was a moderately stronger association between division of labour and decision making in private universities than in public universities. This means that decision making is moderately dependent on division of labour in private universities than in public universities. There was a lower association between participation of individuals and decision-making in private universities than in public universities. This means that decision-making in private universities is less dependent on participation of individuals. There was a relatively higher association between regulatory rules and decision-making in private universities than in public universities. This means that in Uganda, decision-making is more dependent on regulatory rules in private universities than in public universities. There was quite high association between authoritative structures and decision-making in private universities than in public universities. This means that in Uganda, decision-making is more dependent on authoritative structures in private universities than in public universities. The study concluded that there was a relatively high significant effect of bureaucracy on decision-making in private universities than in public universities. For instance, decision-making increased by 0.586 for each unit measure of bureaucracy in private universities, while decision-making increased by 0.555 for each unit measure of bureaucracy in public universities. The study recommends, among other things, that university management should ensure the adoption of effective regulatory rules that should be continuously reviewed to keep in touch with the changes that take place in universities in Uganda. Management of universities should encourage participation of individuals to work hand in hand with staff and other stakeholders to enable university management improve on decision-making in public universities. Management of universities should also adopt effective communication and information flow within the authoritative structures in the universities. Management should build a basis of professional bureaucratic approach properly and abandon subjective bureaucracy through attending seminars and regular meetings by the department managers in order to find out their opinions on the work of the organization and contribute to the efforts for improving the overall performance and provide transparent working environment. These meetings should be held in all departments of the universities.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Developments in higher education, particularly universities in Africa, continue to be as tremendous as they have been challenging for the continent, to various governments and all stakeholders (Jegade, 2012:33). The challenges, however, have never been as profound as they have appeared in recent times; thus, requiring scholarly attention. The catalysts for educational reform which include massification, equity and social justice, inclusiveness, expansion, employability, globalization, skills and competences shortage and national development have continued to multiply (Okwakol, 2009:109). At the same time, within the continent, between countries and within countries, differences in areas such as demography, funding, physical infrastructure, levels of academic support, qualified academic staff, management and decision-making and local challenges have continued to increase greatly. This is not to mention the double-edged effect of brain drain which stands apart as an issue of major occurrence affecting higher education in Africa (Jegade, 2012: 54) despite the fact that Information Communication Technology (ICT) has, at the same time, created avenues for repatriations of the gains accruable to the drain (Olaoye, 2008: 65).

These challenges are often directly or indirectly related to university governance and decision-making in that Trakman (2008: 670), citing Lambardi et al (2002), argues that the challenges faced in the governance of universities are based on their bureaucratic nature and decision-making. The bureaucratic model hinges on the bureaucratic theory of

Max Weber and focuses on hierarchy, tied together by formal chains of command, communication, organizational goals, or predetermined rules and regulations, and on maximizing efficiency (Hall and Symes, 2005: 212). The challenges hitherto enumerated occur in an environment which demands that higher education in Africa, and Uganda in particular, must focus on global competitiveness, while it strives to be locally relevant and centrally placed to contribute meaningfully to sustainable total development of the continent, countries and individuals (Mpaata, 2010: 87).

This study intended to assess empirically the effect of bureaucracy on decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda. Generally, university education has profoundly changed in the past three decades, and those involved in the academic enterprise have grappled with the implications of these changes (Altbach & Todd, 1999:67). Universities have faced pressures in decision-making in their bureaucratic management systems in terms of the increasing numbers of students and demographic changes, demands for accountability, reconsideration of the social and economic role of higher education, and the impact of new technologies, among others (Okwakol, 2009: 110).

While the bureaucratic management systems function in natural environments of specific universities, the decision-making processes present challenges that cut across the globe (World Bank, 2009: 65). With the numerous changes in the university sector, decision making has equally become more challenging than before. Moreover, universities are by nature bureaucratic institutions; which poses a fundamental question of how such organizational arrangements affect decision-making in their systems.

This introductory chapter unravels the background to the study where the historical, theoretical, conceptual, as well as the context of the study are discussed. The entire background is discussed at global, regional and national contexts. The chapter then states the problem, the purpose of the study, the objectives, research questions and hypotheses. It then covers the significance, scope of the study, justification, and gives some operational definition of key terms as they are used in the study.

1.2. Background to the Study

1.2.1. Historical background

Historically, university education has been recognized as a key force for modernization and development. It is perceived as an important form of investment in human capital development especially in developed countries (World Bank, 2009: 69). As universities are charged with formation of human capital through teaching, building knowledge base through research and knowledge development, and dissemination and use of knowledge by interacting with the knowledge users (Okwakol, 2009: 110). Those entrusted with managing such institutions need to make decisions that promote this historical goal.

University governance and decision-making structures around the world have long been a site of study for higher education researchers (Dill, 1997: 23; Neave and Van Vught, 1994: 25). However, such studies have dealt with bureaucracy and decision-making separately. The studies were carried out in either public or private universities and identified a number of different governance arrangements in varied contexts. Some researchers have focused on public universities administered by governments directly or

through governmental agencies (Neave and Van Vught, 1991: 28). Others have analyzed higher education institutions that are characterized by faculty and university administrative governance (Chait, Holland and Taylor, 1996: 35). Literature in Britain, Canada and the United States has addressed a wide range of institutions that are neither run in a completely autonomous fashion by faculty and administrators, nor under the direct administration of governments and their agencies. The most typical form of organization for these institutions revolves around a semi-autonomous body: the board of trustees or governing board (Jones and Skolnik, 1997: 38; Chait, Holland and Taylor, 1996: 43). An emerging body of literature has begun to focus on instances of crisis in the contemporary university and the role of governing boards under crises (Ordorika, 1999: 36; Pusser, 1999: 39; Herideen, 1998: 67). The present study sought to examine the effect of the bureaucratic governance system on decision-making in both public and private universities.

The former UN Secretary General Kofi Annan reiterated that African universities must become a primary tool for Africa's development in the new century. He noted that universities can help develop African expertise; enhance the analysis of African problems; strengthen domestic institutions; serve as a model environment for the practice of good governance, conflict resolution and respect for human rights, and enable African academics to play an active part in the global community of scholars (UN, 2000: 13).

Nkosi-Kandaba (2004: 29) examined the participative decision-making in South African universities with four major aims: to investigate the extent to which the universities

practice participative decision-making; to establish whether certain administrative managers' characteristics influence the practice of participative decision-making, determine whether there was any difference among the universities practice in participative decision-making; and to determine whether there was any association among ranks assigned by respondents to the participative decision-making steps. The study found out that managers held negative perceptions about participative decision-making and therefore concluded that university managers did not practice participative decision-making. This could be true of the situation in Uganda's universities in that the challenges experienced in the universities are a result of top management holding negative perceptions about participative decision-making and avoiding the participatory approach like in the case of Kyambogo University (IGG Report, 2015).

Obondoh (2001: 45) conducted a research on student involvement in university governance in two universities in Kenya: Kenyatta University and University of Nairobi. He found out that within the universities, academic management staff and students were often in disagreement with administration. Administrators were seen as defenders of the state (authority) that appointed them and that they actually implemented their directives. Heads of department, directors of institutes and deans of faculties were often perceived as limiting decision-making in that they resorted to making decisions single-handedly, which they then presented to faculty boards as views from the members. Academicians were often too preoccupied with issues of teaching and research, and therefore had limited time for meetings. The student associations were often banned or co-opted as extensions of the administration. Similar scenarios have been observed in Ugandan

universities (Mugume, 2015) although there was need for empirical evidence before conclusions could be drawn.

Situations like those found out by Nkosi-Kandaba (2004: 28) in South African universities and Obondoh (1998: 38) in Kenyan universities formed the basis for explaining conflicts that reigned high in most universities in South African and Kenyan universities. These conflicts resulted in costly damage to property following student riots and strikes. In other universities, accusations were levelled against principals, chancellors and vice chancellors of the universities with demands for their immediate resignation or expulsion. Former Mongusuthu Technikon University in Durban and the former Chancellor of the North University in South Africa are some of the examples of the atrocious acts resulting from issues to do with decision-making.

Management structures for universities are highly differentiated throughout the different countries in the world. As noted by Altbach (2005: 66), the different models for university governance present several variations. Coldrake, Stedman and Little (2003: 37) discussed the shared traditions and history of university education worldwide. In a study carried out in Pakistan to analyze some of the issues of university's governance, focus was made on some policy considerations regarding governance, analysis of the decision-making practices and finally recommended some "best practices" to the universities' governance. The study further examined the challenges of governance in higher education and how universities were acting in response to them. It addressed the rising role and participation of stakeholders in higher education governance and emerging

approaches of management in the governance of higher education in Pakistan. The study focused mainly on the governing body of the universities, and its roles and relationships with other stakeholders. The results of the study showed that in Pakistan the state was the key player in the governance and decision-making of higher education. This too was similar to Ugandan universities, particularly the case of public universities (Mugume, 2015).

McMaster (2007: 55) examined the different cultures in universities and the traditional relationships between faculty and administration, characterizing historical transitions and suggesting that universities today were undergoing transitions in culture especially with regard to decision-making. Similarly, Kezar and Eckel (2004: 76) pointed out that the substance of governance and decision-making had changed during the last decades with more emphasis put on high-stake issues and more incremental decisions made in a less collegial mode – the reasons for this stem from trends that had devalued the notion of participation and also from the external pressures for more accountability and demands for quicker decision-making that sometimes was achieved through bureaucracy.

Dearlove (1997: 57) emphasized that, under the conditions of mass university education, no university could avoid the need for some sort of bureaucratic management and organization. With changing roles in human resources and the external pressures for accountability affecting internal university relationships, McMaster (2007: 87) provides insights by defining decision-making approaches in terms of nested partnership between faculty and administration, contiguous partnership, and segmented partnership. With

debates over the recent trends, university organizations, governing associations, and numerous institutions themselves have set forth policy statements on models of governing the universities in the twenty-first century.

Generally, the management process in universities is complex and includes many different layers (or authoritative structures). Each structure differs in levels of responsibility by type of institution, culture of the university, and historical evolution. Thus, in Zimbabwe, there is no single organizing approach for decision-making (Nyarugwe, 2014: 56). Researching on governance and decision-making in church-related institutions of higher learning in Zimbabwe, Nyarugwe (2014: 59) found out that trustees and boards have been delegated authority by college and university charters from the university councils' legislature for oversight and decision-making. The legal requirements for boards are typically very loose; they need to assemble with a quorum periodically and oversee certain broad responsibilities. In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, boards dominated decision-making, and faculty had little involvement. However, as faculty professionalized in the late 1800s, there was a concerted effort among faculty to obtain greater authority within the decision-making process. For instance, Birnbaum (1991: 78) noted that in Michigan University, the reality of decision-making today is much different than the strict legal interpretation would suggest, with boards having total authority. From the structuring of universities, it is evident that they are bureaucratic in nature and thus, it is important that a clear understanding of bureaucracy is made.

1.2.2 Theoretical Background

There are several theories that were considered that relate to university governance and decision-making. However, the overriding theory adopted in this study was the Max Weber bureaucratic theory. According to Max Weber's Bureaucratic Theory, bureaucracy is considered an efficient administrative structure and set of regulations in place to control activities. Usually bureaucracy occurs in large organizations and government, and must take into account all the forms of the political and administrative governance, i.e. any new behaviour in power that is determined as a new expression for public action. Bureaucratic governance is of particular importance for this study because it focuses on the scope of division of labour, participation of individuals, use of regulatory rules and authoritative structures in relation to decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.

The other supporting theories included the iron triangle theory, the principle agent theory and the issue network theory. The iron triangle theory gives an overview of an alliance of people from three groups consisting of the faculties that deal with issues of the students, the university council that enforces laws on how faculties should operate and other stakeholders. The members of the triangle often know each other well and members frequently move from one department to another. The principal agent theory has spawned a large amount of recent research in economics, finance, accounting, organizational behaviour, political science, and sociology (Donaldson, 1990: 97).

To accompany the above two theories, this study added the systems theory. Modern management is characterized by two approaches, the systems and the contingency approach. The systems approach views the organization (universities in this case) as a total system comprised of interacting subsystems, all of which are in complex interaction with the relevant external environment (Lerman & Turner, 1992: 36). The other theory considered was the Institutional Theory that attends to the deeper and more resilient aspects of social structure. It considers the processes by which structures -- including schemas, rules, norms, and routines -- become established as authoritative guidelines for social behaviour (Scott, 2004: 133).

1.2.3 Conceptual Background

The word 'bureaucracy' stems from the word 'bureau', used from the early 18th century in Western Europe to refer to an office, i.e., a workplace, where officials worked. The term bureaucracy came into use shortly before the French Revolution of 1789, and from there rapidly spread to other countries. Bureaucracy is the administrative structure and set of regulations in place to control (rationalize, render effective and professionalize) activities, usually in large organizations and government (Dimock, 2009). The characteristics of bureaucracy were first formulated in a systematic manner by the German sociologist Max Weber (1864-1920), whose definition and theories set the foundations for all subsequent work on the subject. They refer to (i) the division of labour in the organization, (ii) its authority structure, (iii) the position and role of the individual member, and (iv) the type of rules that regulate the relations between organizational members. A highly developed division of labour and specialization of tasks is one of the

most fundamental features of bureaucracy. This is achieved by a precise and detailed definition of the duties and responsibilities of each position or office. The allocation of a limited number of tasks to each office operates according to the principle of fixed jurisdictional areas that are determined by administrative regulations.

Weber's basic assumptions on bureaucracy include: the assumption that location of raw materials is a given fixed space in a predetermined and known fashion.; that the spatial distribution of consumption is a given, and there is only one central purchase point for each producing unit; (of course, he understood that in the real world, the location of a plant influences the distribution of labor and, in turn, this distribution impacts upon consumption); that the distribution of labor is fixed, as are wages at any specific location. Wages, however, can vary from one location to another (Pearson, 2010: 110) . This means that labor was not mobile, and thus not affected by the location of industries; (of course, Weber knew this was not actually true in the real world). That the transportation systems are uniform in every way; and, in fact, Weber considered only one means of transportation: rail. In order to achieve such consistency, he modified weight and distance (the basic factors involved in transportation costs). In this way, he tried to compensate for variances in the intensity of rail use, the size of shipments, the topography, the condition of the road bed, the qualities of the goods being shipped, and the advantages associated with long hauls. This resulted in a mathematically flat plain; and that although he did not specifically mention it, the model also assumes that culture characteristics as well as economic and political systems remain constant.

After simplifying the problem in this way, Weber chose a production location that he believed to be theoretically the most appropriate, and then considered only one product at a time. The result was primarily geometric in form. He also developed an alternative mathematical approach that could be used as a proof. Weber's model involved three initial steps. He began by considering the least transportation cost location, and then considered the other two factors; labor costs and agglomeration economies. According Pearson (2010: 113), the benefits of Max Weber's theory is focused on: i). Specialization - A bureaucratic organization provides the advantages of specialization because every member is assigned a specialized task to perform. ii). Structure - A structure of form is created by specifying the duties and responsibilities and reporting relationships within a command hierarchy. Structure sets the pace and framework for the functioning of the organization. iii). Rationality - A measure of objectivity is ensured by prescribing in advance the criteria for decision making in routine situations. iv). Predictability: The rules, regulations, specialization, structure and training import predictability and thereby ensure stability in the organization. Conformity to rules and roles in the structural framework bring about order to cope with complexity; and v). Democracy - Emphasis on qualifications and technical competence make the organization more democratic. Officials are guided by the prescribed rules, policies and practices rather than by patronage or other privileged treatment.

On the other hand, Pearson (2010: 115) indicated that the limitations of Max Weber's bureaucratic theory include; i). Rigidity- Rules and regulations in a bureaucracy are often rigid and inflexible. Rigid compliance with rules and regulations discourages initiative

and creativity. It may also provide the cover to avoid responsibility for failures. ii). Goal Displacement - Rules framed to achieve organizational objectives at each level become an end to themselves.

According to Pollitt & Bouckaert (2011: 230), when individuals at lower levels pursue personal objectives, the overall objectives of the organization may be neglected. iii). Impersonality - A bureaucratic organization stresses a mechanical way of doing things. Organizational rules and regulations are given priority over an individual's needs and emotions. iv). Compartmentalization of Activities - Jobs are divided into categories, which restrict people from performing tasks that they are capable of performing. It also encourages preservation of jobs even when they become redundant. v). Paperwork - Bureaucracy involves excessive paperwork as every decision must be put into writing. All documents have to be maintained in their draft and original forms. This leads to great wastage of time, stationery and space. vi). Empire Building - People in bureaucracy tend to use their positions and resources to perpetuate self-interests. Every superior tries to increase the number of his subordinates as if this number is considered a symbol of power and prestige; and vii). Red Tape - Bureaucratic procedures involve inordinate delays and frustration in the performance of tasks.

The bureaucratic organization is characterized by a rational and impersonal regulation of inferior-superior relationships. In traditional types of administration (feudal, patrimonial), the inferior-superior relationship is personal, and the legitimation of authority is based on a belief in the sacredness of tradition (Pearson, 2010: 103). In a bureaucracy, on the other

hand, authority is legitimized by a belief in the correctness of the process by which administrative rules were enacted; and the loyalty of the bureaucrat is oriented to an impersonal order, to a superior position, not to the specific person who holds it (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2011: 231). When one shifts the focus of attention from the organization as a whole to the role and status of the individual member, the following features characterize the bureaucrat's position. Starting with the mode of recruitment, the bureaucrat is not selected on the basis of such considerations as family position or political loyalties. His recruitment is based on formal qualifications (diplomas, university degrees) that testify that the applicant has the necessary knowledge to accomplish effectively his specialized duties (Pearson, 2010: 112). However, the other most important issue that was noted by Pollitt and Bouckaert (2011: 232) in as far as bureaucratic management was concerned was that of decision-making.

Formally, universities have a rationally organized social structure which involves clearly defined patterns of activity in which; ideally, every series of actions is functionally related to the purposes of the entire university (Pearson, 2010: 123). There are integrated series of offices, of hierarchal statuses, in which a number of obligations and privileges are closely defined by limited and specific rules. For instance, in a typical university setting, this flows from the highest offices of the University Council, through Senate down to individual departments. Each of the offices contains an area of imputed competence and responsibility. Authority, the power of control which derives from an acknowledged status, inheres in the office and not in the particular person who performs the official role (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2011: 231). Official action ordinarily occurs within

the framework of pre-existing rules of the university. The system of prescribed relations between the various offices involves a considerable degree of formality and clearly defined social distance between the occupants of these positions. In the bureaucratic nature of universities, formality is manifested by means of a more or less complicated social ritual which symbolizes and supports the pecking order of the various offices (Nyarugwe, 2014: 145).

This type of formal organization observed both in public and private universities is bureaucratic in nature as articulated by Max Weber (Pearson, 2010: 123). As Weber indicated, bureaucracy involves a clear-cut division of integrated activities which are regarded as duties inherent in the office. A system of differentiated controls and sanctions is stated in the regulations. The assignment of roles occurs on the basis of technical qualifications which are ascertained through formalized, impersonal procedures (e.g., examinations). Within the structure of hierarchically arranged authority, the activities of “trained and salaried experts” are governed by general, abstract, and clearly defined rules which preclude the necessity for the issuance of specific instructions for each specific case. The generality of the rules requires the constant use of categorization, whereby individual problems and cases are classified on the basis of designated criteria and are treated accordingly (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2011: 233).

The pure type of bureaucratic official is appointed, either by a superior or through the exercise of impersonal competition; he is not elected. A measure of flexibility in the bureaucracy is attained by electing higher functionaries who presumably express the will

of the electorate (e.g., a body of citizens or a board of directors). The election of higher officials is designed to affect the purposes of the organization, but the technical procedures for attaining these ends are carried out by continuing bureaucratic personnel (Person, 2010: 133). This bureaucratic nature of universities makes university management complex especially in matters of decision-making. Complexity is defined as the measure of heterogeneity or diversity in environmental sub-factors such as customers, suppliers, socio-politics and technology (Chae and Hill, 1997: 23; Chakravarthy, 2011: 39). As complexity increases, the ability to understand and use information to predict, plan and make decisions becomes more challenging (Black and Farias, 2011: 77). As all systems increase in complexity over time (Farrell, 1998: 87), the increasing complexity leads to more change (Conner, 1998). As the system becomes more complex, making sense of it becomes more difficult (Black and Farias, 2011: 99) and adaptation to the management in universities also becomes a challenge.

1.2.4 Contextual Perspective

Contextually, due to high demand for university education, governments around the world have had to engage in privatization of university education. This in itself has been due to public sector reforms orchestrated under the doctrines of New Public Management (NPM). The NPM is a term formally conceptualized by Hood (1991:39) that broadly denotes the government policies that aim at modernizing and rendering the public sector more efficient. The basic hypothesis that NPM holds is that market-oriented management of the public sector leads to greater cost-efficiency for governments, without having negative side-effects on other objectives and considerations. Ferlie et al (1996: 43)

described New Public Management in Action as involving the introduction into public services of the “three Ms”: Markets, Managers and Measurement.

The NPM techniques and practices, drawn mainly from the private sector, are increasingly seen as a global phenomenon (Larbi, 2009: 15). On the other hand, the NPM reforms shift the emphasis from traditional public administration to public management. Key elements include various forms of decentralizing management within public services (e.g., the creation of autonomous agencies and devolution of budgets and financial control), increasing use of markets and competition in the provision of public services (e.g., contracting out and other market-type mechanisms), and increasing emphasis on performance, outputs and customer orientation (Boston, 1996: 59).

The NPM reforms have been driven by a combination of economic, social, political and technological factors. A common feature of countries going down the NPM route has been the experience of economic and fiscal crises, which triggered the quest for efficiency and for ways to cut the cost of delivering public services (Larbi, 2009: 25). The crisis of the welfare state led to questions about the role and institutional character of the state. In the case of most developing countries, reforms in public administration and management have been driven more by external pressures and have taken place in the context of structural adjustment programmes (Ferlie et al, 1996: 27). The NPM was essentially against traditional public sector arrangements which emphasized bureaucracy.

During the 1970s and 1980s, the public sector; including university education was subjected to the market ideologies. That was why, as Coldrake, Stedman and Little (2003:

29) suggested, in Latin America and some parts of Asia, the fastest-growing parts of the academic system are private institutions. Uganda cannot be an exception to this development. Out of 46 universities and degree awarding institutions, 67.4% are privately owned. In Central and Eastern Europe, private initiative is also of considerable importance. The students are increasingly seen as customers.

Altbach (2005: 67) believed that the expansion of the private sector brings up issues of quality control and accreditation since in many parts of the world there are few controls as yet on private sector expansion. These dilemmas require sophisticated decision-making as the various stakeholders affect decision-making in universities. This was because universities were by their very nature complex organizations. In complex environments decision-making is best practiced in flat, decentralized, organic structures, as they can maintain global stability but absorb a high degree of uncertainty and still adapt at the detail level (Peters, 1999: 29; Prendergast and Berthon, 2000: 56). In such an environment, planning is still important, but it should have a short-time horizon, information should be freely distributed and used quickly, it should be about how to do things rather than what to do, and it should include alternative possible outcomes (Skae, 1989: 38; Nilson, 1995: 29; Jones, 2000: 34) – in other words, less prediction, control and stability and more self or group control to enable quick adaptation to the changes (Jaworski, 1988: 37; Briggs and Peat, 1999: 39).

Since the late 1990s, the European higher education system has had to face deep structural changes for better decision-making. With the public authorities seeking to

create an environment of quasi-markets in the higher education sector, the increased competition induced by recent reforms has pushed all publicly financed higher education institutions to use their resources more efficiently (Briggs and Peat, 1999: 77). Higher education institutions increasingly now aim at differentiating themselves from their competitors in terms of the range of outputs they produce. This is also true of the situation in developing countries in Africa and particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Until 1987, Uganda had only one public university with about 10,000 students (Okwakol, 2009: 110). Currently, there are eleven public and 33 private universities with a total of over 400,000 students (NCHE, 2017: 2). This implies that it is not only the demand for university education that has increased but this has been accompanied by a number of decision-making challenges. Decision-making is very important in the management of university education. Decision-making is the thought process of selecting a logical choice from the available options (Ambalika and Kumar, 2007: 28). When trying to make a good decision, a person must weigh the positives and negatives of each option, and consider all the alternatives (Doya and Shadlen, 2012: 89). For effective decision-making, a person must be able to forecast the outcome of each option as well, and based on all these items, determine which option is the best for that particular situation (Triantaphyllou, 2000: 56). The problems arise when there are difficult decisions to be taken, particularly about staffing and resources. At such moments it is important to have clarity and predictability of processes, and an acceptance that these are fair and inclusive to the most appropriate degree (Doya and Shadlen, 2012: 78). And it is imperative that the factors that contributed to a decision are known and understood.

Since 2004, a number of Ugandan universities have faced challenges, including failure to pay lecturers on time, under-funding of research, high turnover of experienced professors, crumbling physical infrastructure, lecturers and students' strikes, poor international rating and lack of teaching materials (Kasozi, 2005: 88; Ocwich, 2005: 89; Tabeja, 2008: 99). Several arguments have been put forward to explain this situation and, according to Mugume (2015), they include issues of poor governance, under-funding, business pressure and profit motivation in the private universities, some universities being temporarily closed down while others have been de-registered (Lugazi University; Victoria University at one time also closed down). However, some of the challenges are believed to be associated with decision-making and that led to student riots and strikes. For instance, in the past five years, strikes at Makerere University related to the university decision to raise fees for non-Ugandans was believed to have been done without involving staff and student leaders (IGG Report, 2015). The most recent scenario pertains to the management of Kyambogo University which has gone on for almost two years and demands were made for the Vice Chancellor, Professor Isaiah Ndiege, to resign (Mugume, 2015). The issue led to the intervention of Parliament, Cabinet, Ministry of Education and Sports and the Inspectorate of Government. The Vice Chancellor was accused of making unilateral decisions and not involving staff and other stakeholders (IGG Report, 2015). Later, the Vice Chancellor was re-instated but this was met with a lot of resistance (Mugume, 2015). Similarly, in 2011, Kampala International University (Ishaka Campus) experienced a strike following a decision to increase fees in a circular authored by the Deputy Vice Chancellor Kampala Campus; stating that the 25%

surcharge had been scrapped but students had to pay their tuition in the first month of the semester (KIU Circular, 2010). Previously, defaulting students would be charged a 25% surcharge on any unpaid dues. The circular issued in December 2010 angered students and the guild council said such decisions conditioning students on fees payment were worse than the 25% surcharge. This was because failure for a student to pay tuition within the first month would constitute a dead year.

Given that most universities are structured in a bureaucratic fashion and that studies alluded to above point to decision-making as pertinent in the challenges faced by universities, it was imperative that an empirical study on bureaucracy and decision-making be carried out to establish both the relationship and effect on the management of universities particularly in Uganda. The present study sought to find answers to a number of questions; for instance, how does the rational and impersonal regulation of inferior-superior relationships in the universities affect decision-making? On the other hand, how does legitimization of authority and the correctness of the process by which administrative rules are enacted affect decision making? How does the loyalty of the bureaucrat's orientation to impersonal order and superiority in position affect decision-making? These and several other questions pertaining to the division of labour in the universities' authority structure, the position and role of the individual staff, and the type of rules that regulate the relations between organizational staff needed an empirical study to explain the ultimate effect of bureaucracy on decision-making in universities in Uganda.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

In the past five years, there have been several strikes at Makerere and Kyambogo universities (for public universities) and Kampala International University- Ishaka (for private universities) in Uganda. In these universities, and perhaps in several other universities in the country, academic, management staff and students were often in disagreement with administration (IGG Report, 2015). For instance, in KIU, the decision to change the modality of fees payment without comprehensive consultations with student leaders led to a serious strike and students destroyed a lot of property in Ishaka campus (KIU Circular, 2010). At the same time, students lost prime time of study during and after the riots and strikes. The strikes in most of the universities were blamed on decision-making in the universities on issues relating to human resource, students governance, financing, provision of teaching materials, payment of staff salaries etc., which have been regarded as a source of unhealthy co-existence of stakeholders in universities (Kasozi, 2016). Whereas several studies have been undertaken (Basheka, 2009; Okwakol, 2009; Kasozi, 2003) they have not focused on how bureaucratic governance structures of universities affect decision-making. This study therefore set out to bridge the gap by establishing the implications of the bureaucratic governance and its corresponding effect on decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

The study sought to establish how bureaucracy affects decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.

1.5. Objectives of the Study

The study focused on the following specific objectives:

- i. To find out how division of labour affects decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.
- ii. To find out how participation of individual staff in various positions affects decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.
- iii. To establish how existing regulatory rules affect decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.
- iv. To demonstrate how authoritative structure affects decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.

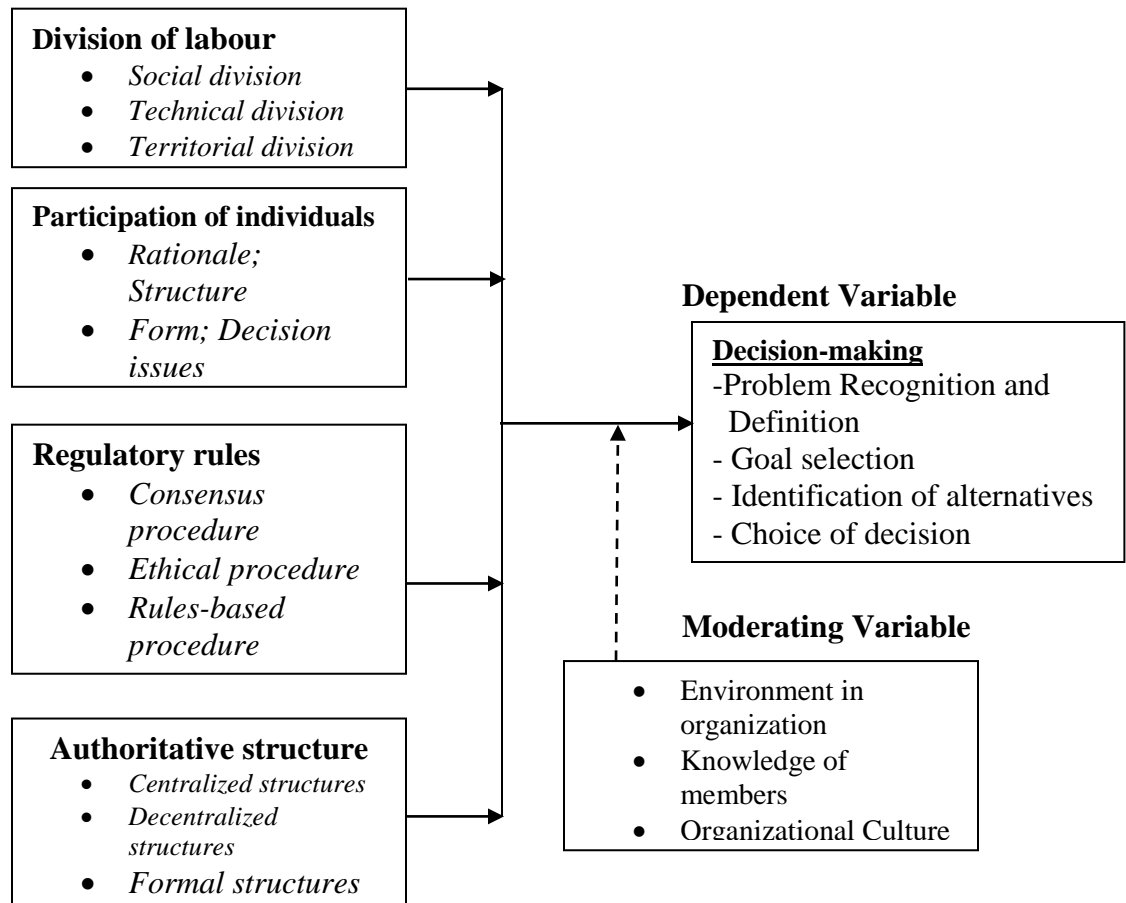
1.6. Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

- i. How does division of labour affect decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda?
- ii. How does participation of individual staff in various positions affect decision making in public and private universities in Uganda?
- iii. How do the existing regulatory rules affect decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda?
- iv. How does the authoritative structure affect decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda?

1.8. Conceptual Framework

Independent Variable



Source: Literature Review- Max Weber; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki (1992: 4)

Fig 2.1: Conceptual Framework (adapted from Harris, 2012, Weber, 1864-1920)

From the conceptual framework above, the independent variable was bureaucracy which included the principles of division of labour, the authoritative structure, the position of the individual members and the regulatory rules (Weber, 1920: 11). A highly developed division of labour and specialization of tasks is one of the most fundamental features of bureaucracy. This is achieved by a precise and detailed definition of the duties and responsibilities of each position or office. The allocation of a limited number of tasks to

each office operates according to the principle of fixed jurisdictional areas that are determined by administrative regulations. Furthermore, a bureaucratic organization provides the advantages of specialization because every member is assigned a specialized task to perform. The structure of form is created by specifying the duties and responsibilities and reporting relationships within a command hierarchy. Structure sets the pace and framework for the functioning of the organization. In bureaucratic organizations, the measure of objectivity is ensured by prescribing in advance the criteria for decision making in routine situations. The rules, regulations, specialization, structure and training impart predictability and thereby ensure stability in the organization. Conformity to rules and roles in the structural framework bring about order to cope with complexity; and emphasis on qualifications and technical competence make the organization more democratic. Officials are guided by the prescribed rules, policies and practices rather than by patronage or other privileged treatment.

The dependent variable was decision-making which was based on rationality, bounded rationality, politics and power. However, from literature, decision-making involves problem recognition and definition, goal selection, identification of alternatives and choice of decision. Ideally, the constructs under bureaucracy would provide appropriate attainment of decisions in organizations through problem identification and definition, goal selection, identification of alternatives and the final choice of decision. However, organizations do not operate in a vacuum. Therefore there are several factors that act as moderating variables and may affect appropriate decision-making even in effective bureaucracies. These may include, but be not limited to, the following: Environment in

organization, Knowledge of members, Organizational Culture, National policies, Political interference, donors and associations as explained below.

Division of labour is an arrangement whereby people perform different functions at the same time. Though the term 'division of labour' is applied in the field of economics, in modern society it is not limited simply to labour but applies to all the factors of production and exists beyond the purely economic field. There are three forms of division of labour: social, technical and territorial divisions of labour (Agarwal, 2014: 14). Division of labour has a profound effect on the bargaining opportunity of staff in an organization. Bargaining constitutes the baseline of collective decision-making in negotiations. In order to maximize their return, bargaining actors rely on threats and promises that have to be executed outside the assembly itself. Credibility increases with the attractiveness of an actor's 'best available alternative to agreement'. Accordingly, the outcome of a bargaining process, i.e., the distribution of gains, can be expected to reflect, by and large, the distribution of power among the actors involved (Elster, 1989: 28). If decisions may be adopted by a majority, bargaining may stop short of consensus

Working productively and developing feelings of cooperation and effectiveness in organizations is related to having the right people in the right positions of authority doing the right jobs. Structure, then, can be defined as a system of interrelated jobs, groups of jobs, and authority. There is no standard organizational structure, but most organizations and agencies follow the "Christmas Tree" system with the star (for example Vice Chancellor, Deputy Vice Chancellors, Deans) at the top, smaller branches at management

levels, and bigger branches at the implementation levels. Some would claim that the lower branches support the upper branches, but as in the tree, the branches are supported by a single trunk, which can be thought of as the organizational mission and objectives. Each part of the tree has its specific functioning in the decision-making process. When all parts work together, the system survives and functions productively; has balance, and can be successful in its endeavours.

Universities have regulatory rules that often affect the decision-making process because of the code of conduct expected of the members. For instance, it is the moral duty of members of university decision-making bodies to take part in meetings, except for cases of representing the interests of the Board at other meetings, or other employment, or a pre-organized leave authorized by the Vice Chancellor. The facts of the above hindrance and its reasons are to be reported (if they are known) to the organizer of the meeting well in advance; the organizers are to make sure that the decisions made are well grounded; they are to aim at objectivity and be responsible in considering the consequences of decisions. They are to consider the opinion of all concerned in the questions on the agenda. They should express their opinion in brief and in a civilized way. Furthermore, it is the moral duty of members of decision-making bodies to prepare for meetings and do their best to make well-grounded decisions that influence the lives and circumstances of the students and employees of the University. In case conditions for a well-grounded decision are not provided (not all information is available) they are obliged to make amendments. It is the duty of all taking part in the work of the decision-making bodies to represent views that are objective and in coherence with the interest and opinions of all

concerned. They are to provide constant information to those they represent. Members of the decision-making bodies should aim at a correct process where all views are evaluated.

Although not formally part of university governance, outside forces such as state governments, donors, accreditors (such as the National Council for Higher Education [NCHE]), and associations (such as the Alumni) often affect decision-making processes through funding, persuasion, policy and guidelines. These other groups are important to acknowledge, even if their influence is infrequent and not formally defined by a Universities Act, statement, or set of principles. Legislatures use budget allocation as a way to influence university decision-making outside the formal decision-making processes. Individual donors might ask to have a say in certain institutional decisions in exchange for a monetary contribution to the institution. The government can establish rules and regulations that indirectly affect university decision-making. For example, regulations about affirmative action have had an effect on university admissions decisions and policies. Accreditors and associations also have the some influence on decision-making in universities. Accreditors, for example, can define requirements for a certain field of study. These requirements influence the decision-making processes at universities that want to retain their accreditation status.

1.9. Significance of the Study

Education is fundamental to the development of Uganda as a nation. Therefore, it is necessary to ensure that the management especially of higher institutions is carefully done to ensure that the teaching staff do their best to achieve the best outcomes in terms

of graduates, who will in turn serve the country. It is hoped that the findings will provide a basis for improvements in university management and will also be useful to the stakeholders in a number of ways. For instance, the findings will provide a new basis for policy makers to take decisions about mitigating the challenges affecting the management of institutions of higher learning in Uganda. The findings will create an awareness and understanding among university managers about the salient management challenges that need not be taken for granted but rather be given due attention for effective outputs.

The findings will be used by the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) in formulating and designing management training programmes and strategies for university managers.

The findings will be used by the university managers in identifying some of the major factors that lead to poor results in the universities.

Lastly, but not least, the findings will also act as a source of reference for researchers who intend to carry out research in higher education management.

1.10. Justification of the Study

Universities are large and generally complex organizations, having many inter-related facets and areas that need to be coordinated, managed together to achieve efficiency and effectiveness in realizing stated goals and objectives (Drucker, 2003: 29). Such organizations also need to be adaptive; they need to respond to ongoing changes in the environments in which they operate, e.g. the political, social, economic and technological

conditions that together form the environment in which organizations operate. One of the ways this can be done is through the adoption of the bureaucratic style of management. However, no studies have been done to provide empirical evidence on the effect of bureaucracy on decision-making in such large organizations, and particularly in universities in Uganda. This was the justification for the present study.

1.11. Scope of the Study

1.11.1. Geographical Scope

The study focused on the effect of bureaucracy on decision-making in public and private universities located in Uganda. There are 11 public and 33 private universities in Uganda and distributed in the four regions around the country. By their nature of organization, universities are bureaucratic in structure of governance. In this regard, they have marked division of labour, authoritative structures, clearly marked positions and roles of the individual members, and specific rules that regulate the relations between organizational members. Most of the universities have been faced with perpetual strikes and riots. These strikes and riots are believed to be directly or indirectly related to university governance and decision-making because Trakman (2008: 670), citing Lambardi et al (2002), argues that the challenges faced by university governance are based on their bureaucratic nature and decision-making. It is on this basis that this study focused on bureaucracy and decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.

1.11.2. Content Scope

In terms of content scope, the study focused on the examination of the effect of the division of labour on decision-making in universities; the effect of authoritative structure

on decision making; the effect of the position of the individual staff on decision-making, and on the effect of regulatory rules on decision-making in universities.

1.11.3. Time Scope

The period between 2008 and 2013 was considered for this study; this being the period during which the number of universities and their individual enrolments increased tremendously, thereby creating further complexity in decision-making management

1.12. Operational Definitions

Bureaucracy: is an organization made up of many departments and divisions that are administered by lots of people. Bureaucratic organization is characterized by a rational and impersonal regulation of inferior-superior relationships.

Decision-making: is the thought process of selecting a logical choice from the available options.

Division of labour: precise and detailed definition of the duties and responsibilities of each position or office.

Authoritative structures: these are the fixed jurisdictional areas that are determined by administrative regulations within a bureaucratic organization.

Position of individual: this is related to having the right people in the right positions of authority doing the right jobs.

Regulatory rules: is the moral duty of members of the organization decision-making bodies to take part in meeting, except for cases of representing the interests of the Board at other meetings, or other employment.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a review of related literature about bureaucracy and decision-making in organizations. The review begins with a theoretical review of the theory underpinning the study before delving into the historical trajectory of the use of bureaucracy in decision making, focusing on the division of labour and decision-making in university contexts. The review further delves into authoritative structures and decision-making in universities, and on individual participation and decision-making in university contexts. Finally, the literature review focuses on the regulatory rules and decision-making in university contexts. The review is based on studies by various academicians and writers on issues of bureaucracy and decision-making in organizations and institutions around the world. Therefore, the review presents some selected empirical studies on university management and gaps that were identified to justify the present study.

2.2. Theoretical Review

The study was based on the mainly based on Max Weber theory of bureaucratic management. This was done in comparison with the principal-agency theory and the systems theory. Ludwig theory discusses three theories: the iron triangle theory, the principal agent theory and the issue network theory. The iron triangle theory gives an overview of an alliance of people from three groups that comprises of the faculties that deal with issues of the students, the university council that enforces laws on how faculties

should operate and other stakeholders. The members of the triangle often know each other well and members frequently move from one department to another. Members of the iron triangle work together to create decisions that serve their interests. The issue of network theory looks at individuals who support a specific decision not a broader one. The three parts of the iron triangle are often parts of a single issue network though other people may also be part of the network. These may include: scholars, the media and experts. By working together, members of an issue network can shape and determine decision making in a university.

In his 1944 work on bureaucracy, the Austrian economist Ludwig von Mises was highly critical of all bureaucratic systems. He believed that bureaucracy should be the target of universal opprobrium, and noticed that in the political sphere it had few defenders, even among progressives. Ludwig saw bureaucratic processes at work in both the private and public spheres. This particularly makes the theory applicable to this comparative study of public and private contexts. Ludwig believed that bureaucratization in the private sphere could only occur as a consequence of government interference. He wrote that no private enterprise would ever fall prey to bureaucratic methods of management if it was operated with the sole aim of making profit (Ludwig, 1944: 56). However, this does not seem to be the case in Uganda. Instead, the majority of the universities, both public and private, have embraced the bureaucratic methods of management that could be responsible for the perpetual disagreements within universities in the country.

The principal-agent theory has spawned a large amount of recent research in economics, finance, accounting, organizational behaviour, political science, and sociology (Donaldson, 1990: 97). Its proponents prophesy that a revolution is at hand, that agency and related theories can greatly improve our understanding of why organizations exist and how they work (Hesterly, Liebeskind & Zenger, 1990: 107). However, some scholars are troubled by these theories' underlying assumptions about human behaviour and organizational processes. An agency relationship is present whenever one party (the principal) depends on another party (the agent) to undertake some action on the principal's behalf (Donaldson, 1990: 123). Hence, any employment relationship, especially in universities, is an agency relationship. The hiring university or a manager representing the owner's interests is the principal and the staff is the agent. In public universities, the principal include the government that also works for the major principal - citizens. Given that most universities consist of multiple employees at various organizational levels, the deans, heads of department, lecturers, among others, developing and implementing decision-making strategies and programmes necessarily involves managing agency relationships. The private universities, too, have principal-agency arrangements since most of them have 'owners' and those in management work on behalf of the proprietors of these universities.

To accompany the above two theories, this study adds the systems theory. Modern management is characterized by two approaches, the systems and the contingency. The systems approach views the organization (universities in this case) as a total system comprising interacting subsystems, all of which are in complex interaction with the

relevant external environment (Lerman & Turner, 1992: 36). Universities are considered “input-transformation-output systems” that compete for resources. The survival and prosperity of such organizations depends on effective adaptation to the environment, which means identifying a good strategy for marketing its outputs (products and services), obtaining necessary resources, and dealing with external threats.

Survival and prosperity also depend on the efficiency of the transformation process used by the organization to produce its goods and services, on worker motivation, and on cooperation. Decision-making in universities constitutes part of the transformation processes. Efficiency of the transformation process is increased by finding more rational ways to organize and perform the work and by deciding how to make the best use of available technology, resources and personnel (Donaldson, 1990: 139). Top management has the primary responsibility for designing an appropriate organizational structure, determining authority relationships, and coordinating operations across specialized subunits of the organization (Yuki, 1994: 145). Ideally, this is the essence of bureaucracy in organizations. A system can survive only when it delivers an output that can be exchanged for new inputs as well as for maintaining the system. The inputs in the universities include, but are not limited to, maintenance and production inputs such as instructional materials and the students. The outputs include the systems return products to the environment such as the graduates. In a transformation process, decisions made by those in authority can have significant implications on the outputs in respect to their quality.

The other theory considered was the Institutional Theory that attends to the deeper and more resilient aspects of social structure. It considers the processes by which structures, including schemas, rules, norms, and routines, become established as authoritative guidelines for social behaviour (Scott, 2004: 133). It looks into how these elements are created, diffused, adopted, and adapted over space and time; and how they fall into decline and disuse. Although the ostensible subject is stability and order in social life, students of institutions must perforce attend not just to consensus and conformity but to conflict and change in social structures. Scott (2001: 157) asserts that institutions (universities) are social structures that have attained a high degree of resilience. The institutions are composed of cultural-cognitive, normative, and regulative elements that, together with associated activities and resources, provide stability and meaning to social life. Institutions are transmitted by various types of carriers, including symbolic systems, relational systems, routines and artifacts.

Institutions operate at different levels of jurisdiction, from the world system to localized interpersonal relationships. Institutions, by definition, connote stability but are subject to change processes, both incremental and discontinuous. Powell and DiMaggio (1991: 235) shed light on the meaning of institutions by offering a definition of the (neo-) institutional field: The new institutionalism in organization theory and sociology comprises a rejection of rational-actor models, an interest in institutions as independent variables, a turn toward cognitive and cultural explanations, and an interest in properties of supra-individual units of analysis that cannot be reduced to aggregations or direct consequences of individuals' attributes or motives.

2.3. The Use of Bureaucracy in Decision-making - A Historical Trajectory

Although the term bureaucracy was not coined until the mid-1700s, the idea of rule-bound administrative systems is much older. The development of writing (ca. 3500 BCE) and the use of documents were critical to the administration of this system, and the first definitive emergence of bureaucracy is an ancient concept, where an emergent class of scribes administered the harvest and allocated its spoils (Hyden, Court and Mease, 2003: 127). Ancient Egypt also had a hereditary class of scribes that administered the civil service bureaucracy. Much of what is known today of these cultures comes from the writing of the scribes.

On the other hand, the concept of governance for universities predominantly refers to the internal structure, organization and management of autonomous schools, colleges and departments (Aurangzeb, 2012: 149). The organization of internal governance is generally composed of a governing board (Council, Board of Directors), the University Vice Chancellor (Executive Head, CEO) with a team of administrative staff, faculty senates, academic deans, department chairs, and usually some form of organization for student representation. In the United States, state institution governing boards often emphasize the concept of citizen governance in recognizing that board members serve a civic role for the institution. Managing structures themselves have become increasingly complex to establish a means of organizing an equally complicated system of intra-organizational, inter-organizational and governmental relationships (Okwakol, 2009: 97). Whether university education, adult education, technical and vocational education, the

complexities of managing education in today's world are challenging and prove true at all levels of private and public education.

As universities have become increasingly interdependent with external forces, institutions are accountable to external organizational relationships such as local and central governments, equally in managing business and corporate relationships. The nature of the managing relationships characterizes whether governance is corporate and business oriented or defined more by a collegial shared form of governance (Aurangzeb, 2012: 99). Governance in this sense is discussed by Kezar and Eckel (2004), who define it at the macro level of policy decision-making. Kezar and Eckel (2004: 117) suggest that governance is a multi-level concept including several different bodies and processes with different decision-making functions. In this way, governance is sometimes defined at difference to the internal management of institutions. Throughout the world, many central and local governments have begun to establish coordinating and governing boards as both buffer and bridge to coordinate governance and institutional management.

With the complexity of internal structures, the external relationships between institutions and local, state, and national governments are evidently equally differentiated, given the different forms of government in the international system (Aurangzeb, 2012: 119). External governing relationships depend much on institutions, government policy, and any other formal or informal organizational obligations. Generally, institutions are recognized as autonomous actors with varying degrees of interdependence with, and legislated commitments to the external stakeholders, local and national government.

Most managers have been brought up in, and trained for, an environment of certainty, whereas they now have to cope with increased complexity, uncertainty and turbulence. The traditional authoritarian, control-oriented decision-making style, when applied in an uncertain environment, can lead to destabilization of relationships and behaviours, and also to unanticipated behaviours and possible explosive instability (McElwee, 1998: 114). What is needed is a complex style of leadership – a transformational, facilitative or influencing leader (Fitzgerald and van Eijnatten, 1998: 178). Managers need to set the organization's direction and create the environment in which staff can operate (Gibson, 1996: 93), and the lower levels can steer (control) the organization in the direction specified by management (McGlone and Ramsey, 1998: 123). Managers create the conditions in which individuals, teams and the system are encouraged to respond spontaneously to the changing environment (Fitzgerald and van Eijnatten, 1998: 97), thereby enabling people to “self-organize” and so keep pace with the rapid changes (Baskin, 1998: 117), especially with respect to decision making.

Decision-making is considered as the process by which top management (including, but not limited to, University Council, Senate, Vice Chancellor, University Secretary and Registrar) makes its most fundamental decisions. Decisions are important, in terms of the action taken, the resources committed, or the precedents set (Mintzberg et al, 1976: 124). Research on decision-making processes has been fairly extensive, and the literature reveals a large number of decision modes (Das, 1986: 29; Schwenk, 1995: 124). Each of them denotes a different perspective for the decision-making process and highlights particular aspects of the process. Considerable empirical evidence has been found to

support a number of these modes (Hart and Banbury, 1994: 119; Schwenk, 1995: 129). Since the coexistence of many seemingly contradictory decision-making modes generates much confusion, researchers have often felt the need to classify various modes (Cyert and Williams, 1993: 189; Lyles and Thomas, 1998: 117).

Eisenhardt and Zbaracki (1992: 197) proposed three dominant paradigms of decision making processes: rationality and bounded rationality; politics and power; and garbage can. The rational and bounded rational paradigm are concerned with the degree to which decision makers have purposes, and describes decision-making as a rather purposive, systematic and comprehensive process (Allison, 1997: 112). In the case of universities, the leadership should be engaged in defining the purpose of the university, establishing the vision, and developing supporting strategies to achieve it; deciding what to do, when and how. Accordingly, strategic decisions are made by the members of the university who have the ultimate responsibility to ensure fulfilment of its purpose and who accept the consequences when it does not. For the universities, strategic decisions are made by the Senate through the Vice Chancellor, who bears responsibility to the University Council.

In these two paradigms, decision-makers are supposed to start with known objectives, then collect information, develop alternatives and finally identify the optimal course of action (Simon, 2005). The politics and power mode posits that the emergence, competition and resolution of conflicting interests are the essence of strategic decision processes (Baldrige, 1997: 118). As decision-makers harbour different and often

conflicting goals in organizations, decision-making often becomes a political operation whose ultimate result reflects the preference of the most powerful coalition. Finally, the garbage can mode (Simon, 2005: 187) portrays decision-making processes as organized anarchies, in which a decision is largely dependent on chance and timing. In this kind of process, decision-makers do not know their objectives ex-ante, but merely look around for decisions to make. This could be the case for the universities in Uganda, given the scenarios that have manifested in Makerere and Kyambogo universities.

Similarly, Hickson (1998: 119) identified three basic modes of decision-making: dual rationality, incrementalism and garbage can. Hickson's garbage can mode is very similar to that of Eisenhardt and Zbaracki (1992: 89) in that he believes that decision-making using this mode is largely dependent on chance and timing. The dual rationality mode posits that decision-making is a process of handling both problems and politics (Hickson, 1998: 171), so that it could be viewed as an integration of the rational mode and the political mode. For instance, sometimes top management in Makerere University allows resolution of conflicting interests through the essence of strategic decision processes while, at other times, decisions are left under the ambit of those with power. This has also been observed in the case of Kyambogo University where the Vice Chancellor has persistently been accused of making decisions alone. Although the different perspectives on decision-making have often been viewed as competitive explanations of decision-making processes, several authors have argued that they are complementary (Browne, 1993: 117; Harrison, 1995: 132).

Incremental decision-making, on the other hand, is a step-by-step process and the strategy is always amenable to adjustment. A series of incremental actions is adopted to ensure that large, complex strategic problems are factored into smaller, less complex, and hence more manageable increments for implementation (Joyce, 1998: 187). There is some distinction to be made between logical incrementalism (Quinn, 1998: 112) and disjointed incrementalism (Lindblom, 1999: 197); the difference being in whether there is consistency among the increments towards a broad (rather than local) objective (Joyce, 1998: 117). The garbage can mode is the same one as in Simon's (2005: 119) study.

On their part, Lyles and Thomas (1998: 176) listed five primary modes of decision-making: rational, avoidance, adaptive, political and decisive. Four of these are similar to the modes identified by Hickson (1998: 111) and Eisenhardt and Zbaracki (1992: 173). For example, the adaptive mode is largely based on logical incrementalism, and the garbage can mode is the key constituent of the decisive mode. On the other hand, the avoidance mode (Cyert and March, 1996: 45) which delineates decision-making as a systematic process aimed at maintaining the status quo appears to be an important supplement. In essence, the avoidance mode is about avoiding the identification of new problems so that strategic changes can be rendered unnecessary (Janis and Mann, 1997: 178). This is also typical of the situation in Uganda's universities where, at times, decision-making is delineated to ensuring a status quo in the interest of only a few.

An examination of the above typologies indicates a considerable degree of consensus regarding what the major modes of strategic decision-making are. However, it should be

noted that there are various other frameworks of decision-making in the literature (Hart and Banbury, 1994: 11; Nutt, 1998: 187). For instance, Shrivastava and Grant (1998: 119) suggested four prototypical patterns of decision-making namely: autocracy, bureaucracy, adaptive and political. However, these four prototypical patterns of decision-making remain largely unexplored especially with reference to the management of universities. Decision makers are known to rely on a few judgemental rules, or heuristics, to simplify complex decision situations. Although these rules of thumb are often necessary and useful, they also introduce challenges that can lead to severe and systematic errors in decision-making (Kahneman et al, 1998: 111). Thus, challenges can be viewed as a negative consequence of adopting heuristics. Challenges divert decision-makers away from making optimal decisions in terms of utility maximization.

In a nutshell, three conceptually distinct aspects of decision-making can be distinguished: cognitive aspects, for which the rational label is generally employed; social interaction aspects, usually labelled as political; and environmental adaptation aspects, for which different labels have been used. The present study maintains the rational label for cognitive aspects, the political label for social aspects, and uses the entrepreneurial label for aspects of environmental adaptation. More specifically, under the rational label, the present study will consider the extent of thorough and systematic information processing and the development of alternative courses of action. The political label includes aspects such as the influence of power and political actions on decision processes, the scope for negotiations, and the extent of openness to others reflected in the search for agreement. The entrepreneurial label, preferred for its broadness, encompasses the definitions of

“flexibility”, “originality” and “assertiveness” mentioned previously. This label covers aspects such as creativity and novelty in finding alternatives, acceptance of risk and change, and pro-activeness in the identification of problems and opportunities.

2.4. Division of Labour and Decision-making in University Contexts

Division of labour is the specialization of cooperating individuals who perform specific tasks and roles (Garicano and Hubbard, 2003: 192). Historically, an increasingly complex division of labour is associated with the growth of total output, the rise of capitalism, and of the complexity of industrialized processes. The concept and implementation of division of labour has been observed in ancient Sumerian (Mesopotamian) culture, where assignment of jobs in some cities coincided with an increase in trade and economic interdependence (Garicano and Santos, 2001: 117). In addition to trade and economic interdependence, division of labour generally increases both producer and individual worker productivity. In a university setting, for example, division of labour leads to greater coverage of work as various people are able to handle several projects and programmes within a set time frame.

In the broadest sense, the extension of the division of labour is the fundamental feature of a modern or developed economy in which gigantic increases in the volume and variety of production have been attained - but at the cost of massively increasing economic interdependence within larger and larger populations spread over larger and larger geographical areas (Garicano and Hubbard, 2003: 105). In such a complex society, instead of each individual or family attempting to produce all or most of what it consumes, the individual specializes in producing only a few kinds of good or service (or

perhaps only small components of a single good or service) and then acquires all other desired goods or services from the production of other specialists by means of mutual exchange (or, in non-market economies, perhaps through coercive or customary transfer). In universities, different faculties and departments are engaged in the development of specific skills in the students and, at the end of the day, the students are able to graduate with desired skills in a given profession.

In the universities, staff are involved in different activities to ensure the availability of services to students and for the overall well-being of the university. Although these activities may be different in a number of aspects, they have a social connectedness (Okwakol, 2009: 78). An intricate and changing relationship of cooperation and exchange among university staff exists within the institution, which is potentially conflictual. Despite the conflictual nature of this relationship, the division of labour in universities is the main economic strategy used to meet basic community needs for shelter, food, health and education (Kayongo, 2009: 89). A number of factors are responsible for the division of labour today: some are gender-neutral and others are gender-biased. For example, teaching, planning and administration are activities ascribed to different staff. They have come about as a result of specialization and not necessarily from ability based on comparative advantage. Other variables responsible for the division of labour, and more common in most rural societies, have to do with the allocation of activities to individuals based on kinship, age, descent, culture, education, status and marriage (Garicano and Hubbard, 2003: 39).

The gap in the literature under division of labour and decision-making in the university context is that most of the literature is not about Uganda and not necessarily universities. For instance, division of labour has been found to increase productivity in Mesopotamia and in the business sector. None of the literature has focused on education or universities in particular. This justified the present study in order to establish its effect in university management.

2.5. Individual Participation of Staffs and Decision-Making in Universities

People at professional or non-professional levels are often involved in daily decision making, whether for simple or complicated problems. More and more people realized that intuition is essential to making good and right decisions, particularly for those managers at all levels in an organization who sometimes are under the conditions of high uncertainty or little precedent (David, 2009: 78). The factors of intuitive decision-making style consist of experience, knowledge and others (Harteis, Koch & Morgenthaler, 2008: 45). It is learnt that not only managers and owners of businesses profess to possess competences for using intuition alone in decision-making, but actually academicians (tutors, lecturers and professors) also inject their intuition and judgement into their decision-making process. Generally, academicians are required to have a high educational level and wide experience in their areas of expertise. The nature of their jobs indeed plays an important role in research activities and also journals contribution. As yet, there had been no specific study that pertains to academicians with intuitive decision-making style and, furthermore, the previous researchers prefer to revolve around managers in intuitive decision-making (David, 2009: 79). Whatever the mode, decision-

making has been argued to be participative if it is to be effective. There was no empirical evidence for the Ugandan universities and this justified the present study.

Participation is generally defined as a process which allows employees some influence over their work and the conditions under which they work (Heller, Pusic, Strauss & Wilpert, 1998: 78). For example, Locke, Schweiger and Lathan (1986: 98) define Participation in Decision Making (PDM) as joint decision-making. This refers to decisions being made by a manager in collaboration with subordinates. However, this definition does not suffice, as the finality of the decision lies with the manager; thus, employees do not have any real influence over their work or work conditions. It also excludes delegation, which has been explicitly included by other theorists (Cotton, Lengnick-Hall and Jennings, 1988: 56; Sagie & Aycan, 2003: 65). One of the most comprehensive definitions of PDM is proposed by Heller, et al.; (2009; 89). The value of this definition lies in capturing different forms of PDM, including direct (i.e. personal) and indirect (i.e. representative) participation, as well as intensities of participation (minimal to comprehensive). It also allows employees a certain level of influence over their work or working conditions, which was neglected in their definition proposed by Locke et al.; (1986: 78). With this understanding of PDM in mind, the theoretical rationale for implementing PDM programmes was explored from an organizational perspective, as well as human resource perspective.

Studies from different scholars present different findings. According to Adams and Adams (2006), the current education system in many countries focuses only on analytical

skills. On top of that, Klein (2006: 99) supported that educational staff prefer to use systematic methods in problem solving regardless of a complex or simple problem, whereas intuitive decision is more difficult to use in complex situations. Davis and Davis (2003; 97) also argued that school principals tend to decide intuitively. Apart from that, an individual academician has unique characteristics such as field of expertise, working experience, age and others. Thus, it is necessary to look at how different personal factors relate with intuitive decision-making style of academicians. Sinclair and Ashkanasy (2002: 56) believed that time pressure is also another factor that influences intuitive decision-making style. In addition, Martin, Bandali and Lamoureux (2005: 67) found that decision-makers would use heuristics decision-making style in high-time pressure than intuitive decision-making style. The research finding is aligned with the study of Judge and Robbins (2006: 76); they argued that decision-makers use intuitive decision-making style when time is restricted and they are pressurized.

Khatri and Ng (2000: 143) examined the important role of intuition in strategic decision making. The study focused on senior managers of companies representing computer, banking, and utility industries in the US. The study found that intuitive processes are often used in organizational decision-making. The use of intuitive synthesis was found to be positively related to organizational performance in an unstable environment, but negatively related in a stable environment. Research by Klein (2006: 112) examined the comparison of educational decisions between intuitive and computerized Decision Support System (DSS). Respondents were divided into two groups and they were asked to resolve an educational problem. The holistic procedure and DSS programme were used

accordingly. Individual group was presented with an identical dilemma but at different levels of complexity. One group had been offered a limited number of alternatives to solve a limited number of criteria in order to compare the effectiveness of the various alternatives. The other group was presented with a larger number of alternatives to solve a larger number of criteria. The findings showed that respondents gained a similar result when they solved a simple question using intuitive or computerized decision support system. However, when respondents solved the complex questions, the two approaches achieved different results.

On the other hand, Hayes, Allinson and Armstrong (2004: 48) measured the gender perspectives of managers and non-managers or whether women are more intuitive than men in general. This research examined the gender differences by using Cognitive Style Index to measure the intuition of managers and non-managers in United Kingdom. They found that there was no difference between female and male managers in terms of using intuition. But, excitingly, the researchers found that female non-managers were more analytical than male non-managers and female managers. Pretz (2008: 99) examined the effects of intuitive and analytical strategy and the level of experience on problem solving. Undergraduates were requested to provide response in the research in order to test their problem solving abilities in college life. Research results showed that the chosen appropriateness of strategy depends on the problem solver's level of experience. They found out that more experienced respondents would prefer intuitive perspective than analytical.

Active public participation and involvement – whether at public meetings, in the public media or by means of public enquiries, thereby demonstrating an inquisitive and challenging mind – are all important elements of the dynamics of local participatory democracy. Such participation can constitute input by individuals or via civic-based organizations. One of the greatest challenges in African States remains how to ensure people at local level, particularly in the rural areas, participate in local politics (Mensah, 2002; 56). The low turnout at Local Government elections in many African countries is a matter of concern, whatever the reasons. Participation can, thus, take different forms. It may comprise the articulation of problems and needs (housing, electricity, roads); participation in decision-making; participation in the execution of decisions; participation as a control function, or most importantly, being an active and integrative participant in the community (Pretz, 2008: 113).

The kind of participation described above involves the obligation to take part actively in local authority elections at regular intervals. Participation as an integral part of local democracy will become a farce if it is practiced only as a privilege for the few and not as a right for all. A workable democracy at local level presupposes the institution of stable local representative systems, characterized by a productive working relationship among all local players (Pretz, 2008:114). Usually, such a process involves the development of authoritative capacity and structures, efficient in decision-making and administration, capable of finding answers to questions regarding the nature and standard of services required the priorities in a given community, the viability and affordability of services demanded, and the financial means to satisfy them. This involved effective working

relations with higher levels of Government, due particularly to resource scarcities in most local areas.

Innes and Booher (2003: 98) asserted that the central contention for effective participatory methods involves collaboration, dialogue and interaction. They are not reactive but focused on anticipating and defining future actions. They are self-organizing both in content and membership. They challenge the status quo and ask hard questions about things otherwise taken for granted. They seek agreement or at least build shared knowledge and heuristics for collaborative action. This framework is not based on the mechanistic imagery of citizens pushing on government, but on the complex systems imagery of a fluid network of interacting agents, gathering information from each other and the environment and acting autonomously based on their needs, understandings, and shared heuristics (Axelrod & Cohen, 1999: 157; Kelly, 1997: 143).

Innes and Booher (2004: 88) identified five purposes of public participation in policy decision-making as follows: (i) Participation is for decision-makers to find out what the public's preferences are so these can play a part in their decisions. (ii) It is to improve decisions by incorporating citizens' local knowledge into the calculus. Both purposes are increasingly important as government gets larger and more distant from its constituencies. (iii) Participation is meant to advance fairness and justice. There are systematic reasons why the needs and preferences of many groups, particularly the least advantaged, are not recognized through the normal information sources and analytic procedures. These needs may only come onto the radar screen during an open

participation process. (iv) Public participation is about getting legitimacy for public decisions. (v) Participation is something planners and public officials do because the law requires it.

In the United States of America, the purposes enumerated above are said to be achieved through the practice of collaborative participation (Connick & Innes, 2003: 79). In collaborative participation, participants -- public agencies, powerful private interests, and disadvantaged citizens -- are treated equally within the discussions. In these collaborative processes, learning takes place, and often conflicts are resolved, and innovations emerge (Healey, 1997: 70). Innes (1996: 81) also said that in collaborative participation, interdependences are uncovered and participants can discover how all may benefit from improving a resource. These interdependences are among the social, political and economic realities and these play a vital role in the formation and upbringing of the community. Rittel and Webber (1973: 78) suggested the sixth and the seventh purposes of participation which are; (vi) Participation can be to build civil society; (vii) To create an adaptive, self-organizing polity capable of addressing wicked problems in an informed and effective way.

Participation in decision-making offers various benefits at all levels of the organization. Rice (2007: 56) explains that putting decision-making power as close as possible to the point of delivery makes that implementation of those decisions not only possible, but also successful. Participation in decision-making leads to harmony in the organization (Ward and Pascarelli, 2004: 178) and improves staff morale and support (Parshiadis, 2007: 99).

By creating a sense of ownership in the company, participation in decision-making instils a sense of pride and motivates employees to increase productivity in order to achieve their goals. Employees who participate in the decisions of the company feel like they are a part of a team with a common goal, and find their sense of self-esteem and creative fulfilment heightened (Helms, 2006: 89).

Managers who use a participative style find that employees are more receptive to change than in situations in which they have no voice. Changes are implemented more effectively when employees have input and make contributions to decisions. Participation keeps employees informed of upcoming events so they will be aware of potential changes. The organization can then place itself in a proactive mode instead of a reactive one, as managers are able to quickly identify areas of concern and turn to employees for solutions (Helms, 2006: 93). Participation helps employees gain a wider view of the organization. Through training, development opportunities and information sharing, employees can acquire the conceptual skills needed to become effective managers or top executives. It also increases the commitment of employees to the organization and the decisions they make (Helms, 2006: 94). Creativity and innovation are two important benefits of participative management. By allowing a diverse group of employees to have input into decisions, the organization benefits from the synergy that comes from a wider choice of options. When all employees, instead of just managers or executives, are given the opportunity to participate, chances increase that a valid and unique idea will be suggested (Helms, 2006: 94). Ideally, participation of individuals in the decision-making process in the universities would be befitting.

2.6. Regulatory Rules and Decision-making in University Contexts

Decision-making in teams is influenced by many different factors that are outside of strategic firm-level models. As a result, this research empirically examines how decisions around number, type, and timing of new product introductions are influenced by bias that can arise from shared motivations and goal pursuit strategies in dynamic teams. To that end, regulatory focus theory is utilized, which sheds light on how such bias occurs and can be remedied.

Product managers differ in how they approach problems, tasks, and decisions. Some are more willing to take action quickly, assume risk, and persist in achieving goals. Others are more cautious in their decisions and actions, looking to safeguard against failures and ensure stability. Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997: 98) argues that individuals fundamentally differ in how they approach and pursue goals, either focusing on aspirations and accomplishments (engendering a promotion focus) or on responsibilities and safety (engendering a prevention focus). This study examined the chronic (trait) differences in regulatory focus between members and the ensuing effects on new product decisions.

Individuals with a promotion focus emphasize achievement and the pursuit of gains; they are sensitive to the presence and absence of positive outcomes; they concentrate on hopes, aspirations, and ideals; and they employ approach (eager) strategies, which ensure the presence of positive outcomes (gains) and/or against the absence of positive outcomes (non-gains). Promotion-focused decision-makers favour action and pay less attention to

details, given their strong preference for locomotion rather than waiting (Kruglanski et al., 2000: 156). They choose to act quickly and maintain focus until the activity is complete (Higgins, Kruglanski, and Pierro, 2003: 234). For example, a promotion-focused product manager will be motivated to “get it right” (presence of a positive) with a new product investment, and might act more quickly on a new product investment opportunity.

On the other hand, individuals with a prevention focus emphasize safety and the avoidance of losses; they are sensitive to the presence and absence of negative outcomes; they concentrate on duties, obligations, and “oughts”; and they employ avoidance (vigilant) strategies, which ensure the absence of negative outcomes (non-losses) and/or against the presence of negative outcomes (losses) (Higgins and Spiegel, 2004; 98; Higgins, 2005: 112). They exhibit cautiousness and focus on details (Förster, Higgins and Bianco, 2003: 137), weighing all alternatives and their attributes, taking longer to “do the right thing” (Higgins, Kruglanski, and Pierro, 2003: 56; Kruglanski et al., 2000: 129). For example, a prevention-focused product manager will be motivated to “avoid getting it wrong” (absence of a negative) with a new product, and might deliberate longer over a new product opportunity.

As a result, while all product managers strive to successfully achieve objectives aligned with top management directives, promotion-focused managers typically engage in an eager (or approach) goal pursuit strategy, focusing on achieving the full vision of the product concept, exceeding the expectations of top management in gaining a competitive

advantage, and pursuing more innovative products, thus satisfying their need to achieve the most positive outcomes possible. An eager strategy is defined as one by which individuals seek to ensure the presence of “hits” and against errors of omission (Crowe and Higgins, 1997: 89). On the other hand, prevention-focused managers typically engage in a vigilant (avoidance) goal pursuit strategy, such as making sure to stick closely to the firm’s specific revenue, customer satisfaction, or profit objectives, in an attempt to avoid errors, thus satisfying their need to avert negative outcomes and forgoing opportunities that may lead to greater, yet more risky outcomes.

A vigilant strategy is defined as one by which individuals seek to ensure “correct rejections” and against errors of commission (Crowe and Higgins, 1997: 89). It is important to note that prospect theory (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979: 99) is related to, but different from regulatory focus theory, since the two theories deal with different aspects of how and why individuals approach/avoid pleasure or pain. Regulatory focus theory deals with striving for accomplishment versus striving for safety under the same desired end state or goal, whereas prospect theory deals with gains versus non-gains and losses versus non-losses under different desired end states or goals (Idson, Liberman and Higgins, 2000:78). For example, even when members of a NPD team are motivated by the same positive prospect of attaining profits by successful new product introductions, a promotion focus would lead to viewing earning profits as an accomplishment, whereas a prevention focus would lead to viewing profit attainment as a managerial responsibility to fulfil. Although both would focus on specified organization goals (profits, sales) as their reference point, a promotion-focused manager would approach the desired end goal with

strategic eagerness, whereas a prevention-focused manager would approach it with strategic vigilance. Controlling for regulatory reference, regulatory focus effects persist (Crowe and Higgins, 1997: 45; Shah, Higgins, and Friedman, 1998: 116).

Studies show that there has been renewed interest in the governance of universities and an increasing demand from governments and communities to improve the quality and accountability of universities (Trends in Higher Education Governance, 2009: 59; García-Aracil and Palomares-Montero, 2010: 125; Brown, 2011: 231; Marshall et al., 2011: 236). Moreover, the current global environment in which universities operate and the academic enterprise itself has changed dramatically over the past three decades. Many challenges have also been presented with regard to the way universities are governed, managed and held accountable (Coaldrake et al., 2003: 278; Baldwin, 2009: 159; Brown, 2011: 129; Garrett and Poock, 2011: 189; Marshall et al., 2011: 167). This explains why there have been calls for adopting corporate management of universities, greater instrumentalism in curricula for workforce skilling of graduates, growth in student enrolment, and a change in the nature of academic work itself (García-Aracil and Palomares-Montero, 2010: 241; Brown, 2011: 126; Vidovich and Currie, 2011: 129).

Marshall et al. (2011: 126) believe that “effective leadership and management at all levels of higher education institutions are integral to institutional quality and enhanced innovation”. This is in line with the view of Baldwin (2009: 147) who believes that academics play a crucial role in the success of universities, but that governance is required for the infrastructure and the support to realize quality and innovation. He

explicitly states that governance is “the glue that holds the university together” (Baldwin, 2009: 149). The challenges facing universities could be reduced by enhancing the ability of governance to sustain and strengthen the essential nature of the university and facilitate responsiveness to the needs of the people (Baldwin, 2009: 149). However, to achieve this, the governance environment under which universities operate needed to be understood.

2.7. Authoritative Structures and Decision-making in Universities

Effective management of universities involves the authorities making decisions about fundamental policies and practices in several critical areas concerning universities. Obondoh (2001: 39) suggests that university managers across the world should put emphasis on the following issues: degree requirement, standards expected in student performance, quality of research and public service activities; and freedom available to individual faculty members in their institutional and research efforts. According to Obondoh (2001: 29) besides the issues above, university managers in the world should consider the following: the appointment of staff, internal organizational structure; and the allocation of available resources to operate and support programmes for effective governance.

In university management, there are at least five important decision-making dimensions that have to be made (Murphy, 2000; 89). These dimensions include academic decisions on core activities; administrative decisions about resource acquisition, allocation and expenditure; accountability to stakeholders; unforeseen challenges and strategic planning. According to Birnbaum (1992: 77), as cited in Gayle (2003: 29), decisions in Australian

universities are made by politicians, civil servants and various interest groups. Gayle, Tewarie and White (2003: 39) consider this undemocratic and likely to create dependence on government bureaucracy by the universities. Such dependence might kill institutional initiatives, incentives and innovations in management. On the other hand, Gayle et al (2003: 78) argue that putting powers and resources in the hands of local communities would promote responsibility and informed decision-making for effective governance in universities.

Universities and other Tertiary Institutions in Uganda are governed by University and Other Tertiary Institutions Act 2001 as amended. The Act empowers universities to constitute governing boards, councils, appointments boards, senate and academic boards as organs of authority. These organs of authority monitor and control performance of universities and other tertiary institutions as stipulated by Act 2001 as amended. The organs are constantly involved in decision-making processes that include, but are not limited to staff welfare, curriculum, infrastructural development and student welfare. Sometimes, decisions made by the various authoritative organs have led to problems within the universities and other tertiary institutions.

For instance, between 2007 and 2008 a number of decisions were made and approved by Kyambogo University Council and these include restructuring of staff, appointments, salaries and benefits (Kyambogo University Strategic Plan 2006/7: 13). These have caused unrest among the academic staff at Kyambogo University. The academic staff took the issue to the Courts of Law, (Rwothumio, Musaaazi, & Orodho, 2016:30) which

courts ruled in favour of the academic staff and ordered management of Kyambogo University to reverse the earlier decision on appointment letters. Kyambogo University Council did not play its role to the satisfaction of the academic staff; instead the Courts of Law had to resolve the matter. The legal costs paid by the University, in addition to the time lost and unrest, caused disruptions in operations of the University. Furthermore, there was turbulence caused by the non-academic staff of Kyambogo University for fear that the University management could delay issuing integration letters to unfairly lay them off and replace them with other people (Rwothumio, Musaazi, & Orodho, 2016: 31).

Another typical example where organs of authority in a university setting made decisions that have had significant impact on management of the university is in Makerere University. Between 2005 and 2008, Makerere University Council made decisions and approved a new fees structure for the academic year 2005/2006. This caused public outcry and Government had to intervene and stopped the increase in fees (Mugume, 2015: 31). In another case, Makerere University Business School (MUBS) Council in 2003 as an affiliated Institute of Makerere University approved new fees structure which included computer and medical fees recommended by Management in the strategic plan 2003/04 and were to be paid annually by all students. However, continuing students agitated and refused to pay computer and medical fees. This caused unrest in the student community to the extent of students disrupting lectures at MUBS campus (Mugume, 2015: 31).

In a similar situation, Mbarara University of Science and Technology (MUST) had a debt of Shillings 420 million as compensation to former owners of University Inn buildings since 1989 which the University Council and top management failed to settle and instead continued to appeal to Government to come to their rescue (MUST Annual Financial reports 1990 – 2005). Failure to make a precise decision to settle the debt continued to cause management problems at MUST. The University was under threat of being sued (Mugume, 2015).

In many developing countries such as India, Pakistan and Kenya, university education is a field where politicians play their games of dispute (Kogan, 2000: 18). Kogan (2000: 87) contends that conflicting political parties find it easy to mobilize groups of students or teachers at a university in order to influence political thinking. In playing these political games, politicians interfere with university decision-making processes. This political interference has reduced the talents and opinions of university managers in ensuring effective management. Political influence in the decision-making of universities differs from country to country (Nadam, 2008: 38). According to Nadam (2008: 99) participation of teaching staff in decision-making processes in Pakistan universities is ignored. Researchers like Kogan (2000: 56), Nadam (2008: 39) and Gayle et al (2003: 49) agree that the facilitation of greater involvement of teachers in university affairs came out as a serious administrative and leadership problem. The general absence of a culture of dialogue and joint forums in our universities is manifested in rising cases of unrest (Chacha, 2000: 98).

University problems increase if there is lack of mutual communication between administrative and university staff (Garicano and Hubbard, 2003: 98). Universities are not only pressured with a period of new social demands and rapid pace of technological and scientific change, but also with an increased number of government regulations and control. Governments steer university decisions and actions using various instruments (Kreysing, 2002: 78). Government influences key university governance issues like appointment of boards, councils and the senate to pursue clear agendas. Besides, government determines resources to be allocated and sets conditions for the application of these resources. Matthai (1992: 29) as cited in Nadam (2008: 23) observes that decisions such as programme selection, faculty selection, planning and allocating budgets and formulating the academic policies, should be participatory. Nadam (2008: 45) argues that this would involve all members of the statutory bodies. Such an arrangement of the government has reduced the powers of university managers and left everything to be managed by the government in power.

However, the structure of Pakistan universities, for instance, does not offer a great degree of autonomy to members to make decisions. Researchers such as Kezar and Eckel (2004: 19); Kreysing (2002: 87) and Allport (2001: 94) found out that the principal decision-maker in Pakistan universities is the Vice Chancellor. This suggests that decision-making and consensus are done in a black hole. Kezar and Eckel (2004; 97) noted that decision-making in Pakistan universities is unsatisfactory due to centralization of powers and exploitation of rules and regulations. From the foregoing, decision-making in Pakistan universities is not made on the basis of specific techniques but according to bureaucratic

culture and political influence of the ruling party. Rahim (2002: 68) argues that the Malaysian university is losing its autonomy due to the interference from certain government departments and ministries. The power of the senate has become less effective in determining the future changes and direction of public universities. Rao (2001: 90) is of the view that higher education institutions must be given autonomy to manage their internal affairs, but this autonomy must be clear and transparent, be accountable to the government, parliament, students and the wider society.

In other universities of the world, like in Australia, members of academic staff are not involved properly in decision-making especially in departments. Matters such as institutional policies, allocating budgets, determining goals and work plans are determined by government (Allport, 2001: 99). This is a normative ideal of the rationalist perspective on decision-making which implies that government sets the legal framework, has control over decision-making process and the implication of policy. Management structures based on division of labour are also challenged by changes in educational technology, resources and participation. Allport (2001: 109) argues that members of university academic staff in Australia do not participate in institutional policies, budgetary processes and in departmental work plans. Disparities in structures create different interpretations about management (Gayle et al, 2003; 45). Allport (2001: 67); Minor (2003: 89) and Bradley (2003: 112), have pointed out how differences in structures can lead to various expectations and interpretations.

Awaleh (2003: 38) identifies similar problems of decision-making as common in African universities like Mzuzu University in Somalia where staff and student governance has been largely acrimonious. Awaleh (2003: 67) further notes that the quality of student leaders strongly shapes opinion and responsibility within campus. This has been a common source of friction between students and the administration and the process of a stable student government has been a difficult dream to attain. Awaleh (2003; 68) contends that refusal to involve students and staff has resulted into strikes in some African universities. The ideas of Awaleh (2003; 68) are supported by findings of Minor (2003; 71) that the reduction of involvement of the faculty in institutional decision-making has resulted into many challenges where governance systems cannot respond appropriately. According to the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges (2001: 89), many governing bodies, faculty members and chief executives believe that internal governance arrangements have become so cumbersome, that timely decisions are difficult to make and small factors often impede the decision-making process. This could be true of the situation in Ugandan universities.

The Association of Governing Boards (2001: 18) recommends that boards reiterate their ultimate responsibility and authority. The boards should make it explicitly clear about who has the right to make or participate in specific kinds of decisions and clarify ambiguous or over-lapping stakeholders' involvement. According to Bradley (2003: 77), in most universities in Australia, United States of America and Europe, Vice Chancellors (sometimes called Presidents or Rectors) take most of the responsibilities like approving and monitoring the performance of the university, oversee and review the management of

the university, establish policies and procedures consistent with legal requirements and community expectations, and monitor academic activities of the university. This lack of delegation in decision-making processes delays decisions and leads to inefficiency and ineffective university governance (Garicano and Hubbard, 2003: 99). Therefore, participation by staff and students in governance is very important.

In his study, Allport (2001: 78) observed that Hong Kong University had committed to the principles of good governance so as to ensure that the university was fit for the purpose as an institution of teaching, research, consultancy and other professional services to the community. These principles emphasize academic freedom and autonomy in performance in terms of added value to student association and academic advancement, public accountability, social responsibility, transparency, ethics and professionalism. However, Allport (2001: 77) did not consider division of labour as an important aspect in university management. The present study therefore sought to make an examination of bureaucracy particularly in universities in Uganda.

The Australian Centre for Higher Education Policy Analysis (2004: 89) encouraged university staff members to participate in effective management in Australian universities. Through exercising their rights and responsibilities, staff would engage in debates concerning the effective operation of their institution and ultimately lead to collective decision-making for effective performance. This can be equated to the role of position of individual members in a bureaucratic system, which is typical of all universities. However, in most African countries, heads of public universities are

appointed by government and in some countries it is also the government which appoints Deans and Departmental Heads (Chacha, 2001; 99). This external influence by government creates a lot of chaos in the effective management of universities because the university body tends to bend to the rules and regulations of the government which may at times have no concern for quality. Chacha (2001: 96) argues that the experience witnessed in African universities during the recent past has underscored the need for better management of universities in terms of efficiency, accountability, transparency, effectiveness and flexibility. Unfortunately, Chacha does not mention anything to do with challenges that could be related to the bureaucratic nature of universities and its effect on decision-making. This provided a justification for the present study.

Since 2004, a number of Ugandan universities have faced challenges, including failure to pay lecturers on time, under-funding of research, high turnover of experienced professors, crumbling physical infrastructure, staff and student strikes, poor international rating and lack of teaching materials (Kasozi, 2005: 56; Ocwich, 2005: 87; Tabeja, 2008: 77). Several arguments have been put forward to explain this situation and they include issues of poor management, under-funding, business pressure and profit motivation in the private universities, some universities being temporarily closed down while others have been de-registered. This laid a foundation for considering examining the effect of authoritative structures on decision-making which is an important aspect in university management.

On the other hand, Asimwe (2012: 98) examined the development and sustainability of effective management of universities in Uganda and the extent to which effective management has contributed to university attainment of set objectives. The specific objectives of the study were to identify obstacles met in implementing measures of effective governance; identify and describe the steps taken in developing and sustaining effective governance in Ugandan universities; and to develop a governance model suitable for Ugandan universities. Asimwe (2012: 99) found out that the universities are governed by boards. However, other findings indicated that Ugandan universities are faced with many obstacles which limit effective management. It was also indicated that the quality of risk management and internal controls in universities were high. It was recommended that Ugandan higher education needs improvement in the management of universities to reduce the challenges faced. This could be initiated not through incremental change but, more importantly, through the management renaissance whereby the universities can be provided with a greater leeway in their functions to sustain effective management. The major gap in Asimwe's study is that no mention was made of the actual challenges faced. Therefore, the present study attempted to consider examination of division of labour (bureaucracy) as one plausible challenge.

From the above examples, it is clear that various authoritative (bureaucratic) organs within public and private universities are constantly involved in decision-making processes and several of the decisions have caused management challenges within the universities. The gap in knowledge in this case is the fact that it is not clear whether the mode of the decision-making processes was responsible for the management problems in

the universities or not, thus, the essence of the present study. Advocates of good management (UNDP, 1997: 77) believe that efficient institutions, successful businesses and effective civil society organizations are characterized by certain factors that have remained elusive.

Therefore, if universities must reinvent themselves in order to satisfy stakeholders' demands and meet the challenges of bureaucratic decision-making in their management processes, they need to understand bureaucracy (division of labour) and how it can be applied in decision-making? It may be important that fundamental changes in the course of decision making in the universities are introduced including new ideas or ways of doing things that strongly depart from the bureaucratic structures. Most often, innovations are motivated by dissatisfaction with existing conditions or conventions -- for instance, the management problems alluded to earlier in this sub-section. They are sometimes demanded by groups outside of the organization: special interest groups, political parties, organized groups of citizens, or international organizations; or by dissatisfied factions in organization bureaucracies, e.g. Council, Senate, Lecturers, Students and Support Staff. Often, innovations result from performance gaps – that is, from disjointures between public expectations and institutional performance. The recognition that conventional policies or programmes are no longer achieving their objectives can inspire innovative changes that set them on new paths.

The challenges facing public universities in Uganda indicate the need for reforms in the management of the said institutions; but this must be based on empirical data that studies

such as the present one can provide. This means that there is need for leaders of institutions of higher education to implement broad policy changes since change is part and parcel of organizational life. Organizations that do not adapt to change risk the hazards of stagnating or going out of business. In fact, the ability to adapt to a changing environment is a source of competitive advantage. Improved governance of public universities benefits a wide range of stakeholders that include students and employers.

Mwiria et al (2006: 87) point out that joint participation is the most critically needed area of reform in the management of public universities in Kenya. These authors contend that poor corporate governance practices in Kenyan public universities have contributed to numerous strikes and closures over the past decade. Strikes and closures have led to prolonged time for students to graduate and disrupted academic life. Further, some prospective students and resident staff have been forced to opt for the private universities and overseas institutions. Mwiria et al (2006: 88) opine that some of the governance issues that need to be addressed relate to management structures, student affairs, staff and student associations, appointment of vice chancellors, and the role of the Commission for Higher Education (CHE).

It has been noted that poor governance structures, such as the bureaucratic forms in most public and private universities, have been associated with disrupted academic life (Garicano and Hubbard, 2003: 98). Moreover, governance involves the recruitment of individuals managing institutions of higher education and determines the relevance of management structures. For instance, in Kenya, a policy implication is that Kenyan

public universities should consider decision-making as a serious issue and train their council and university management board members on its application and importance (Mensah, 2002: 79). On the other hand, the bureaucratic practices used in developed countries are not directly applicable in developing economies because of political, economic, technological and cultural differences (Rabelo & Vasconcelos, 2002: 95). This means that there was a need to develop models of decision-making that consider the conditions in each developing country and that are not directly borrowed from developed countries. However, the gap was that there was no empirical evidence about Uganda's public and private universities, thus the need for present study.

2.8. Empirical Studies on Bureaucracy

Globally, studies show that there has been a renewed interest in the governance of universities and an increasing demand from governments and communities to improve the quality and accountability of universities (Trends in Higher Education Governance, 2009: 55; García-Aracil and Palomares-Montero, 2010: 217; Brown, 2011: 53; Marshall et al, 2011: 87). Moreover, the current global environments in which universities operate and the academic enterprise itself have changed dramatically over the past three decades. Many challenges have also been presented in the way universities are governed, managed and held accountable (Coaldrake et al, 2003: 8; Baldwin, 2009: 93; Brown, 2011: 55; Garrett and Poock, 2011: 889; Marshall et al, 2011: 89). This explains why there have been calls to adopt corporate management of universities, greater instrumentalism in curricula for workforce skilling of graduates, growth in student enrolment, and a change

in the nature of academic work itself (García-Aracil and Palomares-Montero, 2010: 218; Brown, 2011: 54; Vidovich and Currie, 2011).

Marshall et al (2011: 89) believe that “effective leadership and management at all levels of higher education institutions are integral to institutional quality and enhanced innovation.” This is in line with the view of Baldwin (2009: 94) who believes that academics play a crucial role in the success of universities, but that governance is required for the infrastructure and the support to realize quality and innovation. He explicitly states that governance is “the glue that holds the university together” (Baldwin, 2009: 94). The challenges facing universities could be reduced by enhancing the ability of governance to sustain and strengthen the essential nature of the university and facilitate responsiveness to the needs of the people (Baldwin, 2009: 93). However, to achieve this, the environment, in particular the governance under which universities operate needs to be clearly understood.

In Canada, Nistotskaya (2009: 91) found out that public bureaucracy matters for social and economic development. This was based on the finding that institutions and governments are not merely referees in a playing field but important players in their own right that have autonomy to formulate policies, and allocate economic and political resources. This implies that they are very important in decision-making. Furthermore, it was found out that a variety of groups influence the educational decision-making process and educational change. For instance, Fernandez (2013: 56) found out that the most influential organized group in the education sector of the country comprise the teacher

unions. These have great disruptive capacity to extract economic rents, extensive geographic presence, large mobilization capacity and ability to finance demonstrations and sustain strikes. Teacher unions are therefore both an attractive political ally and powerful enemy.

Other authors have also highlighted these factors as a reason why teacher unions have significant roles to play in educational spending (Hecock 2012: 66). This study highlights the importance of taking public interest groups into consideration when making decisions regarding public goods provision. In the Mexican context specifically (and possibly in other Latin American countries), a change in government is often accompanied by clearing out of the former government bureaucrats and their replacement with new appointees known to be sympathetic to the new government ((Hecock, 2012: 69). In the absence of an ‘independent’ and permanent/continuing institutional bureaucracy, unions may be more able to press their interests on a new and inexperienced bureaucracy. This highlights the varying relations between political and bureaucratic interests across political systems.

Chinelo (2011: 9) investigated the effect of bureaucratic participation in decision-making in schools in Nigeria. He examined students’ and teachers’ participation in decision-making in secondary schools and the consequent impact on their attitude to school work and school internal discipline in Nigeria. The results of the study showed that students and teachers alike, irrespective of sex, indicated a low level of participation in administrative creative decisions which influenced their attitude to school work and

school internal discipline. Furthermore, low level of participation was found to have significant unwholesome impact on their attitude to school work and the school internal discipline, thus undermining accomplishment of set instructional objectives/educational goals. It was therefore recommended that all school administrators in Nigeria should adopt participatory decision-making wisely for optimal goal attainment.

Madya and Kamaruddin (2014:78) examined the qualities of bureaucracy that transformed growth and development and the problems associated with institution-building in Nigeria. The study findings revealed inherent problems associated with the institutions such as lack of autonomy; appointment not being based on merit; poor remuneration; poor working conditions. The study recommended increase in motivation, as well as improvement in working conditions in order to achieve policy objectives.

In another study, Franklin (2011) examined the Effects of Bureaucracy on Policy Implementation in the Public Sector in Ghana. He found out that implementation of policies and programmes was poor and affected by bureaucracy, dissemination of information and lack of logistical support. Most of these policies were formulated from the headquarters in Accra and rolled to the regional and district offices. This implied that there was lack of effective participation of other stakeholders in the governance structures. The participation in decision-making was found to be less effective, resulting in poor implementation of policies. It was therefore recommended that there should be proper decentralization of policy issues to regional and district offices to allow for effective participation of authoritative structures and of stakeholders in decision-making.

University management in Uganda is guided by structures which provide the legal and organizational framework within which administrative decisions are made. These structures set the extent and limits of power of various players in the administration of the university institution. However, since 2004, a number of Ugandan universities have faced challenges like failure to pay lecturers on time, underfunding of research, high turnover of experienced professors, crumbling physical infrastructure, strikes by lecturers and students, poor international ratings and lack of teaching materials, among others (Kasozi, 2003: 5). Several arguments have been put forward to explain this situation -- like poor governance, underfunding, business pressure more especially for the private universities and profit motivation.

There are limited studies on bureaucracy and university governance and management in Uganda. For instance, Basheka (2008: 10) examined the relationship between resource management and effectively managed higher education system with implications for attainment of higher education quality outcomes from Uganda's context. The results generally indicated that efficiency in resource management has a significant effective on the management of higher educational systems in Uganda; and this has wide contributions in enhancing the quality and relevance of higher educational systems. He recommended that all higher education systems need to create a transparent mechanism of managing resources and develop a 'culture' of 'value for money' in the use of critical resources while planning, staffing, leading and controlling. This can only be possible if all stakeholders can effectively participate in the decision-making process in the governance of the universities.

The studies cited in the literature above were more in developed countries than developing countries like Uganda. Studies that were done in universities in Africa, more especially in Ugandan universities, were not with respect to decision-making. This justified the present study with respect to bureaucracy and decision-making.

2.9. Synthesis of the Literature and Research Gaps

University education is perceived as an important form of investment in home capital development. Universities are charged with formation of human capital through teaching, building knowledge base through research and knowledge development, and dissemination and use of knowledge by interacting with the knowledge users (Okwakol, 2009: 89). University education is becoming increasingly competitive in terms of students, staff and resources. This calls for proper management of the resources by ensuring effective decision-making within the university setting.

Lessons learned from the literature review include the fact that effective management of universities involves the authorities making decisions about fundamental policies and practices in several critical areas concerning universities. In university management, there are at least five important decision-making dimensions that have to be made (Murphy, 2000: 67). These dimensions include academic decisions on core activities; administrative decisions about resource acquisition, allocation and expenditure; accountability to stakeholders; unforeseen challenges and strategic planning. University problems increase if there is lack of mutual communication between administrative and university staff. Furthermore, reduction of involvement of the faculty in institutional decision-making results into many challenges where governance systems cannot respond

appropriately, ending up in strikes. The review of literature showed that many authors focused on university education but they did not consider the effect of bureaucracy on decision-making. The present study therefore sought to examine this effect in order to fill the existing knowledge gap.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology of how the research was carried out. It explains how the desired information pertaining to the effect of bureaucracy on decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda was collected, analyzed and presented. It outlines what was done, how and why; taking into consideration the type of research design, the study population, sample size, sampling methods, data collection instruments and procedure as outlined here below.

3.2. Research Design

A research design is the arrangement of conditions for the collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims at combining relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure (Kothari, 2006: 133). It is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes a blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data (Kothari, 2006: 134). As far as this study is concerned, the descriptive pragmatic parallel mixed research design with both qualitative and quantitative approaches was used. Mixed research designs are integrative research designs that provide rationale for hypotheses, theories, guiding assumptions and presuppositions to compete and provide alternatives. They facilitate the construction of robust strategies that help practicing researchers decide the methodology of a given study (Kothari, 2006: 115). The descriptive pragmatic parallel mixed research design was used because use of multiple methods can neutralize or cancel out some of the disadvantages of certain methods, while at the same time the

strengths of each approach can complement the other (Byrne & Humble, 2007: 1). The qualitative approach was used to collect, analyze and describe the opinions of the respondents about bureaucracy and decision-making in universities in Uganda. The quantitative approach was more dominantly used to describe the data collected through questionnaires using means and standard deviation.

3.3. Study Population

In this study, the units or individual for a target population included the 280 members of the Governing Councils of Universities. According to the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act (2001: 11), these include, among others, the Vice Chancellor, Deputy Vice Chancellors and some members of staff. The others included 350 members of Senate of Universities in Uganda, 2,290 teaching and 2,000 non-teaching staff, 300 student leaders and 200 other members of the university communities. From the statistics obtained from NCHE (2014: 15), the target population of the study to be selected was 5,420. These categories form the bureaucratic structure in universities and are responsible for making various decisions that affect the management of the universities. This was why they were considered to be part of the target population for this study. Table 3.2 presents a breakdown of the composition of the target population.

3.4. Determination of Sample Size

Currently, there are 44 universities in Uganda and Table 3.1 provides a breakdown of the proportions in terms of public and private. These include 11 public universities and 33 private universities. However, of the 11 public universities, Uganda Management Institute (UMI) was considered as an institute and thus dropped, leaving a target of 10

public universities from which the sample of four was selected basing on proportionality. The four public universities fell along regional distribution.

As far as private universities were concerned, selection was based on a target of 15 out of the 33 private universities. The inclusion criterion for the 15 private universities was based on establishment, staffing and student populations, number of programmes offered and the university structure. The sample of universities selected was 40% of the targeted universities (Katrina, 2013) leading to the distribution in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Proportions of Public and Private Universities in Uganda

Nature of University	Number	Targeted	Sample	Percentage (%)
Public Universities	11	10	04	16
Private Universities	33	15	06	84
Total	44	25	10	100.0

Source: NCHE (2014)

Determination of the number of public and private universities was on a ratio of two to three that is 40% to 60% respectively. So four public and six private universities were selected on regional basis and used in the sample. From the population of study given above and in accordance with the Sloven (1960) below, the sample size of the study was 373 respondents.

Formula, $n = \frac{N}{1+Ne^2}$

To ensure representativeness for each category of respondents, simple proportions were used to obtain a sample representing each unit of the population. Therefore, Table 3.2

presents the summary of the population of study, the sample size of the study, the individual sizes of each category of respondents.

Table 3.2: Summary of Population of Study and Sample Size

Respondents	Population		Sample Size		Sampling Method
	Public	Private	Public	Private	
Members of Council	112	168	8	11	Purposive sampling
Members of Senate	140	210	10	14	Purposive sampling
Teaching staff	916	1374	63	95	Cluster random sampling
Non-teaching staff	800	1200	55	83	Cluster random sampling
Student leaders	120	180	8	13	Cluster random sampling
Other members of university communities (parents, business people)	80	120	5	8	Convenience sampling
Total	2168	3252	149	224	

Source: NCHE (2014)

3.5. Sampling Techniques and Procedure

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003: 67), sampling is a process of selecting a number of individuals for a study in such a way that the individuals selected represent the large group from which they were selected. The purpose of sampling was to secure a representative group which enabled the researcher to gain the necessary data that the study sought to find. Purposive sampling has been widely used in qualitative and quantitative researches for the identification and selection of information-rich respondents related to the phenomenon of interest. Although there are several different purposive sampling strategies, criterion sampling appears to be used most commonly in implementation research. However, combining sampling strategies is more appropriate to the aims of implementation research and more consistent with recent developments in

quantitative methods (Amin, 2005: 75). In this study, purposive sampling was used to select the members of the University Councils, Senate as indicated in Table 3.2. The researcher used purposive sampling to select in the category of university councils and senate members who are always in the university setting. This was because some of them are outside the university setting; for instance representatives of ministries and other bodies. On the other hand, those members of council and senate are mainly involved in the implementation of the decisions made by the respective bodies. Therefore, by virtue of their offices and proximity within the bounds of the universities, they were purposively selected to be included in the study. The researcher requested the Vice Chancellors to provide a list of the names of those who fall into these three categories to enable the researcher select them. This means that whoever fitted into this criterion was purposively selected. These were selected purposively because purposive sampling allows a researcher to use the people that have the required information with respect to the objectives of the study (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003: 77). This is also in agreement with Kothari (2006) who stated that purposive sampling is used when one is sure that those particular people have the much-needed data that the study seeks to find.

The other method of sampling that was used was the cluster sampling which is a probabilistic method that offers equal chance to every subject in the different faculties of the teaching and non-teaching staff that were selected and avoids bias on the part of the researcher (Kothari, 2006: 125). However, within each cluster, simple random sampling (which is also called the lottery method) was used. This involved giving numbers to every subject, folding the numbers and placing them into a container and then picking

any number at random (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003: 78) and writing the name of the subject assigned that number. After the first picking, the ballot was folded and replaced and the process repeated until the intended sample was obtained. This was to ensure equal chances for every ballot picked. If a ballot that had already been picked was picked a second time, it was ignored and replaced. Therefore, simple random sampling was used to select the teaching and non-teaching staff and the student leaders. On the other hand, convenience sampling which involved sampling respondents because of their availability and easy access, was used to link the researcher to other respondents under the category of other members of the university communities (parents/guardians and business people). Some members of the university communities were targeted during times of admissions or graduation where several parents visit the universities for service. Also, some parents who live and work within the surroundings of the universities were conveniently selected and participated in the study.

3.6. Data Collection Methods

The quantitative method was employed by use of a questionnaire while the qualitative was employed by use of interview.

3.7. Data Collection Instruments

To collect a large amount of quantitative data, survey methods using questionnaires and interviews were used. Questionnaires are made of a set of items developed to address specific objectives in a study (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003: 89). According to Amin (2005: 79), questionnaires are less expensive; they offer greater assurance of anonymity, allowing respondents to give sensitive information without fear. Questionnaires are often

used to collect data from large samples because they are cheap to administer, are free from bias of the interviewer, and provide adequate time for respondents to fill them (Kothari, 2006: 125). Apart from being easier to administer, questionnaires are more reliable and also easier to analyze (Amin, 2005: 78). In this respect, pre-tested close-ended five-point liekert scale questionnaires were used to collect data from the selected teaching and non-teaching staff, and student leaders in the universities. Face-to-face interviews were used to collect data from members of the University Councils, Senate and university communities.

3.8. Quality of Instruments (Validity and Reliability)

3.8.1. Validity of the Instruments

Validity is the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of the data actually represent the phenomenon under study (Judith, 1999: 78). The validity of the instrument was assessed through consultation and rating the items and then computing the Content Validity Index (CVI) which is a measure of validity of the instrument. CVI was computed from a formula;

$$CVI = \frac{VR + R}{K}$$

K;

Where VR is for Very Relevant, R for Relevant and K is for total number of items in the instrument.

The value of CVI was found to be 0.89 as presented in Appendix V to this thesis. The results from the computation of CVI were interpreted according to George and Mallery (2003: 3) scale (1 - 0.9 = Excellent; 0.89 – 0.8 = Good; 0.79 – 0.7 = Acceptable; 0.69 – 0.6 = Questionable; 0.59 – 0.5 = Poor; and 0.5 – 0.0 = Unacceptable) to determine the

validity of the instrument. This implied that validity of the instrument was good and worth being used for data collection.

3.8.2 Reliability of the Instruments

Joppe (2000: 1) defines reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability. If the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable. The procedures for collecting data in this study were examined critically to assess the extent to which they were likely to be reliable. This assertion is supported by Mbabazi (2008: 67), where he mentions that instruments applied in collecting data should be reliable and free from bias and error. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003: 71) define reliability as a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials. According to Judith (1999: 78), validity and reliability may be achieved by asking other people such as colleagues, pilot respondents or fellow students whether the instruments devised measure what they are supposed to measure. For this study, reliability was ensured by pre-testing the questionnaires and interview guide among a few corresponding respondents, other than the ones they were intended for. This approach helped in identifying weaknesses in the instruments and improving on them before they were administered. The Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SPSS) was used to compute the reliability of the instrument and the results are presented in Table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3: Reliability of Instrument of Data Collection

Section of Instrument	Reliability
Division of labour	0.859
Participation of individuals	0.916
Regulatory rules	0.886
Authoritative structures	0.891
Decision making	0.950
Intervening variables	0.860
Overall reliability	0.893

Source: Primary data (2016)

From Table 3.3, the coefficient of reliability (α) was found to be 0.893. According to George and Mallery (2003) this implied that reliability of the questionnaire was good and so the questionnaire was appropriate to be used for data collection. The George and Mallery (2003: 3) scale (1 - 0.9 = Excellent; 0.89 – 0.8 = Good; 0.79 – 0.7 = Acceptable; 0.69 – 0.6 = Questionable; 0.59 – 0.5 = Poor; and 0.5 – 0.0 = Unacceptable) was used to determine the reliability of the instrument.

3.9. Data Analysis

The analysis included demographic data of respondents, the variables included the bureaucratic state in the universities, and the nature of decision-making in the universities under study. The data collected was cleaned and edited to ensure consistency, completeness and accuracy before it was entered into the Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SPSS, version 20), a computer software programme. Qualitative data was analyzed by sorting out emerging themes from the various responses explaining the situation regarding bureaucracy and decision-making in the universities. Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The SPSS was used to

generate the means, standard deviation and the regression was used to establish the association and effect of the constructs of bureaucracy on decision-making in both public and private universities. For purposes of comparison of results, the variables were compared through Pearson correlation. The analyzed data was presented in tables so as to make precise interpretation and conclusions.

3.10. Measurement of Variables

The questionnaires consisted of four sections: Section A for demographic data of respondents, Section B for collection of data on bureaucracy (IV), Section C for collection of data on decision-making (DV) and Section D for collection of data on the possible moderating variables in the study. The questionnaire was constructed on a 5-point Likert scale (Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree and Strongly Disagree). In analyzing the responses from the Likert scale of the questionnaire, means and standard deviation generated through the SPSS package were obtained and an appropriate scale to interpret the means was used (4.1-5.0 = Very High effect; 3.1- 4.0 = High effect; 2.1-3.0= Moderate effect; 1.1-2.0 = Low effect; and Less than 1 = Very Low effect). To test the hypotheses, SPSS was used to generate values for correlation, whereby interpretation was based on the standard regression (P-value) of 0.05. If the value obtained was below the standard, then it meant that there was a significant positive effect; and vice versa if it was above the standard. In order to establish the effect of bureaucracy on decision-making, the SPSS was used to generate the inferential statistics (Pearson coefficient) which was used to indicate the magnitude of the effect. However, interviews consisted of a set of

items on bureaucracy, decision-making and the moderating variables in the universities under study.

3.11. Ethical Considerations

Before data collection was done, the researcher's proposal passed through MUST Research Ethics Committee (REC) that provided a letter of approval before proceeding to obtain further approval from National Council of Science and technology (NCST) and from Presidents' Office. The researcher then sought consent of respondents through signing of a consent form before provision of data. In the introductory part of the data collection tools, the researcher promised, honoured and respected anonymity of the respondents by ensuring confidentiality of the respondents and the data provided. This was done through assurance that the information they provided was purely for academic purposes and that their identity was not to be disclosed to anyone. All the sources of literature were acknowledged through citations and referencing. Lastly, objectivity was considered during report writing to avoid bias.

3.12. Limitations of the study

The major limitations of the present study included: Difficulty in accessing accurate data from respondents due to fear of coercion or intimidation. The researcher took time probing before securing the needed data from the respondents. Collection of data during the time Makerere University had closed was challenging and this prolonged the data collection process.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents, analyzes and interprets the findings to the study. The presentation was based on the objectives of the study, i.e., effect of division of labour; participation of individuals; regulatory rules; and authoritative structures on decision-making in the public and private universities in Uganda. The presentation also includes a computation of the rate of response and the demographic data of the respondents.

4.2. Response Rate

Response rate (also known as completion rate or return rate) in survey research refers to the number of people who answered the survey divided by the number of people in the sample (Aday, 1996: 79). It is normally expressed in the form of a percentage. Before delving into the analysis of data collected, an assessment of the response rate was done. This was done by dividing the number of the respondents who were met (involved) and given the data collection tools or interviewed by the targeted categories of respondents in each case. Table 4.1 below presents the results.

Table 4.1: Response Rate

Respondents	Sample Size		Freq of Response Rate		Percent Response Rate		Overall Response rate
	Pub	Priv	Pub	Priv	Pub (%)	Priv (%)	
Members of Council	8	11	3	6	2.7	2.8	2.8
Members of Senate	10	14	6	12	5.5	5.7	5.7
Teaching staff	63	95	50	95	45.0	44.6	44.7
Non-teaching staff	55	83	42	83	37.8	39.0	38.6
Student leaders	8	13	7	13	6.3	6.1	6.3
Members of university communities	5	8	3	4	2.7	1.8	1.9
Total	149	224	111	213	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Primary data (2016)

The sample size was 373 but the number of respondents reached out to were 324. Therefore, the overall response rate was 324 divided by 373 multiplied by 100, giving 86.7%. A survey's response rate is viewed as an important indicator of survey quality because, according to Aday (1996: 78), Babbie (1990; 79) and Rea and Parker (1997: 79), higher response rates assure more accurate survey results. With an overall rate of return of 88.2% it implies that the survey quality was good (Rea and Parker, 1997: 79). The variation in the response rate among different categories of respondents was due to different reasons depending on the category of respondents. For instance, some respondents were quite busy and therefore difficult to access, while others were accessed easily.

4.3. Demographic Data of Respondents

The importance of collecting and describing the characteristics of research participants has been reiterated by several scholars (Ellis, 2009: 29, Ingelbret, Skinder-Meredith, Kellison and Contreras-France, 2010: 78). At minimum, information needs to be provided about respondents' age, gender, race/ethnicity, social-economic status, educational level and languages spoken. Availability of these characteristics aids in the interpretation of results (APA, 2010: 77; Beins, 2009: 56). Without inclusion of such information, researchers risked adopting the stance of absolutism which assumes that the phenomena of interest are the same regardless of culture, race/ethnicity and social-economic status (Beins, 2009: 78). Therefore, in this respect, the present study included the demographic characteristics of the respondents as presented below.

4.3.1. Gender of Respondent (Quantitative)

For quantitative data collection, the study had both gender represented in varying proportions as shown in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2: Demographic Data of Respondents

Sex	Frequency		Percent (%)		Overall (%)
	Pub	Priv	Pub	Priv	
Male	60	115	34.3	65.7	60.4
Female	39	76	33.9	66.1	39.6
Total	99	191	34.1	65.9	100

Source: Primary Data (2016)

From Table 4.2, it was found out that 60.4% ($^{175}/_{290}$) of the respondents who completed the questionnaires were males while 39.6% ($^{115}/_{290}$) of them were females. This indicates a female to male ratio of approximately 1:2. In other words, the proportion of males was twice that of females in the sample. This ratio is a true reflection of the proportion of women to men in the target population of study. This implies that the sample of the study was representative of the general target population and to implications of the study variables.

4.3.2. Gender of Respondents (Qualitative)

For qualitative data collection, the gender proportions were as presented in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: Demographic Data of Respondents

Sex	Frequency		Percent (%)		Overall (%)
	Pub	Priv	Pub	Priv	
Male	7	16	30.4	69.6	67.6
Female	5	6	45.5	54.5	32.4
Total	12	22	35.3	64.7	100.0

Source: Primary Data (2016)

From Table 4.3, it was found out that 67.6% ($^{23}/_{34}$) of the respondents who provided qualitative data were males while 31.8% ($^{11}/_{34}$) of them were females. This indicates a female to male ratio of 1:2. In other words, the proportion of males was twice that of females in the sample. This ratio is a true reflection of the proportion of women to men in the target population of study.

4.3.2. Duration of Service

Another aspect of demographic data that was considered in this study was the duration of service. The findings in view of the duration of service are presented in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4: Duration of Service of the Respondents

Duration of Service	Frequency		Percent (%)		Overall (%)
	Pub	Priv	Pub	Priv	
Less than one year	10	15	7.7	7.7	7.7
1-5 years	70	105	54.3	53.8	54.74
6-10 years	32	48	24.8	24.6	24.23
11-15 years	12	19	9.3	9.7	9.47
More than 15 years	5	8	3.9	4.2	3.86
Total	129	195	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Primary Data (2016)

From Table 4.4, it can be noted that the majority (54.74%) of the respondents had served the universities under study for periods between one year and five years. This period range is sufficient for anybody to get to understand what happens in the institution; and thus, it is hoped that the majority provided genuine data during the study. Another 24.23% of them had served the universities for a period between six years and ten years. This was even much better for them to qualify as pertinent respondents in this study to provide the much needed data. Others had served for even much longer periods. The implication is that the data collected from such respondents can be taken to be genuine and reliable.

4.3.3. Respondents' Designation

In research, it is important to report about the nature of respondents of the study in order to ascertain whether the data collected can be relied upon. One aspect that is important in reporting about the nature of respondents in the area of study is their respective designations. This study captured the various designations of the respondents and these are presented in Table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5: Proportions of Respondents by Designation

Designation	Frequency		Percent (%)		Overall
	Pub	Priv	Pub	Priv	
Council Members (including VCs)	4	5	3.0	2.6	2.7
Member of Senate	7	11	5.3	5.7	5.5
Administrative Staff (non-teaching staff)	50	75	37.9	39.1	38.0
Lecturers	60	84	45.5	43.8	45.3
Student leaders	8	13	6.0	6.7	6.4
Parents/Guardians	3	4	2.3	2.1	2.1
Total	132	192	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Primary Data (2016)

From Table 4.5, it is evident that 2.7% ($\frac{9}{324}$) of the respondents were Council members, while 5.5% ($\frac{18}{329}$) were members of Senate. Furthermore, 38.0% ($\frac{125}{324}$) of them were administrative staff in the universities under study, while the lecturers constituted 45.3% ($\frac{149}{234}$) of the respondents. The proportion of students who participated in the study was 6.4% ($\frac{21}{324}$) and 2.1% ($\frac{7}{324}$) were parents and guardians. This shows that a cross-section of respondents was used in the study to provide data that was needed. This implies that

the data collected, analyzed and presented in this study is representative of all the stakeholders of the institutions studied.

4.3.5. Level of Education of Respondents

The level of education of the respondents that participated in the study was found to vary, according to the presentation in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Level of Education of Respondents

Level of Education	Frequency		Percent (%)		Overall (%)
	Pub	Priv	Pub	Priv	
PhD	7	11	5.2	5.8	5.2
Master's Degree	68	94	50.7	49.5	52.0
Bachelor's Degree	52	77	38.9	40.5	38.4
Diploma	6	8	4.5	4.2	4.1
Other(specify)	1	0	0.7	0	0.3
Total	134	190	100.0	100.0	100

Source: Primary Data (2016)

From Table 4.6, the respondents had attained various levels of education. At least 5.2% ($^{18}/_{324}$) of them had the PhD qualification; the majority (52.0% - $^{171}/_{324}$) had Master's degrees; 38.4% ($^{129}/_{324}$) had Bachelor's degrees; 4.1% ($^{14}/_{324}$) had Diplomas and the rest (0.3%) had other varied certificates. Level of education has a significant implication of people's ability to understand management issues and the inter-relatedness of university governance and decision-making. Since the majority of the respondents had attained significant levels of education, it implies that the responses provided by these were from well-informed persons. This makes the data collected quite reliable for drawing corresponding conclusions.

4.4. Major Findings of the Study

The study sought to establish how bureaucracy affects decision-making in universities in Uganda. Bureaucracy was propounded by Max Weber (1864-1920), a German sociologist, who proposed different characteristics found in effective bureaucracies that would effectively conduct decision-making, control resources, protect workers and accomplish organizational goals. The four characteristics that were studied were division of labour, participation of individuals, regulatory rules and authoritative structures within private and public universities in Uganda. The descriptive findings for each construct of the independent and dependent variables are presented in the subsequent sections.

4.4.1. Division of Labour and Decision-making

Objective one of the study was to establish how division of labour affects decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda. In a typical Max Weber division of labour, the jurisdictional areas are clearly specified, and each area has a specific set of official duties and rights that cannot be changed at the whim of the leader. This division of labour should minimize arbitrary assignments of duties found in more traditional structures, in which the division of labour was not firm and regular, and in which the leader could change duties at any time. Table 4.7 presents the descriptive statistics of the study on state of division of labour in public and private universities in Uganda.

Table 4.7: Descriptive Statistics Division of Labour

Item	Government					Private					P-values	Mean	St. Dev
	SD	D	N	A	SA	SD	D	N	A	SA			
Marked division is known to everybody	4 (4.8)	5 (6)	15 (17.9)	36 (42.9)	24 (28.6)	10 (4.7)	19 (9)	35 (16.6)	92 (43.6)	55 (26.1)	0.774	2.573	0.710
Stakeholder involvement in electoral process	8 (9.5)	14 (16.7)	21 (25)	33 (39.3)	8 (9.5)	24 (11.4)	35 (16.6)	53 (25.1)	56 (26.5)	43 (20.4)	0.944	2.200	0.844
Appropriate governance structure that ensures appropriate capacity to perform	3 (3.6)	12 (14.3)	9 (10.7)	48 (57.1)	12 (14.3)	14 (6.6)	20 (9.5)	35 (16.6)	100 (47.4)	42 (19.9)	0.438	2.519	0.764
There is independent nominating committee for top management	6 (7.1)	12 (14.3)	19 (22.6)	31 (36.9)	16 (19)	8 (3.8)	23 (10.9)	59 (28)	79 (37.4)	42 (19.9)	0.315	2.403	0.758
Division of labour based on social class	17 (20.2)	29 (34.5)	19 (22.6)	16 (19)	3 (3.6)	31 (14.7)	45 (21.3)	70 (33.2)	42 (19.9)	23 (10.9)	0.013	1.871	0.827
Division of labour based on technical know how	8 (9.5)	17 (20.2)	16 (19)	35 (41.7)	8 (9.5)	17 (8.1)	38 (18)	51 (24.2)	73 (34.6)	32 (15.2)	0.600	2.231	0.850
Division of labour based on experience	3 (3.6)	11 (13.1)	22 (26.2)	38 (45.2)	10 (11.9)	11 (5.2)	27 (12.8)	65 (30.8)	80 (37.9)	28 (13.3)	0.638	2.353	0.763
Division of labour based on departmental sub-divisions	0 (0)	9 (10.7)	19 (22.6)	41 (48.8)	15 (17.9)	8 (3.8)	17 (8.1)	56 (26.5)	86 (40.8)	44 (20.9)	0.714	2.515	0.694
Top management bodies in place	1 (1.2)	4 (4.8)	10 (11.9)	43 (51.2)	26 (31)	13 (6.2)	11 (5.2)	16 (7.6)	63 (29.9)	108 (51.2)	0.214	2.715	0.634
Information between governance structure flows easily	8 (9.5)	19 (22.6)	20 (23.8)	25 (29.8)	12 (14.3)	18 (8.5)	36 (17.1)	46 (21.8)	74 (35.1)	37 (17.5)	0.382	2.227	0.853
There is formality in all committee proceedings	2 (2.4)	12 (14.3)	18 (21.4)	41 (48.8)	11 (13.1)	13 (6.2)	30 (14.2)	60 (28.4)	86 (40.8)	22 (10.4)	0.244	2.349	0.785
Average mean												2.36	0.771

Source: Primary data (2016)

Legend

4.1 – 5.0	<i>strongly Agree</i>	<i>-Very high effect</i>
3.1 – 4.0	<i>Agree</i>	<i>-High effect</i>
2.1 – 3.0	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>-Moderate effect</i>
1.1 – 2.0	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>-Low effect</i>
0.1 – 1.0	<i>strongly Disagree</i>	<i>-Very low effect</i>

In explaining the descriptive statistics in Table 4.7, the proportions of respondents who strongly agreed and those who agreed were added together since, in any case, both agreed. Similarly, the proportions of those who strongly disagreed and those who disagreed were also added together because they too, disagreed. Therefore, the results in Table 4.7 indicated that 71.4% ($^{60}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that there is marked division of labour known to everybody in public universities, while 69.7% ($^{147}/_{295}$) agreed that there is marked division of labour in private universities. However, 10.7 % ($^9/_{295}$) and 13.7% ($^{29}/_{295}$) disagreed that there is marked division of labour in public and private universities respectively. From the data, it was found out that in both public and private universities, there is marked division of labour. However, it is more pronounced in public than in private universities.

Analyzed data in Table 4.7 shows that 48.8 % ($^{41}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that there is stakeholder involvement in electoral process in public universities, while 46.9% ($^{99}/_{295}$) agreed that there is stakeholder involvement in electoral process in private universities. However, 26.2 % ($^{22}/_{295}$) and 28.0% ($^{59}/_{295}$) disagreed that there is stakeholder involvement in electoral process in public and private universities. On the whole, this means that there is stakeholder involvement in electoral process in both public and private universities, though it is more evident in public universities than the private ones.

It was found out that 71.4 % ($^{60}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that there are appropriate governance structures that ensure appropriate capacity to perform in public universities, while 67.3 % ($^{142}/_{295}$) agreed that there are appropriate governance structures that ensure appropriate capacity to perform in private universities. However, 17.9 % ($^{15}/_{295}$) and 16.1($^{35}/_{295}$) disagreed that there are appropriate governance structure that ensure appropriate capacity to perform in public and private universities respectively. This implies that in both public and private universities there are pronounced appropriate governance structures that ensure appropriate capacity to perform. However, this was more evident in public universities than in private universities.

The results in Table 4.7 further indicate that 56.0 % ($^{47}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that there is an independent nominating committee for top management in public universities as opposed to 57.3% ($^{121}/_{295}$) who agreed that there is an independent nominating committee for top management in private universities. However, 21.4% ($^{18}/_{295}$) and 14.7 % ($^{31}/_{295}$) disagreed that there is an independent nominating committee for top management in public and private universities respectively. This implies that although there was a wider variation in terms of the respondents who disagreed, almost similar proportions of the respondents were in agreement that there are independent nominating committees in both public and private universities.

It is also noted from data in Table 4.7 that 22.6% ($^{19}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that division of labour is based on social class in public universities, while 30.8 % ($^{65}/_{295}$) agreed that division of labour is based on social class in private universities. However,

54.8 % ($\frac{46}{295}$) and 36.0 % ($\frac{76}{295}$) disagreed that division of labour is based on social class in public and private universities respectively. This implies that more of the respondents were in disagreement that division of labour was based on the social class. The data in the next item revealed that 51.2 % ($\frac{43}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that division of labour is based on technical knowhow in public universities, while 49.8 % ($\frac{105}{295}$) agreed that division of labour is based on technical knowhow in private universities. However, 29.8 % ($\frac{25}{295}$) and 26.1 % ($\frac{55}{295}$) disagreed that division of labour is based on technical knowhow in public and private universities respectively. This implies that in both public and private universities, more of the respondents were convinced that the division of labour is based more on technical knowhow than on social class. On the contrary, data in Table 4.7 further indicated that 57.1 % ($\frac{48}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that division of labour based on experience in public universities, while 51.2 % ($\frac{108}{295}$) agreed that division of labour based on experience in private universities. However, 16.7 % ($\frac{14}{295}$) and 18.0 % ($\frac{38}{295}$) disagreed that division of labour based on experience in public and private universities respectively. This means that experience of the people is another important factor considered in carrying out of the division of labour in both government and private universities.

Data in Table 4.7 revealed that 66.7 % ($\frac{56}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that division of labour is based on departmental sub-divisions in public universities, while 61.6 % ($\frac{130}{295}$) agreed that division of labour is based on departmental sub-divisions in private universities. However, 10.7 % ($\frac{9}{295}$) and 11.9 % ($\frac{25}{295}$) disagreed that division of labour is based on departmental sub-divisions in public and private universities respectively.

This means that departmental sub-divisions in both universities are considered during the division of labour process. The results further indicate that 82.1 % ($^{69}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that top management bodies are in place in public universities, while 81.0 % ($^{171}/_{295}$) agreed that top management bodies are in place in private universities. However, 6.0 % ($^5/_{295}$) and 11.4 % ($^{24}/_{295}$) disagreed that top management bodies are in place in public and private universities respectively.

It was further found out that 44.1 % ($^{37}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that information between governance structure flows easily in public universities while 52.6 % ($^{111}/_{295}$) agreed that information between governance structure flows easily in private universities. However, 32.1 % ($^{27}/_{295}$) and 25.6 % ($^{54}/_{295}$) disagreed that information between governance structure flows easily in public and private universities respectively. This implies that on the average, information between the governance structures in both public and private universities flows easily. On the other hand, it was found out that 61.9 % ($^{52}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that there is formality in all committee proceedings in public universities, while 51.2 % ($^{108}/_{295}$) agreed that there is formality in all committee proceedings in private universities. However, 6.7 % ($^{14}/_{295}$) and 20.4 % ($^{43}/_{295}$) disagreed that there is formality in all committee proceedings in public and private universities respectively. This means significant incidences of formality in all committee proceedings exist in both government and private universities.

The average mean for the items on division of labour in Table 4.7 was found to be 2.36 with a standard deviation of 0.771. From the legend, this implies that on average, the

respondents were neutral about the division of labour in both the public and private universities in Uganda. This is also manifested in the standard deviation which shows a wide variation in their responses. The analysis from Table 4.7 was found to be in close agreement with the data collected during the face-to-face interviews with members from the University Council and Senate. For instance, as regards division of labour, the members of Council interviewed from different universities acknowledged that both public and private universities in Uganda are structured. In a face-to-face interview, a Council member from a public university said:

“This university is well structured and there is marked division of labour. Those that have been entrusted with various responsibilities are selected carefully. Normally, factors such as level of education, experience and dedication to work are considered during the selection of responsible staff to head departments, schools or colleges in the university. The division of labour is meant to ensure that the governance structures with appropriate capacity are able to perform.”

Another Council member from a private university said:

“Although we are a private university, we have a well-structured system in place that has marked division of labour. Nomination to any one particular office of responsibility is based on one’s competence, level of knowledge and experience. The marked division of labour enables appropriate flow of authority. In some cases, the structures are

ignored and not followed by some people leading to role conflict and grumbling from those that seem sidelined in the system.”

From the interviews carried out with the parents/guardians of the students in the public and private universities, it was found out that the majority were not conversant with the university governance structures and procedures. Generally, this implies that although there was a wider variation in terms of the respondents who disagreed, almost similar proportions of the respondents were in agreement that there are independent nominating committees in both public and private universities. Division in both public and private universities was found to be based more on social class. The departmental sub-divisions in both universities are considered during the division of labour process so as to ensure that information between the governance structures in both public and private universities flows easily.

4.4.2. Participation of Individuals and Decision-making

Objective two of the study was to establish the effect of participation of individuals on decision making in public and private universities in Uganda. Participation works best when people feel that they can make a difference, when they have the time to fully engage with the issues and when there is a healthy relationship of mutual respect with appointed representatives. It works worst when it is rushed, ill-informed and vague about the links to formal decision-making, or when it allows the loudest voices to dominate. Table 4.8 presents the findings on the situation pertaining to participation of individuals in public and private universities in Uganda.

Table 4.8: Distribution of Response on Participation of Individuals in Public and Private Universities in Uganda

Item	Government					Private					P-values	Mean	St. Dev
	SD	D	N	A	SA	SD	D	N	A	SA			
There is effective participation of various individuals	7 (8.3)	22 (26.2)	22 (26.2)	27 (32.1)	6 (7.1)	21 (10)	41 (19.4)	62 (29.4)	64 (30.3)	23 (10.9)	0.675	2.098	0.841
The university plans orientation process for new members	11 (13.1)	22 (26.2)	17 (20.2)	29 (34.5)	5 (6)	20 (9.5)	33 (15.6)	56 (26.5)	67 (31.8)	35 (16.6)	0.052	2.169	0.852
The members sitting on each management board/committee	3 (3.6)	8 (9.5)	22 (26.2)	43 (51.2)	8 (9.5)	7 (3.3)	20 (9.5)	63 (29.9)	93 (44.1)	28 (13.3)	0.818	2.454	0.712
The agenda of meetings is always well planned for everyone	1 (1.2)	9 (10.7)	14 (16.7)	45 (53.6)	15 (17.9)	9 (4.3)	33 (15.6)	39 (18.5)	89 (42.2)	41 (19.4)	0.203	2.468	0.777
Members of the committees/boards/councils receive written reports	2 (2.4)	7 (8.3)	22 (26.2)	43 (51.2)	10 (11.9)	11 (5.2)	20 (9.5)	57 (27)	82 (38.9)	41 (19.4)	0.622	2.461	0.722
The participation of individuals on the basis of purpose of the decision	3 (3.6)	19 (22.6)	26 (31)	31 (36.9)	5 (6)	13 (6.2)	24 (11.4)	81 (38.4)	75 (35.5)	18 (8.5)	0.203	2.237	0.764
Most members on the management committees/boards effectively participate	8 (9.5)	8 (9.5)	27 (32.1)	36 (42.9)	5 (6)	11 (5.2)	26 (12.3)	61 (28.9)	90 (42.7)	23 (10.9)	0.761	2.342	0.766
Participation of individuals depends on the structural setting	1 (1.2)	10 (11.9)	21 (25)	44 (52.4)	8 (9.5)	8 (3.8)	21 (10)	53 (25.1)	102 (48.3)	27 (12.8)	0.988	2.478	0.723
The participation of all members on each management committee/board is important	1 (1.2)	10 (11.9)	23 (27.4)	37 (44)	13 (15.5)	15 (7.1)	15 (7.1)	53 (25.1)	91 (43.1)	37 (17.5)	0.911	2.464	0.727
Involvement of individuals based on the kind of decision issues	2 (2.4)	10 (11.9)	27 (32.1)	33 (39.3)	12 (14.3)	6 (2.8)	21 (10)	54 (25.6)	86 (40.8)	44 (20.9)	0.429	2.461	0.717
Since all decisions made are a result of collective participation of the members,	5 (6)	22 (26.2)	28 (33.3)	22 (26.2)	7 (8.3)	13 (6.2)	35 (16.6)	64 (30.3)	89 (42.2)	10 (4.7)	0.112	2.180	0.811
Effective participation of members at various levels of university business has improved on management.	3 (3.6)	23 (27.4)	20 (23.8)	30 (35.7)	8 (9.5)	10 (4.7)	30 (14.2)	57 (27)	94 (44.5)	20 (9.5)	0.082	2.291	0.810
Average Mean												2.342	0.768

Source: Primary data 2016

Legend

4.1 – 5.0	<i>strongly Agree</i>	<i>-Very high effect</i>
3.1 – 4.0	<i>Agree</i>	<i>-High effect</i>
2.1 – 3.0	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>-Moderate effect</i>
1.1 – 2.0	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>-Low effect</i>
0.1 – 1.0	<i>strongly Disagree</i>	<i>-Very low effect</i>

In explaining the descriptive statistics in Table 4.8, the proportions of respondents who strongly agreed and those who agreed were added together since, in any case, both agreed. Similarly, the proportions of those who strongly disagreed and those who disagreed were also added together because they too, disagreed. Therefore, the results in Table 4.8 further indicate that 39.29 % ($^{33}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that there is effective participation of various individuals in public universities, while 41.23 % ($^{87}/_{295}$) agreed that there is effective participation of various individuals in private universities. However, 34.52 % ($^{29}/_{295}$) and 29.38 % ($^{62}/_{295}$) disagreed that there is effective participation of various individuals in public and private universities respectively. This implies that most of the respondents were not in agreement that they effectively participate in the decision-making process in the various universities.

It was also found out that 40.48 % ($^{34}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the university plans orientation process for new members in public universities, while 48.34 % ($^{102}/_{295}$) agreed that the university plans orientation process for new members in private universities. However, 39.29 % ($^{33}/_{295}$) and 25.12 % ($^{53}/_{295}$) disagreed that the university plans orientation process for new members in public and private universities respectively. This means that, on average, the respondents were in agreement that

university plans for orientation of new members is done in both public and private universities in Uganda.

Data in Table 4.8 further indicated that 60.71 % ($^{51}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the members sitting on each management board/committee in public universities while 57.35 % ($^{121}/_{295}$) agreed that the members sitting on each management board/committee in private universities. However, 13.10 % ($^{11}/_{295}$) and 12.80 % ($^{27}/_{295}$) disagreed that the members sitting on each management board/committee in public and private universities respectively. It was also revealed in the data in Table 4.8 that 71.43 % ($^{60}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the agenda of meetings is always well planned for everyone in public universities, while 61.61 % ($^{130}/_{295}$) agreed that the agenda of meetings is always well planned for everyone in private universities. However, 11.90 % ($^{10}/_{295}$) and 19.91 % ($^{42}/_{295}$) disagreed that the agenda of meetings is always well planned for everyone in public and private universities respectively. This implies that the majority of the respondents were in agreement that the agenda of the meetings were always planned for everyone in the universities in Uganda. The data in Table 4.8 further indicates that 63.10% ($^{53}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that members of the committees/boards/councils receive written reports in public universities while 58.29% ($^{123}/_{295}$) agreed that members of the committees/boards/councils receive written reports in private universities. However, 10.71% ($^9/_{295}$) and 14.69% ($^{31}/_{295}$) disagreed that members of the committees/boards/councils receive written reports in public and private universities respectively. This means that, on average, most of the respondents were in

agreement that the members of the committees receive written reports in the universities in Uganda.

The findings in Table 4.8 showed that 42.86 % ($\frac{36}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the participation of individuals was on the basis of purpose of the decision in public universities, while 44.08 % ($\frac{93}{295}$) agreed that the participation of individuals was on the basis of purpose of the decision in private universities. However, 26.19 % ($\frac{22}{295}$) and 17.54 % ($\frac{37}{295}$) disagreed that the participation of individuals was on the basis of purpose of the decision in public and private universities respectively. The results thus indicate that, on average, most of the respondents disagreed that participation of individuals is on the basis of purpose of the decisions in the universities. The data in Table 4.8 further indicates that 48.81 % ($\frac{41}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that most members on the management committees/boards effectively participate in public universities, while 53.55 % ($\frac{113}{295}$) agreed that most members on the management committees/boards effectively participate in private universities. However, 19.05 % ($\frac{161}{295}$) and 17.54 % ($\frac{37}{295}$) disagreed that most members on the management committees/boards effectively participate in public and private universities respectively. This implies that, on average, most of the respondents remained neutral regarding management committees/boards and their effective participation in universities.

The results in Table 4.8 revealed that 61.90 % ($\frac{52}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that participation of individuals depends on the structural setting in public universities, while 61.14 % ($\frac{129}{295}$) agreed that participation of individuals depends on the structural setting

in private universities. However, 13.10 % ($^{11}/_{295}$) and 13.74 % ($^{29}/_{295}$) disagreed that participation of individuals depends on the structural setting in public and private universities respectively. The data in Table 4.8 further indicates that 59.52 % ($^{50}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the participation of all members on each management committee/board is important in public universities, while 60.66 % ($^{128}/_{295}$) agreed that the participation of all members on each management committee/board is important in private universities. However, 13.10 % ($^{11}/_{295}$) and 14.22 % ($^{30}/_{295}$) disagreed that the participation of all members on each management committee/board is important in public and private universities respectively. This means that, on the whole, most of the respondents agreed that participation of all members on each management committee/board is important in public universities.

The results in Table 4.8 further indicate that 53.57 % ($^{45}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that involvement of individuals was based on the kind of decision issues in public universities, while 61.61 % ($^{130}/_{295}$) agreed that involvement of individuals was based on the kind of decision issues in private universities. However, 14.29 % ($^{12}/_{295}$) and 12.80 % ($^{27}/_{295}$) disagreed that involvement of individuals is based on the kind of decision issues in public and private universities respectively. This implies that the majority of the respondents indicated that involvement of individuals is based on the kind of decision issues in universities in Uganda.

Data in Table 4.8 also showed that 34.52 % ($^{29}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that all decisions made are a result of collective participation of the members, in public

universities, while 46.92 % ($^{99}/_{295}$) agreed that all decisions made are a result of collective participation of the members in private universities. However, 32.14 % ($^{27}/_{295}$) and 22.75 % ($^{48}/_{295}$) disagreed that all decisions made are a result of collective participation of the members, in public and private universities respectively. It is also noted that 45.24 % ($^{38}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that effective participation of members at various levels of university business has improved on management in government universities, while 54.03 % ($^{114}/_{295}$) agreed that effective participation of members at various levels of university business has improved on management in private universities. However, 30.95 % ($^{26}/_{295}$) and 18.96 % ($^{40}/_{295}$) disagreed that effective participation of members at various levels of university business has improved on management in public and private universities respectively. This means that the majority of the respondents remained neutral with regard to the fact that all decisions made are a result of collective participation of the members in universities.

From all the responses pertaining to participation of members, it was found out that the average mean was 2.342 and the standard deviation was 0.768. From the legend, this means that, on average, most respondents remained neutral in as far as participation of the members in decision-making was concerned. The standard deviation shows that their responses were varied from the mean value, indicating that while some disagree, others agreed. The statistical data presented in Table 4.8 indicated close agreement with the data collected during the face-to-face interviews with members from the University Council and Senate. The respondents interviewed indicated that individual staff often participate in the decision-making process in the various universities and most of the respondents

disagreed that participation of individuals is on the basis of purpose of the decisions in the universities. In a face to face interview, a Council member from a public university said:

“Participation of individual members in departments, schools or colleges is important in public universities. This is sometimes in form of being members on management committee/board. It is provided for in the governance structure that certain persons have to be on particular committees and this is where their participation is felt. This enables university management to work hand in hand with staff and other stakeholders.”

However, in another interview with a Council member from a private university, he said:

“Participation of individuals is an important aspect in university management. However, not everybody is given opportunity. This being a faith-based university, staffs of a different faith is often left out of some committees where important decisions are made. Therefore, this sometimes leaves out their input and there has often been some resentment over some decisions. This implies that there is no effective participation of different individuals in decision-making process in the university.”

In yet another interview in a private faith-based university, the respondent said:

“Well this is a faith-based institution where every member of staff is free to participate – but must not endanger the norms, religious rules of the institution. This somehow affects decision-making – because one must take care of the religious factors.”

Generally, the majority of the respondents remained neutral with regard to the fact that all decisions made are a result of collective participation of the members in universities. From their responses, it means that, on the whole, most respondents remained neutral in as far as participation of the members in decision-making was concerned. Segregation of some staff on the basis of their faith may not be very good as it locks out bright opinions from those of the different faith. The respondents suggested relaxation of issues of faith, especially when carrying out decisions that are of educational nature.

4.3.3. Regulatory Rules and Decision-making

Universities, like any other bureaucracies function under formal rules. These instructions state how all tasks in the organization, or in a particular tier of the hierarchy, are to be performed. The rules are often called standard operating procedures and are formalized in procedure manuals. Objective three of the study was to establish the effect of the regulatory rules on decision-making in public and private universities. Descriptive statistics collected and analyzed from the completed questionnaires are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.9: Distribution of Response on Regulatory Rules

Items	Government					Private					P-values	Mean	St. Dev
	SD	D	N	A	SA	SD	D	N	A	SA			
The guidelines for all proceedings are clearly laid down for all members involved to know.	4 (4.8)	11 (13.1)	17 (20.2)	42 (50)	10 (11.9)	12 (5.7)	31 (14.7)	27 (12.8)	100 (47.4)	41 (19.4)	0.266	2.458	0.802
The procedure of decision making in particular cases is through consensus while in other cases it is by voting.	2 (2.4)	7 (8.3)	19 (22.6)	42 (50)	14 (16.7)	13 (6.2)	29 (13.7)	72 (34.1)	75 (35.5)	22 (10.4)	0.005	2.346	0.758
It is a requirement that before decisions are made, exhaustive discussions are held before members	3 (3.6)	13 (15.5)	20 (23.8)	34 (40.5)	14 (16.7)	13 (6.2)	32 (15.2)	54 (25.6)	90 (42.7)	22 (10.4)	0.815	2.336	0.799
Decision making in this university is hinged on determined ethical procedures	1 (1.2)	13 (15.5)	25 (29.8)	36 (42.9)	9 (10.7)	13 (6.2)	36 (17.1)	37 (17.5)	91 (43.1)	34 (16.1)	0.055	2.363	0.813
In execution of any decision, Management sticks to the established procedures	4 (4.8)	16 (19)	22 (26.2)	29 (34.5)	13 (15.5)	16 (7.6)	28 (13.3)	37 (17.5)	93 (44.1)	37 (17.5)	0.144	2.366	0.817
The management controls have significantly reduced fraud	12 (14.3)	17 (20.2)	26 (31)	21 (25)	8 (9.5)	13 (6.2)	32 (15.2)	49 (23.2)	82 (38.9)	35 (16.6)	0.004	2.244	0.830
The members of the various committees usually discuss all management issues	2 (2.4)	13 (15.5)	27 (32.1)	33 (39.3)	9 (10.7)	16 (7.6)	24 (11.4)	47 (22.3)	82 (38.9)	42 (19.9)	0.203	2.376	0.781
The regulatory rules used in this university have helped control disagreements	8 (9.5)	14 (16.7)	19 (22.6)	37 (44)	6 (7.1)	13 (6.2)	26 (12.3)	60 (28.4)	86 (40.8)	26 (12.3)	0.283	2.319	0.795
The regulatory rules have been a source of problems as they affect the decision	11 (13.1)	20 (23.8)	26 (31)	23 (27.4)	4 (4.8)	36 (17.1)	48 (22.7)	59 (28)	52 (24.6)	16 (7.6)	0.854	1.932	0.842
Governance committees continuously review the regulatory rules	4 (4.8)	20 (23.8)	39 (46.4)	15 (17.9)	6 (7.1)	14 (6.6)	23 (10.9)	62 (29.4)	89 (42.2)	23 (10.9)	0.000	2.244	0.775
Average Mean												2.298	0.801

Source: Primary data (2016)

Legend

4.1 – 5.0	<i>strongly Agree</i>	<i>-Very high effect</i>
3.1 – 4.0	<i>Agree</i>	<i>-High effect</i>
2.1 – 3.0	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>-Moderate effect</i>
1.1 – 2.0	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>-Low effect</i>
0.1 – 1.0	<i>strongly Disagree</i>	<i>-Very low effect</i>

In explaining the descriptive statistics in Table 4.10, the proportions of respondents who strongly agreed and those who agreed were added together since, in any case, both agreed. Similarly, the proportions of those who strongly disagreed and those who disagreed were also added together because they, too, disagreed. Therefore, the results in Table 10 showed that 61.90 % ($^{52}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the guidelines for all proceedings are clearly laid down for all members involved to know in public universities, while 61.90 % ($^{52}/_{295}$) agreed that the guidelines for all proceedings are clearly laid down for all members involved to know in private universities. However, 17.86 % ($^{15}/_{295}$) and 20.38 % ($^{43}/_{295}$) disagreed that the guidelines for all proceedings are clearly laid down for all members involved to know in public and private universities respectively. This means that, on average, most of the respondents agreed that the guidelines for all proceedings were clearly laid down for all members involved to know in the universities in Uganda. It was also revealed in the data in Table 4.10 that 66.67 % ($^{56}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the procedure of decision-making in particular cases is through consensus while in other cases it is by voting in public universities, while 45.97 % ($^{97}/_{295}$) agreed that the procedure of decision-making in particular cases is through consensus while in other cases it is by voting in private universities. However, 10.71 % ($^9/_{295}$) and 19.91 % ($^{42}/_{295}$) disagreed that the procedure of decision-making in

particular cases is through consensus, while in other cases it is by voting in public and private universities respectively. This means that, on average, most of the respondents agreed the procedure of decision-making in particular cases in universities in Uganda is through consensus.

It was found out from data in Table 4.10 that 57.14 % ($^{48}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that it is a requirement that before decisions are made, exhaustive discussions are held before members in public universities, while 53.08 % ($^{112}/_{295}$) agreed that it is a requirement that before decisions are made, exhaustive discussions are held before members in private universities. However, 19.05 % ($^{16}/_{295}$) and 21.33 % ($^{45}/_{295}$) disagreed that it is a requirement that before decisions are made, exhaustive discussions are held before members in public universities respectively. This means that on average, most of the respondents agreed that it is a requirement that before decisions are made, exhaustive discussions are held before members in universities in Uganda.

The results in Table 4.10 showed that 53.57 % ($^{45}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that decision-making in this university is hinged on determined ethical procedures in public universities while 59.24 % ($^{125}/_{295}$) agreed that decision-making in the university is hinged on determined ethical procedures in private universities. However, 16.67 % ($^{14}/_{295}$) and 23.22 % ($^{49}/_{295}$) disagreed that decision-making in the university is hinged on determined ethical procedures in public and private universities respectively. This means that, on average, most of the respondents agreed that decision-making in the university is hinged on determined ethical procedures in universities in Uganda. The data in Table

4.10 further indicates that 50.00 % ($^{42}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that in execution of any decision, management sticks to the established procedures in public universities, while 61.61% ($^{130}/_{295}$) agreed that in execution of any decision, management sticks to the established procedures in private universities. However, 23.81% ($^{20}/_{295}$) and 20.85 % ($^{44}/_{295}$) disagreed that in execution of any decision, management sticks to the established procedures in public and private universities respectively. This means that, on average, most of the respondents agreed that in execution of any decision, management in universities in Uganda sticks to the established procedures.

The results in the data in Table 4.10 revealed that 43.52 % ($^{29}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that management controls have significantly reduced fraud in public universities, while 55.45 % ($^{117}/_{295}$) agreed that management controls have significantly reduced fraud in private universities. However, 34.52 % ($^{29}/_{295}$) and 21.33 % ($^{45}/_{295}$) disagreed that management controls have significantly reduced fraud in public and private universities respectively. This means that, on average, most of the respondents agreed that the guidelines for all proceedings were clearly laid down for all members involved to know in the universities in Uganda. It is also noted that data in Table 4.10, 50.00 % ($^{42}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the members of the various committees usually discuss all management issues in public universities while 58.77 % ($^{124}/_{295}$) agreed that the members of the various committees usually discuss all management issues in private universities. However, 17.86 % ($^{15}/_{295}$) and 18.96 % ($^{40}/_{295}$) disagreed that the members of the various committees usually discuss all management issues in public and private universities

respectively. This means that, on average, most of the respondents agreed that management controls have significantly reduced fraud in universities in Uganda.

According to data in Table 4.10, it was also found out that 51.19 % ($\frac{43}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the regulatory rules used in the university have helped control disagreements in public universities, while 53.08 % ($\frac{112}{295}$) agreed that the regulatory rules used in the university have helped control disagreements in private universities. However, 26.19 % ($\frac{22}{295}$) and 18.48 % ($\frac{39}{295}$) disagreed that the regulatory rules used in the university have helped control disagreements in public and private universities respectively. This implies that, on average, most of the respondents agreed that the regulatory rules used in the university have helped control disagreements in universities in Uganda. The data in Table 4.10 further indicates that 32.14 % ($\frac{27}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the regulatory rules have been a source of problems as they affect the decision-making in public universities, while 32.23 % ($\frac{68}{295}$) agreed that the regulatory rules have been a source of problems as they affect the decision-making in private universities. However, 36.90 % ($\frac{31}{295}$) and 39.81 % ($\frac{84}{295}$) disagreed that the regulatory rules have been a source of problems as they affect the decision-making in public and private universities respectively. This means that, on average, most of the respondents agreed that the regulatory rules have been a source of problems as they affect decision-making in universities in Uganda.

The findings in Table 4.10 revealed that 25.00 % ($\frac{21}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that governance committees continuously review the regulatory rules in public universities,

while 53.08 % (¹¹²/₂₉₅) agreed that governance committees continuously review the regulatory rules in private universities. However, 28.57 % (²⁴/₂₉₅) and 28.57 % (²⁴/₂₉₅) disagreed that governance committees continuously review the regulatory rules in public and private universities respectively. This implies that, on average, most of the respondents agreed that governance committees continuously review the regulatory rules in universities in Uganda. From the data in Table 4.10, it was found out that the average mean response was 2.298 and the standard deviation was 0.801. From the legend, this implies that, on average, most of the respondents remained neutral about issue of regulatory rules in decision-making in universities in Uganda. The standard deviation indicates that most of the responses greatly varied from one respondent to another.

The data presented in Table 4.10 indicated that the respondents that were interviewed were in agreement with the data collected from the other respondents. The members of the University Council and Senate that were interviewed indicated that regulatory rules are paramount in every institution. In a face-to-face interview, a Council member from a public university said:

“University governance must be hinged on agreed regulatory rules. Therefore, guidelines for all proceedings are clearly laid down for all members involved to know how issues in the universities ought to be handled. The Vice Chancellor has an obligation to ensure that all members are aware and conversant with the regulatory rules within the university. In this university, this is done during orientations, induction of during staff meeting. This helps those involved in

decision-making positions to make decisions that do not jeopardize governance in the university. However, the regulatory rules should be continuously reviewed to keep in touch with the changes that take place in universities in Uganda”.

However, in another interview with a Council member from a private university, it was noted that there is a slight difference in the effect of regulatory rules between public and private universities. He said:

“Although the regulatory rules used in this university have helped control disagreements in the university, the same rules have been a source of problems as they affect the decision in university. This is because in some cases, the regulatory rules are discriminatory and segregative in nature. As such the decisions made have often led to resentment and contentment.”

Generally, the majority of the respondents remained neutral with regard to the fact that regulatory rules have been effective in ensuring effective decision-making in the universities. Once again, segregation of some staff on the basis of their faith may not be very good as it locks out bright opinions from those of the different faith. The respondents further suggested relaxation of issues of faith, especially when carrying out decisions that are of educational nature.

4.4.4 Authoritative Structures and Decision-making

In almost all organizations, there is some form of authority exercised which is a kind of legitimate power and people follow because their positions demand so irrespective of the

person holding the position. It is also important to understand that formal authority and power emerging from it may not always be able to influence people in the desired manner. This oftentimes may affect decision-making. Objective four of the study sought to establish the effect of authoritative structures on decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda. Table 4.11 presents the descriptive statistics results analyzed from the completed questionnaires.

Table 4.10: Distribution of response on Authoritative Structure

Item	Government					Private					P-values	Mean	St. Dev
	SD	D	N	A	SA	SD	D	N	A	SA			
In this university, the decision making procedures used negatively affect	9 (10.7)	11 (13.1)	26 (31)	29 (34.5)	9 (10.7)	30 (14.2)	37 (17.5)	68 (32.2)	49 (23.2)	27 (12.8)	0.267	2.092	0.822
The university has decentralized authority to departments in order to improve	6 (7.1)	19 (22.6)	19 (22.6)	28 (33.3)	12 (14.3)	15 (7.1)	23 (10.9)	48 (22.7)	76 (36)	49 (23.2)	0.069	2.346	0.810
In this university, authority is vested in formal structures for improvement	2 (2.4)	11 (13.1)	18 (21.4)	39 (46.4)	14 (16.7)	15 (7.1)	20 (9.5)	54 (25.6)	86 (40.8)	36 (17.1)	0.686	2.431	0.757
Failure to clearly define where authority lies has created problems in the decision	6 (7.1)	15 (17.9)	21 (25)	27 (32.1)	15 (17.9)	24 (11.4)	47 (22.3)	54 (25.6)	57 (27)	29 (13.7)	0.268	2.122	0.856
Most of the problems in this university are a result of the fact that authority is vested	6 (7.1)	13 (15.5)	16 (19)	25 (29.8)	24 (28.6)	21 (10)	41 (19.4)	42 (19.9)	65 (30.8)	42 (19.9)	0.431	2.254	0.861
Centrality of decision making in a university setting negatively affects implementation	3 (3.6)	9 (10.7)	20 (23.8)	33 (39.3)	19 (22.6)	12 (5.7)	31 (14.7)	57 (27)	65 (30.8)	46 (21.8)	0.305	2.366	0.779
Lack of authority at the lower administrative structures in this university	6 (7.1)	14 (16.7)	9 (10.7)	33 (39.3)	22 (26.2)	13 (6.2)	36 (17.1)	47 (22.3)	68 (32.2)	47 (22.3)	0.064	2.342	0.834
Liberalization of authority has greatly improved decision making in this university.	5 (6)	19 (22.6)	32 (38.1)	19 (22.6)	9 (10.7)	22 (10.4)	31 (14.7)	82 (38.9)	51 (24.2)	25 (11.8)	0.816	2.092	0.779
Average Mean												2.256	0.812

Source: Primary data (2016)

Legend

4.1 – 5.0	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	- <i>Very high effect</i>
3.1 – 4.0	<i>Agree</i>	- <i>High effect</i>
2.1 – 3.0	<i>Neutral</i>	- <i>Moderate effect</i>
1.1 – 2.0	<i>Disagree</i>	- <i>Low effect</i>
0.1 – 1.0	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	- <i>Very low effect</i>

In explaining the descriptive statistics in Table 4.11, the proportions of respondents who strongly agreed and those who agreed were added together since, in any case, both agreed. Similarly, the proportions of those who strongly disagreed and those who disagreed were also added together because they, too, disagreed. Therefore, the results in Table 4.11 further indicate that 45.24 % ($^{38}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that in this university, the decision-making procedures used negatively affect in public universities while 36.02 % ($^{76}/_{295}$) agreed that in the university, the decision-making procedures used negatively affect in private universities. However, 23.81 % ($^{20}/_{295}$) and 31.75 % ($^{67}/_{295}$) disagreed that in the university, the decision-making procedures used negatively affect in public and private universities respectively. This means that, on the whole, most of the respondents remained neutral on the issue of the decision-making procedures having negative effect in the universities in Uganda. The data in Table 4.11 further indicates that 47.62 % ($^{40}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the university has decentralized authority to departments in order to improve in public universities, while 59.24 % ($^{125}/_{295}$) agreed that the university has decentralized authority to departments in order to improve in private universities. However, 29.76 % ($^{25}/_{295}$) and 18.01 % ($^{38}/_{295}$) disagreed that the university has decentralized authority to departments in order to improve public and

private universities respectively. This implies that the university has decentralized authority to departments in order to improve in universities in Uganda.

It was also revealed in the data in Table 4.11 that 63.10 % ($\frac{53}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that in the university, authority is vested in formal structures for improvement in public universities, while 57.82 % ($\frac{122}{295}$) agreed that in the university, authority is vested in formal structures for improvement in private universities. However, 15.49 % ($\frac{13}{295}$) and 16.59 % ($\frac{35}{295}$) disagreed that in the university, authority is vested in formal structures for improvement in public and private universities respectively. This implies that authority was vested in formal structures for improvement in universities in Uganda.

It is also noted from data in Table 4.11, 50.00 % ($\frac{42}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that failure to clearly define where authority lies has created problems in the decision-making in public universities, while 40.76 % ($\frac{86}{295}$) agreed that failure to clearly define where authority lies has created problems in the decision-making in private universities. However, (25.00 % ($\frac{21}{295}$) and 33.65 % ($\frac{71}{295}$) disagreed that failure to clearly define where authority lies has created problems in the decision-making in public and private universities respectively. This implies that failure to clearly define where authority lies had created problems in the decision-making in universities in Uganda. The data in Table 4.11 further indicates that 58.33 % ($\frac{49}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that most of the problems in this university are a result of the fact that authority is vested in the hands of few top administrators in public universities, while 50.71 % ($\frac{107}{295}$) agreed that most of the problems in this university are a result of the fact that authority is vested in the hands of few top administrators in private universities. However, 22.62 % ($\frac{19}{295}$) and 29.38 %

(⁶²/₂₉₅) disagreed that most of the problems in the university are a result of the fact that authority is vested in the hands of few top administrators in public and private universities respectively. This implies that most of the problems in the university were a result of the fact that authority was vested in the hands of a few top administrators in the universities in Uganda.

The data in Table 4.11 further indicates that 61.90 % (⁵²/₂₉₅) of the respondents agreed that centrality of decision-making in a university setting negatively affects implementation in public universities, while 52.61 % (¹¹¹/₂₉₅) agreed that centrality of decision-making in a university setting negatively affects implementation in private universities. However, 14.29 % (¹²/₂₉₅) and 20.38 % (⁴³/₂₉₅) disagreed that centrality of decision-making in a university setting negatively affects implementation in public and private universities respectively. This means that most of the problems in this university were a result of the fact that centrality of decision-making in a university setting negatively affected implementation in the universities in Uganda. It was also revealed in the data in Table 4.11 that 65.48 % (⁵⁵/₂₉₅) of the respondents agreed that there is lack of authority at the lower administrative structures in public universities, while 54.50 % (¹¹⁵/₂₉₅) agreed that there is lack of authority at the lower administrative structures in private universities. However, 23.81 % (²⁰/₂₉₅) and 23.22 % (⁴⁹/₂₉₅) disagreed that there is lack of authority at the lower administrative structures in public and private universities respectively. This implies that most of the problems in this university were a result of the fact that there was lack of authority at the lower administrative structures in universities in Uganda.

It was also noted that data in Table 4.11, 33.33 % ($\frac{28}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that liberalization of authority has greatly improved decision-making in this university in public universities, while 36.02 % ($\frac{76}{295}$) agreed that liberalization of authority has greatly improved decision making in this university in private universities. However, 28.57 % ($\frac{24}{295}$) and 25.12 % ($\frac{53}{295}$) disagreed that liberalization of authority has greatly improved decision-making in this university in public and private universities respectively. This implies that most of the problems in this university were a result of the fact that liberalization of authority had greatly improved decision-making in this university in universities in Uganda.

From the results on authoritative structures in the university, it was found out that the average mean response was 2.256 and the standard deviation was 0.812. Using the legend, this implies that, on average, most of the respondents remained neutral on the issues of the effect of authoritative structures on decision-making in the universities in Uganda. The analysis of data from Table 4.11 was found to be in close agreement with the data collected during the face-to-face interviews with members from the University Council and Senate. For instance, as regards authoritative structures, the members of Council interviewed from different universities acknowledged that both public and private universities in Uganda are authoritatively structured. In a face-to-face interview, a Council member from a public university member said:

“The university is authoritatively structured and authority flows from the Council through the VC who channels all the information through

Senate and later to Faculties and departments. On issues of decision-making, there are challenges e.g. information flow takes so long in moving from one unit to the other. This lack of fast information flow makes the system ineffective. There are therefore, delays in decision making e.g. increment on staff salary. At staff association level – considerations have been tabled for a pay rise in salary. Senate has many issues to discuss.”

In another interview, a Council member from a public university said:

“In the authoritative structure, the final decision is taken to Council where a lot of issues are discussed and it may not turn out in the interest of the original stakeholders. For instance in 2010 a review was started in as far as the programs are concerned. There was a deadline but this was not met due to delays – by October 187 had been submitted but 67 delayed. The entire system is bureaucratic and thus has problems – misplacement, budgetary and financial issues.”

In another public university, one respondent said:

“The university has got highly authoritative structures but the University Council gives powers to Boards and Senate with meagre finances (limited funds) thus affecting decision-making; bureaucracy also affects decision-making.”

In an interview with a member from a private university, it was noted that the authoritative structure is rather strict and staff have to observe the authoritative rules or else they run into trouble with management. The member said:

“Although we are a private university, our authoritative structure is such that suggestions flow either way. So some decisions – (financial) come from top while others come from down. This depends on the situation under consideration, the particular office of responsibility, one’s competence, level of knowledge and experience. In some cases, the structures are ignored and not followed by some officers.”

Generally, this implies that although there was a wider variation in terms of the respondents’ views on authoritative structures and decision-making. It was found out that authority was vested in formal structures for improvement in universities in Uganda. This implies that failure to clearly define where authority lies had created problems in the decision-making in universities in Uganda. In other words, most of the problems in the universities could be a result of the fact that authority is vested in the hands of a few top administrators.

4.4.5 Decision-making

Table 4.11: Distribution of Response on Decision-making

Item	Government					Private					P-values	Mean	St. Dev
	SD	D	N	A	SA	SD	D	N	A	SA			
Decision making in this university follows a clearly defined procedure	3 (3.6)	17 (20.2)	19 (22.6)	33 (39.3)	12 (14.3)	18 (8.5)	37 (17.5)	42 (19.9)	73 (34.6)	41 (19.4)	0.845	2.284	0.845
Decision making in the university is rational, always based on critical evaluation	8 (9.5)	21 (25)	20 (23.8)	30 (35.7)	5 (6)	15 (7.1)	41 (19.4)	64 (30.3)	69 (32.7)	22 (10.4)	0.324	2.139	0.836
Decision making in this university is haphazardly done without involvement	14 (16.7)	20 (23.8)	25 (29.8)	17 (20.2)	8 (9.5)	32 (15.2)	61 (28.9)	54 (25.6)	42 (19.9)	22 (10.4)	0.749	1.871	0.847
Decision making in this university is politically engineered	13 (15.5)	21 (25)	20 (23.8)	22 (26.2)	8 (9.5)	54 (25.6)	42 (19.9)	59 (28)	34 (16.1)	22 (10.4)	0.292	1.851	0.844
Decision making in this university is dictated by those in whose hands power is vested	9 (10.7)	14 (16.7)	16 (19)	32 (38.1)	13 (15.5)	23 (10.9)	35 (16.6)	32 (15.2)	81 (38.4)	40 (19)	0.702	2.288	0.870
The problems of the university are a result of the poor decision making process	2 (2.4)	14 (16.7)	13 (15.5)	34 (40.5)	21 (25)	15 (7.1)	33 (15.6)	56 (26.5)	52 (24.6)	55 (26.1)	0.052	2.332	0.811
Decision making in this university has been negatively affected by the red-tape	4 (4.8)	12 (14.3)	14 (16.7)	36 (42.9)	18 (21.4)	11 (5.2)	52 (24.6)	46 (21.8)	67 (31.8)	35 (16.6)	0.043	2.261	0.855
In making decisions in this university, those involved determine the factors	3 (3.6)	11 (13.1)	23 (27.4)	39 (46.4)	8 (9.5)	10 (4.7)	28 (13.3)	72 (34.1)	80 (37.9)	21 (10)	0.429	2.325	0.758
Some of the options chosen are often much more difficult to implement than expected.	3 (3.6)	12 (14.3)	24 (28.6)	28 (33.3)	17 (20.2)	13 (6.2)	24 (11.4)	60 (28.4)	79 (37.4)	35 (16.6)	0.997	2.362	0.765
In a group decision-making process, those involved tend to support the friends'	7 (8.3)	24 (28.6)	21 (25)	26 (31)	6 (7.1)	23 (10.9)	29 (13.7)	50 (23.7)	92 (43.6)	17 (8.1)	0.062	2.197	0.850
In a group decision-making process, those involved tend to support the friends'	10 (11.9)	14 (16.7)	31 (36.9)	26 (31)	3 (3.6)	15 (7.1)	31 (14.7)	69 (32.7)	76 (36)	20 (9.5)	0.204	2.186	0.793
When making decisions, they consider a variety of potential solutions	6 (7.1)	24 (28.6)	28 (33.3)	24 (28.6)	2 (2.4)	15 (7.1)	41 (19.4)	58 (27.5)	81 (38.4)	16 (7.6)	0.058	2.125	0.834
In this university, those involved in decision making, take time to choose the	3 (3.6)	21 (25)	28 (33.3)	27 (32.1)	5 (6)	12 (5.7)	34 (16.1)	53 (25.1)	85 (40.3)	27 (12.8)	0.067	2.251	0.815

best alternative													
I think that involving many stakeholders to generate solutions	7 (8.3)	20 (23.8)	23 (27.4)	25 (29.8)	9 (10.7)	16 (7.6)	39 (18.5)	58 (27.5)	71 (33.6)	27 (12.8)	0.528	2.169	0.836
Whenever there are doubts about any decision, we usually recheck	3 (3.6)	19 (22.6)	34 (40.5)	20 (23.8)	8 (9.5)	19 (9)	38 (18)	62 (29.4)	70 (33.2)	22 (10.4)	0.146	2.139	0.811
I think that involving many stakeholders to generate solutions	5 (6)	16 (19)	18 (21.4)	34 (40.5)	11 (13.1)	28 (13.3)	42 (19.9)	47 (22.3)	63 (29.9)	31 (14.7)	0.307	2.163	0.869
I think that involving many stakeholders to generate solutions	6 (7.1)	14 (16.7)	30 (35.7)	26 (31)	8 (9.5)	22 (10.4)	38 (18)	61 (28.9)	61 (28.9)	29 (13.7)	0.486	2.149	0.819
People are often times surprised by the actual consequences	8 (9.5)	15 (17.9)	31 (36.9)	23 (27.4)	7 (8.3)	18 (8.5)	39 (18.5)	84 (39.8)	51 (24.2)	19 (9)	0.884	2.068	0.780
During the decision making process, most people tend to have strong “personal instincts	2 (2.4)	12 (14.3)	23 (27.4)	39 (46.4)	8 (9.5)	9 (4.3)	40 (19)	64 (30.3)	69 (32.7)	29 (13.7)	0.288	2.278	0.794
Decision making in this university relies on peoples own experience	5 (6)	15 (17.9)	24 (28.6)	34 (40.5)	6 (7.1)	23 (10.9)	34 (16.1)	71 (33.6)	66 (31.3)	17 (8.1)	0.426	2.156	0.810
Before starting a decision-making process, those involved try to determine the real issue.	3 (3.6)	17 (20.2)	30 (35.7)	30 (35.7)	4 (4.8)	15 (7.1)	21 (10)	69 (32.7)	86 (40.8)	20 (9.5)	0.245	2.285	0.765
After making a decision, it is final because they know that the process is strong	11 (13.1)	22 (26.2)	29 (34.5)	20 (23.8)	2 (2.4)	15 (7.1)	36 (17.1)	78 (37)	58 (27.5)	24 (11.4)	0.022	2.068	0.797
Decision making in this university is done after evaluating the risks associated	9 (10.7)	21 (25)	22 (26.2)	24 (28.6)	8 (9.5)	15 (7.1)	35 (16.6)	71 (33.6)	58 (27.5)	32 (15.2)	0.102	2.142	0.817
The decision making process is selectively done by a few people.	6 (7.1)	15 (17.9)	25 (29.8)	26 (31)	12 (14.3)	14 (6.6)	40 (19)	51 (24.2)	61 (28.9)	45 (21.3)	0.593	2.234	0.831
Average Mean												2.180	0.819

Source: Primary data (2016)

Legend: 4.1 – 5.0 Strongly Agree 3.1 – 4.0 Agree 2.1 – 3.0 Neutral 1.1 – 2.0 Disagree 0.1 – 1.0 Strongly Disagree

In explaining the descriptive statistics in Table 4.12, the proportions of respondents who strongly agreed and those who agreed were added together since, in any case, both agreed. Similarly, the proportions of those who strongly disagreed and those who disagreed were also added together because they, too, disagreed. Therefore, the results in Table 4.12 indicated that 53.57% ($^{45}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that decision-making in the university follows a clearly defined procedure in public universities, while 54.03 % ($^{114}/_{295}$) agreed that decision-making in the university follows a clearly defined procedure in private universities. However, 23.81 % ($^{20}/_{295}$) and 26.07 % ($^{55}/_{295}$) disagreed that decision-making in the university follows a clearly defined procedure in public and private universities respectively. This means that, on average, the majority of the respondents agreed that decision-making follows a clearly defined procedure in universities in Uganda. It is also noted from data in Table 4.12 that 41.67 % ($^{35}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that decision-making in the university is rational, and always based on critical evaluation in public universities, while 43.13 % ($^{91}/_{295}$) agreed that decision-making in the university is rational, and always based on critical evaluation in private universities. However, 34.52 % ($^{29}/_{295}$) and 26.54 % ($^{56}/_{295}$) disagreed that decision-making in the university is rational, and always based on critical evaluation in public and private universities respectively. This means that, on average, the majority of the respondents agreed that decision-making in the university was rational, and always based on critical evaluation in universities in Uganda.

The results in Table 4.12 further indicate that 29.76 % ($^{25}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that decision-making in the university is haphazardly done without involvement in public

universities, while 30.33 % ($^{64}/_{295}$) agreed that decision-making in the university is haphazardly done without involvement in private universities. However, 40.48 % ($^{34}/_{295}$) and 44.08 % ($^{93}/_{295}$) disagreed that decision-making in this university is haphazardly done without involvement in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that decision-making in this university was haphazardly done without involvement in public universities in Uganda. It is also noted that data in Table 4.12, 35.71 % ($^{30}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that decision-making in this university is politically engineered in public universities while 26.54 % ($^{56}/_{295}$) agreed that decision-making in this university is politically engineered in private universities. However, 40.48 % ($^{34}/_{295}$) and 45.50 % ($^{96}/_{295}$) disagreed that decision-making in this university is politically engineered in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that decision-making in this university was politically engineered in public universities in Uganda.

The findings in Table 4.12 also showed that 53.57 % ($^{45}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that decision-making in this university is dictated by those in whose hands power is vested in public universities while 57.35 % ($^{121}/_{295}$) agreed that decision-making in this university is dictated by those in whose hands power is vested in private universities. However, 27.38 % ($^{23}/_{295}$) and 27.49 % ($^{58}/_{295}$) disagreed that decision-making in this university is dictated by those in whose hands power is vested in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that decision-making in the universities was dictated by those in whose hands power is

vested in universities in Uganda. It is also noted that data in Table 4.12, 65.48 % ($^{55}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the problems of the university are a result of the poor decision-making process in public universities while 50.71 % ($^{107}/_{295}$) agreed that the problems of the university are a result of the poor decision-making process in private universities. However, 19.05 % ($^{16}/_{295}$) and 22.75 % ($^{48}/_{295}$) disagreed that the problems of the university are a result of the poor decision-making process in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that the problems of the university were a result of the poor decision-making process in universities in Uganda.

It was also found out that data in Table 4.12 revealed that 64.29 % ($^{54}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that decision-making in this university has been negatively affected by the red-tape in public universities while 48.34 % ($^{102}/_{295}$) agreed that decision-making in this university has been negatively affected by the red-tape in private universities. However, 19.05 % ($^{16}/_{295}$) and 29.86 % ($^{63}/_{295}$) disagreed that decision-making in this university has been negatively affected by the red-tape in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that decision-making in universities had been negatively affected by the red-tape in universities in Uganda. The data in Table 4.12 further indicates that 55.95% ($^{47}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that in making decisions in this university, those involved determine the factors in public universities while 47.87 % ($^{101}/_{295}$) agreed that in making decisions in their university, those involved determine the factors in private universities. However, 16.67% ($^{14}/_{295}$) and 18.01 % ($^{38}/_{295}$) disagreed that in making decisions in their university,

those involved determine the factors in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that in making decisions in universities, those involved determine the factors in universities in Uganda.

Data in Table 4.12 showed that 53.57 % ($^{45}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that some of the options chosen are often much more difficult to implement than expected in public universities while 54.03 % ($^{114}/_{295}$) agreed that some of the options chosen are often much more difficult to implement than expected in private universities. However, 17.86 % ($^{15}/_{295}$) and 17.54 % ($^{37}/_{295}$) disagreed that some of the options chosen are often much more difficult to implement than expected in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that some of the options chosen were often much more difficult to implement than expected in universities in Uganda.

It was also found out that 38.10 % ($^{32}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that in a group decision-making process, those involved tend to support the friends' in public universities while 51.66 % ($^{109}/_{295}$) agreed that in a group decision-making process, those involved tend to support the friends in private universities. However, 36.90 % ($^{31}/_{295}$) and 24.64 % ($^{52}/_{295}$) disagreed that in a group decision-making process, those involved tend to support the friends' in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that in a group decision-making process, those involved tend to support the friends' in universities in Uganda. The data in Table 4.12 further indicates that 34.52 % ($^{29}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that in a group decision-

making process, those involved tend to support the in public universities while 45.50 % ($^{96}/_{295}$) agreed that in a group decision-making process, those involved tend to support the friends in private universities. However, 28.57 % ($^{24}/_{295}$) and 21.80 % ($^{46}/_{295}$) disagreed that in a group decision-making process, those involved tend to support the friends in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that in a group decision-making process, those involved tend to support the in universities in Uganda.

The results in Table 4.12 revealed that 30.95 % ($^{26}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that when making decisions, they consider a variety of potential solutions in public universities while 45.97 % ($^{97}/_{295}$) agreed that when making decisions, they consider a variety of potential solutions in private universities. However, 35.71 % ($^{30}/_{295}$) and 26.54 % ($^{56}/_{295}$) disagreed that when making decisions, they consider a variety of potential solutions in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that when making decisions, they considered a variety of potential solutions in universities in Uganda.

The findings in Table 4.12 further indicates that 38.10 % ($^{32}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that in this university, those involved in decision-making, take time to choose the best alternative in public universities while 53.08 % ($^{112}/_{295}$) agreed that In this university, those involved in decision-making, take time to choose the best alternative in private universities. However, 28.57 % ($^{24}/_{295}$) and 21.80 % ($^{46}/_{295}$) disagreed that In this university, those involved in decision-making, take time to choose the best alternative in

public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that in the universities, those involved in decision-making, take time to choose the best alternative in public universities in Uganda. It was also revealed in the data in Table 4.12 that 40.48 % ($^{34}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that involving many stakeholders to generate solutions in public universities while 46.45 % ($^{98}/_{295}$) agreed that they thought that involving many stakeholders to generate solutions in private universities. However, 32.14 % ($^{27}/_{295}$) and 26.07 % ($^{55}/_{295}$) disagreed that they thought that involving many stakeholders to generate solutions in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that decision making follows a clearly defined procedure in universities in Uganda.

The results also indicated that 33.33 % ($^{28}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that whenever there are doubts about any decision, they usually re-checked in public universities while 43.60 % ($^{92}/_{295}$) agreed that whenever there are doubts about any decision, they usually re-checked in private universities. However, 26.19 % ($^{22}/_{295}$) and 27.01 % ($^{57}/_{295}$) disagreed that whenever there are doubts about any decision, they usually re-check in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that many stakeholders are involved to generate solutions in public universities in Uganda. It is also noted that data in Table 4.12, 53.57 % ($^{45}/_{295}$) of the respondents indicates many stakeholders were involved to generate solutions in public universities while 44.55 % ($^{94}/_{295}$) agreed that many stakeholders were involved to generate solutions in private universities. However, 25.00 % ($^{21}/_{295}$) and 33.18 % ($^{70}/_{295}$) disagreed that many stakeholders were involved to generate solutions in public and

private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that many stakeholders were involved to generate solutions in universities in Uganda.

The findings in Table 4.12 further indicates that 40.48 % ($\frac{34}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that many stakeholders were involved to generate solutions in public universities while 42.65 % ($\frac{90}{295}$) agreed that many stakeholders were involved to generate solutions in private universities. However, 23.81 % ($\frac{20}{295}$) and 28.44 % ($\frac{60}{295}$) disagreed that many stakeholders were involved to generate solutions in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that many stakeholders were involved to generate solutions in universities in Uganda. It is also noted that data in Table 4.12, 35.71 % ($\frac{30}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that in this university, people were often times surprised by the actual consequences in public universities while 33.18 % ($\frac{70}{295}$) agreed that in this university, people were often times surprised by the actual consequences in private universities. However, 27.38 % ($\frac{23}{295}$) and 27.01 % ($\frac{57}{295}$) disagreed that in this university, people were often times surprised by the actual consequences in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that many stakeholders were involved to generate solutions in universities in Uganda.

It is also noted that the results in Table 4.12 showed that 53.57 % ($\frac{45}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that during the decision-making process, most people tended to have strong personal instincts in public universities while 44.55 % ($\frac{94}{295}$) agreed that during

the decision-making process, most people tended to have strong personal instincts in private universities. However, 25.00 % ($^{21}/_{295}$) and 33.18 % ($^{70}/_{295}$) disagreed that during the decision-making process, most people tended to have strong personal instincts in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that during the decision making process, most people tended to have strong personal instincts in universities in Uganda.

It was also revealed in the data in Table 4.12 that 47.62 % ($^{40}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the decision-making in the university relied on peoples own experience in public universities while 39.34 % ($^{83}/_{295}$) agreed that the decision-making in the university relied on peoples own experience in private universities. However, 23.81 % ($^{20}/_{295}$) and 27.01 % ($^{57}/_{295}$) disagreed that the decision-making in the university relied on peoples own experience in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that the decision-making in their university relied on peoples own experience in universities in Uganda. The data in Table 4.12 further indicates that 40.48 % ($^{34}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that before starting a decision-making process, those involved tried to determine the real issue in public universities while 50.24 % ($^{106}/_{295}$) agreed that before starting a decision-making process, those involved tried to determine the real issue in private universities. However, 23.81 % ($^{20}/_{295}$) and 17.06 % ($^{36}/_{295}$) disagreed that before starting a decision-making process, those involved tried to determine the real issue in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that the

decision making in their university relied on peoples own experience in universities in Uganda.

It is also noted that data in Table 4.12, 26.19 % ($\frac{22}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that after making a decision, it was final because they knew that the process was strong in public universities while 38.86 % ($\frac{82}{295}$) agreed that after making a decision, it was final because they knew that the process was strong in private universities. However, 39.29 % ($\frac{33}{295}$) and 24.17 % ($\frac{51}{295}$) disagreed that after making a decision, it was final because they knew that the process was strong in public and private universities respectively. This meant that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that after making a decision, it was final because they knew that the process was strong in universities in Uganda. It was also revealed in the data in Table 4.12 that 38.10 % ($\frac{32}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that decision-making in their university was done after evaluating the risks associated in public universities while 42.65 % ($\frac{90}{295}$) agreed that decision-making in their university was done after evaluating the risks associated in private universities. However, 35.71 % ($\frac{30}{295}$) and 23.70 % ($\frac{50}{295}$) disagreed that decision-making in their university was done after evaluating the risks associated in public and private universities respectively. This meant that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that decision-making in their university was done after evaluating the risks associated in universities in Uganda.

The data in Table 4.12 further indicates that 45.24 % ($\frac{38}{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the decision-making process was selectively done by only a few people in public universities while 50.24 % ($\frac{106}{295}$) agreed that the decision-making process was

selectively done by only a few people in private universities. However, 25.00 % ($\frac{21}{295}$) and 25.59 % ($\frac{54}{295}$) disagreed that the decision-making process was selectively done by only a few people in public and private universities respectively. This meant that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that the decision-making process was selectively done by only a few people in universities in Uganda.

From the results in Table 4.12, it was found out that the average mean of all the responses was 2.180 with a standard deviation of 0.819. This implied that on average, most of the respondents acknowledged that decision-making was selectively done in the universities in Uganda. The views of the respondents greatly varied as indicated by the standard deviation. The analysis from Table 4.12 was found to be in close agreement with the qualitative data collected during the face to face interviews with members from the University Council and Senate. For instance, as regards decision-making, the members of council interviewed from different universities acknowledged that both public and private universities challenges in decision-making that they keep grappling with in day to-day management. For instance, in a face to face interview with a Council member from a public university, the member said;

“Decision-making in this university, like many other public universities follow a clearly defined procedure. It is rational, always based on critical evaluation in universities in Uganda. Sometimes it is politically engineered and dictated by those in whose hands power is vested. This

means that on average, the problems of the university are a result of the poor decision making process.”

Another member from a public university said;

“There are times when those involved in decision making, take time to choose the best alternative for the university governance. During the decision making process, most people tend to have strong personal instincts. This implies that the decision making in this university relies on people’s experience.”

In another interview with a Council member from a private university, he said;

“Here I should say that there are several challenges and people are demoralized. There are un-popular decisions that are made due to lack of consultations; low attendance because people know the decision already.”

Generally, this implied that although there was a wider variation in the respondents’ views on decision-making in the universities, majority of the respondents agreed that after making a decision, it was final because they knew that the process was strong in universities in Uganda. Majority of the respondents agreed that decision-making in their university was done after evaluating the risks associated in universities in Uganda. Sometimes the decision-making process was selectively done by only a few people in universities in Uganda.

4.4.6. Intervening Variable

In this study, the researcher envisioned some intervening variables. Table 4.13 presents descriptive statistics pertaining to respondents' views on the status of these intervening variables in the public and private universities under study.

Table 4.12: Distribution of response on intervening variable

Item	Government					Private					P-values	Mean	St. Dev
	SD	D	N	A	SA	SD	D	N	A	SA			
The environment in this university does not promote effective decision-making.	10 (11.9)	23 (27.4)	15 (17.9)	28 (33.3)	8 (9.5)	35 (16.6)	63 (29.9)	47 (22.3)	45 (21.3)	21 (10)	0.167	1.902	0.885
The decision making process significantly contributes to the challenges	3 (3.6)	11 (13.1)	15 (17.9)	38 (45.2)	17 (20.2)	15 (7.1)	40 (19)	53 (25.1)	68 (32.2)	35 (16.6)	0.034	2.302	0.825
The level of knowledge of the members on the decision making bodies	2 (2.4)	8 (9.5)	17 (20.2)	43 (51.2)	14 (16.7)	8 (3.8)	27 (12.8)	53 (25.1)	81 (38.4)	42 (19.9)	0.306	2.458	0.745
The level of experience of the members on the decision making bodies	2 (2.4)	9 (10.7)	15 (17.9)	44 (52.4)	14 (16.7)	7 (3.3)	14 (6.6)	58 (27.5)	93 (44.1)	39 (18.5)	0.203	2.536	0.684
The organizational culture in this university significantly contributed to the nature	1 (1.2)	12 (14.3)	15 (17.9)	37 (44)	19 (22.6)	9 (4.3)	20 (9.5)	50 (23.7)	72 (34.1)	60 (28.4)	0.545	2.495	0.732
The National Policies such as those laid down by National Council	1 (1.2)	8 (9.5)	20 (23.8)	40 (47.6)	15 (17.9)	10 (4.7)	16 (7.6)	41 (19.4)	73 (34.6)	71 (33.6)	0.685	2.556	0.697
Political interference is one of the factors that accounts for most of the problems faced by the university.	4 (4.8)	19 (22.6)	15 (17.9)	27 (32.1)	19 (22.6)	33 (15.6)	64 (30.3)	54 (25.6)	45 (21.3)	15 (7.1)	0.000	1.953	0.875
Political interference is one of the factors hindering effective decision making in this university	4 (4.8)	20 (23.8)	19 (22.6)	25 (29.8)	16 (19)	37 (17.5)	56 (26.5)	66 (31.3)	32 (15.2)	20 (9.5)	0.000	1.919	0.841
Ownership of the university (government or private) does affect decision making	6 (7.1)	19 (22.6)	14 (16.7)	28 (33.3)	17 (20.2)	14 (6.6)	30 (14.2)	51 (24.2)	55 (26.1)	61 (28.9)	0.166	2.312	0.827
Ownership of the university is responsible for most of the problems encountered by management	7 (8.3)	15 (17.9)	22 (26.2)	29 (34.5)	11 (13.1)	22 (10.4)	38 (18)	66 (31.3)	51 (24.2)	34 (16.1)	0.498	2.146	0.826
Average Mean												2.258	0.794

Source: Primary data 2016

Legend

4.1 – 5.0	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>-Very high effect</i>
3.1 – 4.0	<i>Agree</i>	<i>-High effect</i>
2.1 – 3.0	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>-Moderate effect</i>
1.1 – 2.0	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>-Low effect</i>
0.1 – 1.0	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>-Very low effect</i>

In explaining the descriptive statistics in Table 4.13, the proportions of respondents who strongly agreed and those who agreed were added together since in any case, both agreed. Similarly, the proportions of those who strongly disagreed and those who disagreed were also added together because they too, disagreed. Therefore, the results in Table 4.13 indicated that 42.86 % ($^{36}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the environment in the university did not promote effective decision-making in public universities while 31.28 % ($^{66}/_{295}$) agreed that the environment in the university did not promote effective decision-making in private universities. However, 39.29 % ($^{33}/_{295}$) and 46.45 % ($^{98}/_{295}$) disagreed that the environment in the university did not promote effective decision-making in public and private universities respectively. This meant that the environment in the university did not promote effective decision-making in the universities in Uganda. It was also noted that data in Table 4.13, 65.48 % ($^{55}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the decision-making process significantly contributed to the challenges in public universities while 48.82 % ($^{103}/_{295}$) agreed that the decision-making process significantly contributed to the challenges in private universities. However, 16.67 % ($^{14}/_{295}$) and 26.07 % ($^{55}/_{295}$) disagreed that the decision-making process significantly contributed to the challenges in public and private universities respectively. This implied that the decision-making process significantly contributed to the challenges in universities in Uganda.

The findings in Table 4.13 further indicates that 67.86 % ($^{57}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the level of knowledge of the members affected the decision-making bodies in public universities while 58.29 % ($^{123}/_{295}$) agreed that the level of knowledge of the members affected the decision-making bodies in private universities. However, 11.90 % ($^{10}/_{295}$) and 16.59 % ($^{35}/_{295}$) disagreed that the level of knowledge of the members affected the decision-making bodies in public and private universities respectively. This meant that the level of knowledge of the members affected the decision-making bodies in universities in Uganda. The data in Table 4.13 further indicates that 69.05 % ($^{58}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the level of experience of the members affected the decision-making bodies in public universities while 62.56 % ($^{132}/_{295}$) agreed that the level of experience of the members affected the decision-making bodies in private universities. However, 13.10 % ($^{11}/_{295}$) and 9.95 % ($^{21}/_{295}$) disagreed that the level of experience of the members affected the decision-making bodies in public and private universities respectively. This meant that the level of experience of the members affected the decision-making bodies in public universities in Uganda. It was also noted that data in Table 4.13, 66.67 % ($^{56}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the organizational culture in the university significantly contributed to the nature of decision-making in public universities while 62.56 % ($^{132}/_{295}$) agreed that the organizational culture in the university significantly contributed to the nature of decision-making in private universities. However, 15.48 % ($^{13}/_{295}$) and 13.74 % ($^{29}/_{295}$) disagreed that the organizational culture in the university significantly contributed to the nature of decision-making in public and

private universities respectively. This means that the organizational culture significantly contributed to the nature in universities in Uganda.

Data in Table 4.13 also indicates that 65.48 % ($^{55}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that the national policies such as those laid down by National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) affected public universities while 68.25 % ($^{144}/_{295}$) agreed that the national policies such as those laid down by NCHE affected private universities. However, 10.71 % ($^9/_{295}$) and 12.32 % ($^{26}/_{295}$) disagreed that the national policies such as those laid down by National Council affect public and private universities respectively. This means that the National Policies such as those laid down by NCHE affected universities in Uganda. The data in Table 4.13 further indicates that 54.76 % ($^{46}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that political interference was one of the factors that accounts for most of the problems faced by the university in public universities while 28.44 % ($^{60}/_{295}$) agreed that political interference was one of the factors that accounts for most of the problems faced by the university in private universities. However, 27.38 % ($^{23}/_{295}$) and 45.97 % ($^{97}/_{295}$) disagreed that political interference was one of the factors that accounts for most of the problems faced by the university in public and private universities respectively. This means that the political interference was one of the factors that accounts for most of the problems faced by the universities in Uganda.

It was revealed in Table 4.13 that 48.81 % ($^{41}/_{295}$) of the respondents agreed that political interference was one of the factors hindering effective decision-making in this university in public universities while 24.64 % ($^{52}/_{295}$) agreed that political interference was one of

the factors hindering effective decision-making in this university in private universities. However, 28.57 % ($24/295$) and 44.08 % ($93/295$) disagreed that political interference was one of the factors hindering effective decision-making in this university in public and private universities respectively. This means that the political interference does not promote effective decision-making in the universities in Uganda. It is also noted that data in Table 4.13, 53.57 % ($45/295$) of the respondents agreed that ownership of the university (government or private) does affect decision-making in public universities while 54.98 % ($116/295$) agreed that Ownership of the university (government or private) does affect decision-making in private universities. However, 29.76 % ($25/295$) and 20.85 % ($44/295$) disagreed that Ownership of the university (government or private) does affect decision-making in public and private universities respectively. This means that ownership of the university (government or private) does affect decision-making in universities in Uganda.

The data in Table 4.13 further indicates that 47.62 % ($40/295$) of the respondents agreed that ownership of the university was responsible for most of the problems encountered by management in public universities while 40.28 % ($85/295$) agreed that ownership of the university is responsible for most of the problems encountered by management in private universities. However, 26.19 % ($22/295$) and 28.44 % ($60/295$) disagreed that ownership of the university was responsible for most of the problems encountered by management in public and private universities respectively. This means that ownership of the university (government or private) does affect decision-making in universities in Uganda.

The results from Table 4.13 showed that on average, the mean of all the responses was 2.258 with a standard deviation of 0.794. This means that the responses from the individual respondents greatly varied but on the whole, majority remained neutral as to whether the intervening variables had a significant effect on the decision-making process in the universities in Uganda.

4.4.7. Testing Hypotheses

In order to establish how bureaucracy affects decision-making in private universities, inferential statistics were generated using the SPSS. Pearson correlation coefficients between constructs of bureaucracy i.e. division of labour, participation of individuals, regulatory rules and authoritative structures were run with descriptive statistics obtained from respondents' views on decision-making. The Pearson correlation coefficients are presented first followed by the regression analysis.

Table 4.13. Pearson Product-Moment Correlations of the Decision-Making with Bureaucracy and its Measures in Private Universities in Uganda.

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Decision Making	1				
2. Division of Labour	.436**	1			
3. Participation of Individual Staffs	.340**	.624**	1		
4. Regulatory Rules	.558**	.649**	.597**	1	
5. Authoritative Structures	.615**	.434**	.249**	.414**	1

$N= 189$. ** $p < .01$.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson's correlation) is a measure of the strength and direction of association that exists between two variables measured on

at least an interval scale. In this study, the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was used to measure the strength and direction of association that existed between the constructs of bureaucracy and decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda. Results in Table 4.14 reveal that all the variables were correlated. The strength of the correlation between division of labour and decision-making in private universities was 0.436 while that between participation of individuals and decision-making in private universities was 0.340. Furthermore, the strength of the correlation between regulatory rules and decision-making in private universities was 0.558 and that between authoritative structures and decision-making in the private universities was 0.615. Therefore, the strongest Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for decision-making with bureaucracy in Private Universities was authoritative structures: $r(189) = .615, p < .01$, followed by regulatory rules: $r(189) = .558, p < .01$, then division of labour $r(189) = .436, p < .01$ and participation of individual staffs: $r(189) = .340, p < .01$. This implies that it is regulatory rules and authoritative structures that greatly affect decision-making in private universities in Uganda.

Similarly, in order to establish how bureaucracy affects decision-making in public universities, inferential statistics were generated using the SPSS. Pearson correlation coefficients between constructs of bureaucracy i.e. division of labour, participation of individuals, regulatory rules and authoritative structures were run with descriptive statistics obtained from respondents' views on decision-making. The Pearson correlation coefficients are presented first followed by the regression analysis.

Table 4.14. Pearson Product-Moment Correlations of the Decision-Making with Bureaucracy and its Measures in Public Universities in Uganda.

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Decision Making	1				
2. Division of Labour	.423**	1			
3. Participation of Individual Staffs	.386**	.661**	1		
4. Regulatory Rules	.521**	.628**	.638**	1	
5. Authoritative Structures	.357**	.398**	.326**	.362**	1

$N= 106$. ** $p < .01$.

Results in Table 4.15 reveal that all the variables were correlated. The strength of the correlation between division of labour and decision-making in public universities was 0.423 while that between participation of individuals and decision-making in public universities was 0.386. Furthermore, the strength of the correlation between regulatory rules and decision-making in public universities was 0.521 and that between authoritative structures and decision-making in the public universities was 0.357. Therefore, the strongest Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for decision-making with bureaucracy in public Universities was regulatory rules: $r(189) = .615, p < .01$, followed by regulatory rules: $r(189) = .521, p < .01$, then division of labour $r(189) = .423, p < .01$ and participation of individual staffs: $r(189) = .386, p < .01$; and lastly by the authoritative structures: $r(189) = .357, p < .01$. This implies that it is regulatory rules and division of labour that greatly affect decision-making in public universities in Uganda.

Furthermore, to predict whether decision-making was affected by bureaucracy, regression were run between bureaucracy and decision-making in both private and public universities. The results are presented in Tables 4.15 and 4.16 respectively.

Table 4.15. Regression of Bureaucracy and Decision-making in a Private University in Uganda.

Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	<i>B</i>
Bureaucracy	.300	.030	.586**

$R^2=.343$. ** $p<.001$, two-tailed.

Regression analysis is used when one wants to predict whether a dependent variable is affected by the independent variable. In this study, simple regression was run in order to establish whether constructs of bureaucracy had any effect on decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda. The results in Table 4.16 present a simple linear regression computed to predict whether decision-making in private universities was based on bureaucracy. A significant regression equation was found ($F: 1, 187) = 97.808$, $p<.001$), with R^2 of 0.343. The results imply that decision-making increased by 0.586 for each unit measure of bureaucracy.

Table 4.16. Regression of Bureaucracy and Decision-making in a Public University in Uganda.

Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	β
Bureaucracy	.316	.047	.555

$R^2=.308$. ** $p<.001$, two-tailed.

The results in Table 4.17 present a simple linear regression computed to predict whether decision-making in private universities was based on bureaucracy. A simple linear regression was computed to predict whether decision-making in public universities was based on bureaucracy. A significant regression equation was found ($F: 1, 104) = 46.195$, $p < .001$), with R^2 of 0.308. The results imply that decision-making increased by 0.555 for each unit measure of bureaucracy.

It was also important to determine the bureaucratic predictors of decision-making in private and public universities in Uganda. The results are presented in Tables 4.17 and 4.18 respectively.

Table 4.17. Bureaucratic Predictors of Decision-Making in a Private University in Uganda.

Predictors	Block1	Block2	Block3	Block4
Division of Labour	.436***	.367***	.146	-.011
Participation of Individual Staffs		.111	-.042	.014
Regulatory Rules			.488***	.364***
Authoritative Structures				.465***
R²	.190	.198	.322	.489
F	43.969	22.953	29.242	44.036
ΔR²	.190	.008	.124	.164
F for ΔR²	43.969	1.759	33.738	60.299

Standardized Betas are reported. $N=189$. *** $p < .001$.

Dependent variable: Decision-making.

A hierarchical regression was conducted with division of labour and decision-making in Private universities in Uganda in the first block, division of labour and participation by individual staff in block2, division of labour, participation by individual staff and regulatory rules in block3 and division of labour, participation by individual staff,

regulatory rules and authoritative structures in block4. Regulatory rules [$\beta=.364$, ($F(4,184) =, p<.001$)] and authoritative structures [$\beta =.465$, ($F(4,184)=, p<.001$)] altogether were statistically significant predictors of decision-making in Private universities regardless of whether or not participation of individual staffs and division of labour were included.

Table 4.18. Bureaucratic Predictors of Decision-Making in a Public University in Uganda.

Predictors	Block1	Block2	Block3	Block4
Division of Labour	.423***	.298*	.146	.101
Participation of Individual Staffs		.189	.026	.018
Regulatory Rules			.413***	.384***
Authoritative Structures				.172
R²	.179	.199	.287	.311
F	22.654	12.787	13.698	11.414
F for ΔR^2	22.654	2.575	12.633	3.539
ΔR^2	.179	.020	.088	.024

Standardized Betas are reported. N=189. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
Dependent variable: Decision-making.

A hierarchical regression was conducted with division of labour and decision-making in Public universities in Uganda in the first block, division of labour and participation by individual staff in block2, division of labour, participation by individual staff and regulatory rules in block3 and division of labour, participation by individual staff, regulatory rules and authoritative structures in block4. Results revealed that only regulatory rules [$\beta=.384$, ($F(4,101) =, p<.001$)] was the statistically significant predictor of decision-making in Public universities regardless all other measures of bureaucracy included in the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0. Introduction

This study was conducted to compare the effect of bureaucracy on decision making in public and private universities in Uganda. The bureaucratic theory has been widely used by Pandey & Kingsley (2000: 13) in governance of public and private organizations; Pandey, & Scott (2002: 33) when reviewing and assessing concepts and measures and by Ponomariov & Boardman (2011: 45) when working on organizational pathology comparing the impacts of job characteristics and career trajectory on perceptions of organizational red tape. Max Weber listed organizational attributes that when present, constitute the bureaucratic form of organization: (i) a continuous organization of official functions bound by rules, (ii) a specific sphere of competence, (iii) the organization of offices follows the principle of hierarchy; that is, each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one; (iv) the rules which regulate the conduct of an office may be technical rules or norms, (v) it is a matter of principle that members of the administrative staff should be completely separated from ownership of the means of production or administration, (vi) in order to enhance the organizational freedom, the resources of the organization have to be free of any outside control and the positions cannot be monopolized by any incumbent; and (vii) administrative acts, decisions, and any rules are formulated and recorded in writing.

5.1. Discussion of Findings

Developments in higher education particularly universities in Africa continue to be tremendous as they have been challenging for the continent, to various governments and all stakeholders (Jegade, 2012: 67). At the same time within the continent, between countries and within countries, differences in areas such as demography, funding, physical infrastructure, levels of academic support, qualified academic staff, management and decision making and local challenges have continued to increase rather steeply. The management systems in universities have faced pressures of increasing numbers of students and demographic changes, demands for accountability, reconsideration of the social and economic role of higher education, and the impact of new technologies, among others (Okwakol, 2009: 89).

On the other hand, studies show that there has been a renewed interest in the governance of universities and an increasing demand from governments and communities to improve the quality and accountability of universities (Trends in Higher Education Governance, 2009; García-Aracil and Palomares-Montero, 2010: 217; Brown, 2011: 53; Marshall et al., 2011: 87). Moreover, the current global environment in which universities operate and the academic enterprise itself have changed dramatically over the past three decades. Many challenges have also been presented in the way in which universities are governed, managed and held accountable (Coaldrake et al., 2003: 8; Baldwin, 2009: 93; Brown, 2011: 55; Garrett and Poock, 2011: 889; Marshall et al., 2011: 89). This explains why there have been calls for adopting corporate management of universities, greater instrumentalism in curricula for workforce skilling of graduates, growth in student

enrolment, and a change in the nature of academic work itself (García-Aracil and Palomares-Montero, 2010: 218; Brown, 2011: 54; Vidovich and Currie, 2011).

Marshall et al. (2011: 89) believe that effective leadership and management at all levels of higher education institutions are integral to institutional quality and enhanced innovation. This is in line with the view of Baldwin (2009: 94) who believes that academics play a crucial role in the success of universities, but that governance is required for the infrastructure and the support to realize quality and innovation. He explicitly states that governance is the glue that holds the university together (Baldwin, 2009: 94). The challenges facing universities could be reduced by enhancing the ability of governance to sustain and strengthen the essential nature of the university and facilitate responsiveness to the needs of the people (Baldwin, 2009: 93). However, to achieve this, the environment, in particular the governance under which universities operate, needs to be clearly understood.

The study was underpinned by the Max Weber Bureaucratic Theory. Bureaucracy is a concept in sociology and political science referring to the way that the administrative execution and enforcement of legal rules are socially organized. It is represented by standardized procedure (rule-following) that instructs the execution of the processes provided within the body, formal division of powers, hierarchy, and relationships. Four structural concepts are central to any definition of bureaucracy and were thus the basis for objective setting in this study: a well-defined division of administrative labour among persons and offices, a personnel system with consistent patterns of recruitment and stable

linear careers, a hierarchy among offices, such that the authority and status are differentially distributed among actors, and formal and informal networks that connect organizational actors to one another through flows of information and patterns of cooperation.

To accompany the Bureaucratic Theory, this study added the systems theory. Modern management is characterized by two approaches, the systems and the contingency approach. The systems approach views the organization (universities in this case) as a total system comprised of interacting subsystems, all of which are in complex interaction with the relevant external environment (Lerman & Turner, 1992: 67). Organizations, such as universities are pictured as “input-transformation-output systems” that compete for resources. The survival and prosperity of such organizations depends on effective adaptation to the environment, which means identifying a good strategy for marketing its outputs (products and services), obtaining necessary resources, and dealing with external threats.

In the empirical part of this thesis, the objectives examined the effect of the division of labor on decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda. A second objective sought to demonstrate how authoritative structure affects decision making in public and private universities in Uganda. The third objective sought to find out how participation of individual staff in various positions affects decision making in public and private universities in Uganda; while the fourth objective sought to establish how existing regulatory rules affect decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.

The reviewed literature showed that many authors have focused on university education but they did not consider the effect of bureaucracy on decision making. The link between the bureaucratic theory and university governance lies in two perceptions: First it is relatively easy to demonstrate that the notion of a move is valid if one looks at ideologies, beliefs and values as they are expressed by policymakers, higher education leaders and other interested parties. Changing beliefs and ideals do not necessarily lead to new practices. In order to understand the extent of change beyond the initial ideological shift, one must observe actual structures and behavior at various levels within higher education institutions (Kogan et al., 2006: 1). Second, in a period where notions of globalization are in vogue the move is often seen as a globalizing process that leads to the establishment of “stakeholder universities” across the globe, which in turn means that universities in different locations and countries are converging towards a common type of organizational structure. Again there are reasons to ask whether these assumptions hold true against evidence from various nation states. What we learn from the literature review is the fact that effective management of universities involves the authorities making decisions about fundamental policies and practices in several critical areas concerning universities. In university management, there are at least five important decision making dimensions that have to be made (Murphy, 2000: 89). These dimensions include academic decisions on core activities; administrative decisions about resource acquisition, allocation and expenditure; accountability to stakeholders; unforeseen challenges and strategic planning. University problems increase if there is lack of mutual communication among university staff. Furthermore, reduction of involvement of the

faculty in institutional decision making results into many challenges where governance systems cannot respond appropriately, ending up in strikes.

As far as this study was concerned, the descriptive mixed method research design with both qualitative and quantitative approaches was used. The target population included the 280 members of the Governing Councils of Universities, Deputy Vice Chancellors, members of Senate, teaching and non-teaching staff, student leaders and members of the university communities. The target population of the study was 5420. Determination of the number of public and private universities was on a ratio of two to three that is 40% to 60% respectively. So four public and six private universities were selected on regional basis and used in the sample. The sample size of the study constituted of 373 respondents. Sampling of the respondents was done using purposive sampling, cluster sampling simple random sampling and convenient sampling. Data collection was done using validated and pre-tested questionnaires and focus group discussion interviews with the respondents.

The analysis included demographic data of respondents, the variables included the bureaucratic state in the universities, the nature of decision making in the universities under study. The data collected was cleaned, coded and edited to ensure consistency, completeness and accuracy before it was entered into the Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SPSS) a computer software program. Qualitative data was analyzed by sorting out emerging themes from the various responses explaining the situation regarding bureaucracy and decision making in the universities. Quantitative data was analyzed

using descriptive statistics, the Pearson product moment correlation coefficients and regression tests. The SPSS was used to generate the descriptive statistics (frequencies, means and standard deviation) and the inferential statistics – correlation coefficients and regressions to test the associations and effect of the constructs of bureaucracy on decision making in both public and private universities. Ethical considerations were honoured through assurance that the information they provided was purely for academic purposes and that the identity of the respondents was not to be disclosed to anyone. This was highlighted in the introductory part of the questionnaire. All the sources of literature were acknowledged through citations and referencing.

5.1.1. Division of Labour and Decision Making in Universities

Labour hierarchy is a very common feature of the modern institutional structure, but the way these hierarchies are structured can be influenced by a variety of different factors. Size, cost, and the development of new technology are factors that have influenced job specialization structures in the modern workplace. The findings of the study indicated that there is stakeholder involvement in electoral process in public universities. However, a significant proportion of the respondents indicated that there is limited stakeholder involvement in decision making in public and private Universities. This implies that there is stakeholder involvement in decision making in both public and private Universities though it is more evident in public universities than in Private. This is in agreement with Aurangzeb (2012: 119) who noted that governance in universities depends much on institutions, government policy, and any other formal or informal organizational obligations. Generally, institutions are recognized as autonomous actors with varying

degrees of interdependence with, and legislated commitments to the external stakeholders, local and national government.

The results further indicated that there are appropriate governance structures that ensure appropriate capacity to perform in public universities. However, some respondents disagreed that there is appropriate governance structure that ensures appropriate capacity to perform in public and private universities respectively. This implies that in both public and private Universities there are pronounced appropriate governance structures that ensure appropriate capacity to perform. However, this was more evident in public universities than in private universities. This is in agreement with McElwee (1998: 114) who believes that control-oriented decision-making style, when applied in an uncertain environment, can lead to destabilization of relationships and behaviours, and also to unanticipated behaviours and possible explosive instability. This can inhibit the capacity to make decisions in the institution.

The findings of this study indicated that majority of the respondents acknowledged that division of labor was based on departmental sub-divisions in public universities while it was not based on departmental sub-divisions in private universities. However, at least a small proportion of them disagreed that division of labor was based on departmental sub-divisions in public and private universities respectively. This means that departmental sub-divisions in both universities are considered during the division of labour process. This is in line with Fitzgerald and van Eijnatten (1998: 97) who found out that the issue of who has to be involved in the decision making process is based on situations created

by managers in which individuals, teams and the system are encouraged to respond spontaneously to the changing environment.

The results further indicated that top management bodies were in place in both public and private universities. However, a small proportion of them disagreed that top management bodies in public and private universities were in place respectively. This coincides with considerable empirical evidence that has been found to support a number of existence of these modes of top management in universities (Hart and Banbury, 1994: 119; Schwenk, 1995: 129). Since the coexistence of many seemingly contradictory decision making modes generates much confusion, researchers have often felt the need to classify various modes (Cyert and Williams, 1993: 189; Lyles and Thomas, 1998: 117) differently, for instance presence of rectors and vice chancellors.

On the whole, the results indicated that most of the respondents were neutral about the division of labour in both the public and private universities in Uganda. The study found out that the average mean for the items on division of labour was 2.36 with a standard deviation of 0.771. This also manifested in the standard deviation which showed a wide variation in the responses. However, the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was 0.436 implying a moderately positive association between division of labour and decision making in private universities. In the public universities, the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was found to be 0.423 implying a relatively lower association between division of labour and decision making. On the whole, there was a higher association between division of labour and decision making in private universities

than in public universities. This is because it is widely accepted that the division of labour is to a great extent inevitable, simply because no one can do all tasks at once (Wadeson, 2013: 157). The cost of job specialization is what limits small organizations from dividing their labour responsibilities, but as organizations (universities in this case) increase in size there is a correlation in the rise of division of labour (Wadeson, 2013: 159). Technological developments have led to a decrease in the amount of job specialization in organizations as new technology makes it easier for fewer employees to accomplish a variety of tasks and still enhance production. New technology has also been supportive in the flow of information between departments helping to reduce the feeling of department isolation. It is also often agreed that the most equitable principle in allocating people within hierarchies is that of true (or proven) competency or ability (Rummel, Walter, Dewan, and Seidmann, 2005: 146). This important concept of meritocracy could be read as an explanation or as a justification of why a division of labour is the way it is in the universities in Uganda.

There are also limitations to the division of labour (and the division of work) that result from work-flow variations and uncertainties (Wadeson, 2013: 159). These help to explain issues in modern work organization, such as task consolidations in business process reengineering and the use of multi-skilled work teams. For instance, one stage of a production process may temporarily work at a slower pace, forcing other stages to slow down. One answer to this is to make some portion of resources mobile between stages, so that those resources must be capable of undertaking a wider range of tasks. Another is to consolidate tasks so that they are undertaken one after another by the same workers and

other resources. Stocks between stages can also help to reduce the problem to some extent but are costly and can hamper quality control (Rummel, Walter, Dewan, and Seidmann, 2005: 178). There are also advantages in a reduced division of labour where knowledge would otherwise have to be transferred between stages (Wadeson, 2013: 162). For example, having a single person deal with decisions means that the person has to be conversant with the organizational details. This may be very rare although it is likely to result in the decision being handled faster due to the elimination of delays in passing the decision between different people.

Division of labour may appear different in production firms as opposed to service organizations like universities. For instance, universities tend to focus on fundamental research whereas firms undertake more applied projects (Cohen, Nelson, and Walsh, 2002: 178; Sauermann and Stephan, 2013: 127). As the link between invention and public service intensifies, the respective roles of firms and universities are however becoming less clear (Branstetter, 2005: 119). On the other, a growing number of universities and public organizations undertake translational activities (Harris, 2011: 198). Taken together, these trends beg the question of the circumstances under which decisions are made in firms or universities.

Firms and universities certainly present different environments for decision-making. For example, firms are likely to under-invest in basic science because they tend to be unable to appropriate the economic value stemming from this type of work (Fleming and Sorenson, 2004: 289). Firms are more focused than universities, but they also incur

higher costs, and will therefore tend to work on more applied projects (Aghion, Dewatripont, and Stein, 2008; 29). In addition, universities and firms have different missions, and this difference might impact the motivation of academic and corporate scientists (Lacetera, 2009: 127). Although some studies (Aghion, Dewatripont, and Stein, 2008, 31; Lacetera, 2009; 167) have provided fascinating insights about the division of labour in firms and universities, little is known about the impact that both environments have on decision-making. At the same time, the type of environment in which the division of labour is done might not be consequential for the development of the decisions. Using an in-depth case study, Fleming and Sorenson (2004) found that particularities of the academic environment had been obstacles to the decisions on rapid development of synthetic insulin at Harvard and UCSF.

A comprehensive review of literature on higher educational administration revealed that many educational researchers (Braddock & Neave, 2002, 178; Saitis, 1999: 177; Zajkowski, 2003: 79) have discussed the issue of governance in higher education by giving emphasis mainly to the funding and structure within higher education institutions. For example, Zajkowski (2003: 82) has argued that for public universities, government funding is usually limited and there is increased competition for funds, and that therefore the maintenance of financial independence is vitally important since the academic institutions seek funds from different sources. The funding of higher education is a common problem in any system (Zhao, 2001: 89) and is a part of the many governance issues. Within this frame, decision-making on the financial independence in terms of managing financial resources is important as it allows universities to adopt their own

initiatives in response to the needs of the institution and helps the institutions to retain authority and discipline. There has been a shift in recent years in many countries around the world towards diversification in financial management responsibilities (Dearlove, 1998; 69).

Many countries have made steps to move from strong bureaucratic systems to a more entrepreneurial financial management and hence from input-based to output-based public funding institutions (Wadeson, 2013: 79). A move towards a more entrepreneurial management would result in the more efficient use of increasingly scarce resources and thus improve the efficiency and quality of universities (Dearlove, 1998; 109), especially if we consider that a) quality in higher education is the guiding principle in a university and is more easily affected by any changes in funding (Longbottom & Zairi, 1996: 111; Hill & Wilkinson, 1996; 201; Zhao, 2001: 189; Saitis, 1993: 112, 1999: 178; Sims & Sims, 1995: 92) many countries, including Uganda, face economic constraints so universities can no longer depend entirely on government funding (Magula & Psacharopoulos, 1999: 125; Zajkowski, 2003: 118; Zhao, 2001: 178), and c) all countries have faced/are facing regulatory constraints that affect cash flows (Madura, 1998: 184). In this way, universities would take more administrative and financial responsibilities so as to participate more in the decision-making process.

The Ugandan government perhaps may systematically examine the machinery of its various governance units in the public universities to ensure that decision-making processes remain efficient. Previous research studies (Saitis, 1993: 189, 1999: 111) in

other countries like Greece showed that indeed the rational devolution of governance power and tasks among the university departments, as well as the powers of decision-making to specific councils for the implementation of higher educational policy, made positive contributions to university efficiency. This result is also in agreement with White (2011: 78) who found out that in U.S.A. that there was a high degree of successful implementation of management techniques, especially at departmental level through division of labour.

On the whole, the present study found out that although there was a wider variation in terms of the respondents who disagreed that there is division of labour in the universities, almost similar proportions of the respondents were in agreement that there are independent nominating committees in both public and private universities. Division in both public and private universities was found to be based more on social class. The departmental sub-divisions in both universities are considered during the division of labour process so as to ensure that information between the governance structures in both public and private universities flows easily. The p-values computed from the respondents' views indicated that there was a significant effect of division of labour on decision making in private universities while there was an insignificant effect of division of labour on decision making in public universities. This implies that decision making in private universities was dependent on the nature of the division of labour exhibited in the universities. On the other hand, decision making in public universities was not affected by the division of labour in the universities.

5.1.2. Participation of Individuals and Decision Making in Universities

University governance is becoming a core policy issue in many developing countries (IDE, 2012: 89). The increasing pressure of globalization requires a university governance to aim for world-class status with an efficient leadership team and a strategic vision (Salmi, 2009: 79). Participation of individuals becomes imperative for successful governance. However, some leadership of higher education managers may reduce the degree of faculty participation in university governance. The results in chapter four has revealed that some respondents agreed that there is effective participation of various individuals in public universities while a few of them disagreed that there is effective participation of various individuals in public and private universities respectively. This implies that most for the respondents there was variation in agreement that they effectively participated in the decision-making process in the various universities. This concurs with David (2009: 78) who believes that people differ in their reasons for participating in decision making. Accordingly, more and more people realized that intuition is essential to making good and right decisions, particularly for those managers at all levels in an organization who sometimes are under the conditions of high uncertainty or little precedent. However, people do not have the same intuition and this ultimately affect their capacity to participate in decision making.

The results also indicated that the members sitting on each management board/committee in public universities are deemed to participate in decision making. However, a small proportion of them disagreed that the members sitting on each management board/committee in public and private universities actually participate in the decision

making process. The agenda of meetings found to be always well planned for everyone in public universities as indicated by majority of the respondents. However, a reasonable sample of them disagreed that the agenda of meetings is always well planned for everyone in public and private universities respectively. This implies that majority of the respondents were in agreement that the agenda of the meetings were always planned for everyone in the universities in Uganda. This was found to be in agreement with Locke, Schweiger and Lathan (1986: 98) stated that the finality of the decision lies with the manager, thus, employees do not have any real influence over their work or work conditions. This was because, they define Participation in Decision Making (PDM) as joint decision making in which decisions being made by manager in collaboration with the subordinates. However, this definition does not suffice, as many times people sit on the committees and boards but their views that contribute to decision making are never taken up at all. Even though the results showed majority of them agreed that members of the committees/boards/councils receive written reports in public universities, it is one thing to receive the reports but another to participate in the decision making process. This is supported by Davis and Davis (2003; 97) who argued that school principals tend to decide intuitively. This can be true of the vice chancellors in universities in Uganda.

The results in the previous chapter showed that on average, most of the respondents disagreed that there was participation of individuals on the basis of purpose of the decisions in the universities. That most members on the management committees/boards effectively participated in public universities while a few of them indicated that most members on the management committees/boards effectively participate in private

universities. This was found to be in agreement with Khatri and Ng (2000: 143) who examined the important role of intuition in strategic decision making. The study focused on senior managers of companies representing computer, banking, and utility industries in the US. The study found that use of intuitive synthesis was found to be positively related to organizational performance in an unstable environment, but negatively related in a stable environment. This relates closely with what happens in some of the universities in Uganda.

On the other hand, the results revealed that a few of the respondents agreed that participation of individuals depends on the structural setting in public universities while majority of them agreed that participation of individuals depends on the structural setting in private universities. This was found to be in agreement with Mensah (2002; 56) who found out that participation can constitute input by individuals or via civic-based organizations. One of the greatest challenges in African States remains how to ensure people at local level, particularly in the rural areas, participate in local politics. This has also penetrated into the governance of universities.

Data in chapter four further revealed that all decisions made in the universities were a result of collective participation of the members, in public universities while a small proportion of them indicated that all decisions made are a result of collective participation of the members, in private universities. It is also found out that a small proportion of respondents agreed that effective participation of members at various levels of university business has improved on management in government universities while

majority indicated that effective participation of members at various levels of university business has improved on management in private universities. This was found to be in conformity with Innes & Booher (2003: 98) who asserted that the central contention for effective participatory methods involve collaboration, dialogue and interaction.

From all the responses pertaining to participation of members, it was found out that on average, most respondents remained neutral in as far as participation of the members in decision-making was concerned. The standard deviation shows that their responses were varied from the mean value indicating that while some disagree, others agreed. This implies that respondents indicated that only a few of the individual staffs in universities often participate in the decision-making process in the various universities and most of the respondents disagreed that participation of individuals was on the basis of purpose of the decisions in the universities. From the cross tabulation on participation of individuals and decision making in private universities, it was found out that the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was 0.340 which implied low association between participation of individual and decision making in private universities. On the other hand, the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was 0.386 for public universities. This implies that there was a stronger association between participation of individual and decision making in public universities than in private universities.

Under the present situations, the participation in university governance by faculty members became interpreted in a different manner beyond the traditional ways of the professoriate. For instance, Sporn (2006: 78) set up several models of university

governance, namely, (i) shared governance assuring the participation of academics, (ii) corporate models of governance, and (iii) flexible governance structure fit to rapid environmental change through learning and adaptation. By proposing the third model, Sporn (2006; 79) stressed the maintenance of a collaborative atmosphere of governance at contemporary universities. Current arguments on the reexamination of the professoriate system in most universities are based on the view that the professoriate tends to resist necessary change. For example, in an article in a top Japanese business newspaper, *Nikkei*, on 2 May 2013: 19, Kakutaro Kitashiro, chair of the governing board of the prestigious private liberal arts university, International Christian University, requests that decision-making power shift from the *Kyoju-kai* (professors) to the president to ensure more flexible and speedy management, based on Kitashiro's long business experience as a former Chief Executive Officer of IBM Japan.

It is important to note that in countries like Japan, there is a big gap between the policy-level discussion of university governance and the perceptions by historians and researchers of higher education. The latter inquire about the identity of universities within the global history of universities that started as guilds of professors and students in medieval Europe (Yonezawa, 2011: 59). At the same time, the actual role and impact of professors' participation in university governance in universities has not been well examined through empirical data. The structure of university governance is highly imbedded in the identical context of the history and organizational structure of universities and higher education systems. Except for very simplistic comparisons based on a limited number of indicators, there should be comprehensive national level analysis

done to more fully understand the mechanism of university governance in different countries and Uganda in particular.

Perhaps the pertinent questions could be, “what are the determinants of the characteristics of participation in university governance by individual faculty members? In what way do institutional structures such as the professors and deans in universities influence participation patterns?” Ehara (2010; 71) found out that the deans and professors in most universities in Japan do not necessarily assure collegium-type university governance, but governance is a mainly bureaucratic form that satisfies neither institutional managers nor faculty members.

In the case of Japanese universities, faculty members have been said to enjoy participation in university governance through faculty and school level “Kyoju-kai” (professoriate) under a formal legal structure. Namely, Article 93 of the School Education Law provides that a university in Japan must have a Kyoju-kai to discuss important matters, and that the Kyoju-kai could include associate professors and other staff members, in addition to full professors, who are the official members. This implies a strong ownership by professors in university governance, and a limited influence of leadership by the presidents and other institutional-level managers. Especially in comprehensive universities with multiple schools and faculties, the decision-making power at the school or faculty level tends to conflict with interests at the institutional level. However, there is a strong view among academics of Japanese universities that university governance authority should be located in a Kyoju-kai of a faculty or school,

as a symbol of university autonomy (Terasaki, 2009: 59). The situation in Ugandan universities remains relatively unclear and the Universities and other Tertiary Education Act may need revision to clearly bring out issues of participation of individuals in university governance.

Generally, majority of the respondents remained neutral with regard to the fact that all decisions made are a result of collective participation of the members in universities. Most respondents remained neutral in as far as participation of the members in decision-making was concerned. Segregation of some staffs on the basis of their faith (though not vital in decision-making) may not be very good as it locks out bright opinions from those of the different faith. The respondents suggested relaxation of issues of faith especially when carrying out decisions that are of educational nature.

5.1.3. Regulatory Rules and Decision Making in Universities

Rules are believed to be important for holding officials accountable. Rules internal to the bureaucracy may not be enforced unless there are control mechanisms and watchdog organizations such as audits, ombudsman institutions, anti-corruption commissions, public censure or courts are mechanisms that have been used to hold civil servants accountable. The findings of this study have indicated that most respondents agreed that the guidelines for all proceedings are clearly laid down for all members involved to know in public universities. However, a small proportion of them disagreed that the guidelines for all proceedings are clearly laid down for all members involved to know in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, most of the respondents

agreed that the guidelines for all proceedings were clearly laid down for all members involved to know in the universities in Uganda. This was found to be in agreement with Higgins (1997: 98) who argued that individuals fundamentally differ in how they approach and pursue goals, either focusing on aspirations and accomplishments (engendering a promotion focus) or on responsibilities and safety (engendering a prevention focus). His study examined the chronic (trait) differences in regulatory focus between members and the ensuing effects on new product decisions. On the other hand, Kruglanski et al., 2000: 156) believes that individuals with a promotion focus emphasize achievement and the pursuit of regulatory rules; they are sensitive to the presence and absence of positive regulations; they concentrate on hopes, aspirations, and ideals; and they employ approach (eager) strategies, which ensure for the presence of positive rules and/or against the absence of positive regulations. Promotion-focused decision-makers favor action and pay less attention to details, given their strong preference for regulatory rules rather than guessing.

The results in the previous chapter revealed that most of the respondents indicated that decision making in the universities was hinged on determined ethical procedures in public universities. However, a minor proportion of them disagreed that decision making in these universities was hinged on determined ethical procedures in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, most of the respondents agreed that decision making in universities was hinged on determined ethical procedures in universities in Uganda.

The management controls were found to have significantly reduced fraud in public and private universities respectively. This means that on average, most of the respondents agreed that the guidelines for all proceedings were clearly laid down for all members involved to know in the universities in Uganda. This is supported by Higgins (2005: 112) who noted that individuals with a prevention focus emphasize safety and the avoidance of losses; are sensitive to the presence and absence of negative outcomes; they concentrate on duties, obligations, and “oughts”; and they employ avoidance (vigilant) strategies, which ensure for the absence of negative outcomes (non-losses) and/or against the presence of negative outcomes. This ultimately reduces on the authenticity of the regulatory rules which often results in abuse of the procedures and fraud in the university.

It was also found out that most of the respondents agreed that the regulatory rules used in this university have helped control disagreements in public universities. Majority of them acknowledged that the regulatory rules used in this university have helped control disagreements in private universities. However, a minority of them disagreed that the regulatory rules used in this university have helped control disagreements in public and private universities respectively. This implies that on average, most of the respondents agreed that the regulatory rules used in this university have helped control disagreements in universities in Uganda.

The findings further revealed that some of the respondents agreed that governance committees continuously review the regulatory rules in public universities. Majority of them agreed that governance committees continuously review the regulatory rules in

private universities. However, a few of them disagreed that governance committees continuously review the regulatory rules in public and private universities respectively. This implies that on average, most of the respondents agreed that governance committees continuously review the regulatory rules in universities in Uganda. This is supported by Crowe and Higgins (1997: 45); Shah, Higgins, and Friedman (1998: 116) who indicated that although committees would focus on specified organization goals (profits, sales) as their reference point, a promotion-focused manager would approach the desired end goal with strategic eagerness, whereas a prevention-focused manager would approach it with strategic vigilance. Controlling for regulatory reference, regulatory focus effects persist. This implies that the regulatory rules can be subject to review for time to time and thus affect those who participate in the decision making process in the universities. From the results presented in chapter four, it was found out that the average mean response was 2.298 and the standard deviation was 0.801. From the legend, this implies that on average, most of the respondents remained neutral about issue of regulatory rules in decision-making in universities in Uganda. The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient for regulatory rules and decision making in private universities was found to be 0.558 as compared to 0.521 in public universities. This implied that regulatory rules have a stronger association with decision making in private universities than in public universities in Uganda.

There are a number of ways in which bureaucratic incentives and structures are thought to affect bureaucratic performance - with much of the theoretical support from the classic work of Weber (Evans and Rauch, 2000: 79). The main argument, articulated most

clearly in Evans and Rauch (2000: 43), is that replacing patronage systems for state officials by a professional bureaucracy is a necessary (though not sufficient) condition for a state to be developmental (Evans and Rauch, 2000: 44). Lecturers, like other public servants should act in the public interest. Weber argued that a key aspect was the distinction between public moneys and equipment and the private property of the official (UNICEF, 2013: 78). Evidence from the miracle era in East Asia highlights meritocratic recruitment and deep bureaucratic traditions as crucial to their development success (World Bank, 2010: 120). In contrast, it has been a standard theme in the literature on African states that public officials serve their own interests rather than that of the public (Evans and Rauch, 2000: 56).

Much of the literature on how bureaucracies perform, centers on this fundamental issue. More specifically it deals with themes such as merit in recruitment and promotion, adequate incentives, rule orientation, and accountability. The need to have objective entry requirements or an independent body on public service employment is a key concern. Another important issue in the bureaucratic arena is the extent to which officials follow rules. Clear rules relating to how decisions are made and how civil servants conduct themselves are important for performance (World Bank, 2010: 89). Although the existence of clear rules is often related to how the public views the bureaucracy, it is also linked to how efficient it is. Clear decision-making rules are typically seen as enhancing efficiency. The risk of misuse of public office and poor decisions is seen as higher, the less clear rules are (UNICEF, 2013: 99). Probing how our respondents experience the decision-making rules in bureaucracy, therefore, was an indicator in this study.

Policy issues in universities are typically complex and multi-dimensional requiring the insights of individuals with professional and specialized competence. Structuring the policy formulation and implementation process such that government operations can benefit from the advice of professionals is seen to be an important issue affecting bureaucratic performance. The extent to which authority is given to specialized agencies to formulate policy indicates a strong role for bureaucrats. Although there are varied opinions about the extent to which participatory approaches can be accommodated with bureaucratic decision-making (Evans and Rauch, 2000: 56), bureaucracies need a definite measure of autonomy from both politicians and the public. It cannot afford to be responsive to every demand placed upon it. A degree of autonomy, therefore, seems to be helpful when it comes to formulating and implementing development strategies. On the other hand, links to certain groups in universities are common and sometimes institutionalized, as, for example in Japan and Korea (UNICEF, 2013: 124), where relations between bureaucrats and business people have for a long time been quite close.

To Weber, the greatest asset of bureaucracy is an institutional method for applying general rules to specific cases, thereby, making the actions of organizations fair and predictable. The rules enable the bureaucrat to pursue a rationalistic way of life through the principle of specializing administrative functions according to purely objective considerations. The development of rules in bureaucracies reduces the chance that they do not violate an important contextual goal or constraint - such as treating citizens fairly (equity), and ensuring that citizens will have the same opportunity to receive services (equality).

It is not an exaggeration to state that many consider a defining characteristic of universities, the necessity of applying the standard rules and procedures for seemingly every imaginable occasion. Moreover, university stakeholders not only use these regulations, but also for guidance. This is especially true when private universities use federal or state frameworks and policies for and therefore must operate under the same bureaucratic constraints. In universities, every functional unit has an exhaustive list of standard operating procedures.

To the advocates of New Public Management, the Weberian model of bureaucracy is no longer relevant because of the transformation of democratic societies. In the reform and reinvention literature, there is a belief that capitalism and democracy are no longer dependent on the role of the bureaucratic apparatus. In fact, capitalism and democracy are prevented from finding their full expression by the existence of bureaucracy. This perhaps explains why majority of the respondents remained neutral concerning the fact that regulatory rules had been effective in ensuring effective decision-making in the universities. Once again, segregation of some staffs on the basis of their faith may not be very good as it locks out bright opinions from those of the different faith. The respondents further suggested relaxation of issues of faith especially when carrying out decisions that are of educational nature.

5.1.4. Authoritative Structures and Decision-Making in Universities

The organizational structure of colleges and universities in many countries is an important guide to institutional activity, but not the only one. Scholars of higher

education have developed a variety of multi-dimensional models of organizational behavior that also shed considerable light on college and university structure and process. Multi-dimensional models sought to explain organizational behavior across institutional types, and in various institutional activities. The models vary somewhat in the number of dimensions incorporated, from Baldrige's three dimensions (bureaucratic, collegial, and political) and Lee Bolman and Terrence Deal's four-cornered frame (structural, human resource, political, and symbolic) to Robert Birnbaum's five dimensions (bureaucratic, collegial, political, anarchical, and cybernetic). These models are quite helpful in thinking about organizational structure and process within colleges and universities.

The results in chapter four revealed that most of the respondents agreed that the university has decentralized authority to departments in order to improve in public universities. However, majority of them agreed that the university has decentralized authority to departments in order to improve in private universities. A minimal proportion of them disagreed that the university has decentralized authority to departments in order to improve public and private universities respectively. This implies that the universities had decentralized authority to departments in order to improve in decision making. This was found to be in agreement with Obondoh (2001: 29) who suggested that university managers in the world should consider the following: the appointment of staff and delegating authority; internal organizational structure; and the allocation of available resources to operate and support programs for effective governance. This means that university managers have the obligation to delegate authority to those appointed in positions of authority.

Data presented in chapter four further revealed that majority of the respondents agreed that in this university, authority was vested in formal structures for improvement in public universities. However, another marginal proportion agreed that in their universities, authority was vested in formal structures for improvement in private universities. Only a small proportion of them disagreed that authority was vested in formal structures for improvement in public and private universities respectively. This implies that authority was vested in formal structures for improvement in universities in Uganda. This was found to be in conformity with Gayle et al (2003: 78) who argued that putting powers and resources in the hands of local communities promotes responsibility and informed decision making for effective governance in universities.

It was also found out that majority of the respondents agreed that there is lack of authority at the lower administrative structures in both public and private universities. This was in agreement with Nadam (2008: 99) who found out that participation of lower level staff in decision making process in Pakistan universities was ignored. This has several implications in that conflicting political parties find it easy to mobilize groups of students or teachers at a university in order to influence political thinking (Kogan, 2000: 87). In playing these political games, politicians interfere with university decision making processes. This political interference has reduced the talents and opinions of university managers in ensuring effective management.

The results also revealed that only a minimal proportion of the respondents agreed that liberalization of authority had greatly improved decision making in both public and

private universities. However, a similar proportion of them disagreed that liberalization of authority had greatly improved decision making the public and private universities respectively. This implies that most of the problems in the universities were a result of the fact that liberalization of authority had not improved decision making in the universities in Uganda. This was in conformity with Gayle et al (2003: 49) who in their study found out that the facilitation of greater involvement of teachers in university affairs came out as a serious administrative and leadership problem. The general absence of a culture of dialogue and joint forums in the universities manifested in rising cases of unrest (Chacha, 2000: 98).

On the whole, it was found out that authoritative structures in the universities was 2.256 and the standard deviation was 0.812. This implied that on average, most of the respondents remained neutral on the issues of effect of authoritative structures on decision-making in the universities in Uganda. This empirical finding was found to be in close agreement with the data collected during the face to face interviews with members from the University Council and Senate. For instance, as regards authoritative structures, the members of Council interviewed from different universities acknowledged that both public and private universities in Uganda are authoritatively structured. This was in agreement with the literature reviewed in that among the measures for improvement in university management, Sanyal, Martin & D'Antoni (1996: 89) recognized a decentralization of authority to the basic units and the establishment of more direct patterns of accountability in the system. Universities, like all organizations, coordinate and integrate internal forces in a process of maintaining efforts - a balance between

centralization and decentralization which is regarded as being of vital importance for both staff and the work itself.

In fact, university management encourages continuous effective communication and harmonization of all activities in order to ensure an effective university performance. Taking into consideration that a) higher education affects the economy in several significant ways as it serves to increase an individual's knowledge base, and b) management in higher education is closely intertwined with policy and practice (Kogan, 2000: 78; Teichler, 2003: 113), the provision of quality higher education is playing a more critical role globally as it maximizes welfare and gives a country a competitive advantage.

Generally, this implied that although there was a wider variation in terms of the respondents' views on authoritative structures and decision-making. It was found out that authority was vested in formal structures for improvement in universities in Uganda. This implied that failure to clearly define where authority lies had created problems in the decision in universities in Uganda. In other words, most of the problems in the universities could be a result of the fact that authority was vested in the hands of a few top administrators. The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient between authoritative structures and decision making was found to be 0.615 for private universities and 0.357 for public universities. This implied that there was a stronger association between authoritative structures and decision making in private universities than in public universities in Uganda.

Public and private colleges and universities of all types incorporate key authority structures, including a governing board, a president or chancellor, a cohort of administrative leaders, and an academic senate. In public institutions these core organizational entities collaborate with such external authorities as state and federal political leaders, community organizations, and members of the public, as well as business interests and philanthropic foundations. These external organizations routinely interact with and shape the policies and procedures of the university's internal organizational structures.

The degree of uniformity in private and public college and university organizational structures has been shaped by the nature of demands on the postsecondary system since the mid-twentieth century. Although the key governance structures of colleges and universities were present prior to the turn of the twentieth century, the full scope of the university's multifaceted organizational structure, most scholars agree, was not realized until after the rise of the research university, in the wake of World War II. In 1963 then-president of the University of California system, Clark Kerr, described the postwar American university as a multiversity. The term captured the increasingly complex organizational and governance structures required to negotiate its ever-expanding task environment.

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implied that failure to clearly define where authority lies had created problems in the decision in universities in Uganda. In other words, most of the problems in the universities could be a result of the fact that authority was vested in the hands of a few top administrators.

5.2. Conclusions

The conclusion from the present research are presented in this section. The conclusions are presented objective by objective. From the results of the study, all the constructs of bureaucracy were correlated with decision-making in both public and private universities in Uganda. The strength of the correlation between division of labour and decision-making was highest in private than in public universities. Similarly, the strength of the correlation between regulatory rules and decision-making was highest in private than in public universities. In terms of effect of the constructs of bureaucracy, it was concluded as follow:

5.2.1. Division of Labour and Decision-making in Universities

Division of labour significantly effects decision-making more in private than in public universities in Uganda. A unit improvement in division of labour leads to better decision-making in universities. There was low stakeholder involvement in the electoral process in private than public universities. Division of labour was not based on social class in both public and private universities; and information flow between governance structures does not flow easily in public universities as compared to private universities.

5.2.2. Participation of Individual Staff and Decision-making in Universities

Participation of individual staff in various positions significantly affects decision-making more in public than in private universities in Uganda. Improvements in individual participation staff in various positions lead to better decision-making in universities. There was insufficient participation of individuals more in private than in public universities. Participation of individuals was not based on purpose in both public and private universities. The decisions were not based on collective participation of all individuals.

5.2.3. Regulatory Rules and Decision-making in Universities

Regulatory rules significantly affect decision-making more in private than in public universities in Uganda. Improvements in use of regulatory rules leads to better decision-making in universities in Uganda. Management controls have not reduced fraud especially in public universities. Governance does not continuously review regulatory rules especially in public universities.

5.2.4. Authoritative Structures and Decision-making in Universities

Authoritative structure significantly affects decision-making more in private than in public universities in Uganda. Any improvements in authoritative structures leads to improved decision-making in universities. There was no decentralized authority to departments especially in public and liberalization of authority had not improved decision-making in both public and private universities.

On the whole, bureaucracy has a more significant effect on decision-making in private than in public universities in Uganda. A unit change in bureaucracy has a correspondingly higher effect on decision-making in private than in public universities in Uganda. An improvement in the bureaucratic system in the universities leads to a greater improvement in decision-making in private than in public universities.

5.2.5. 5.3. Recommendations

The recommendations from the present research are presented in this section. The recommendations are presented objective by objective.

5.3.1. Division of Labour and decision-making in universities

Whereas division of labour is useful in ensuring appropriate flow of governance, it is recommended that management of the universities should follow structures in the universities to avoid role conflict and grumbling from those that seem to be sidelined in the system. Universities should increase their focus on division of labour in order to cause a significant effect of decision-making process in the institutions. In particular, public universities should pay more attention to stakeholder involvement in the electoral process, division of labour should be based on social classes for both public and private universities. There should be effective information flow between governance structures especially in public universities. This would ultimately lead to significant improvement of the decision-making process in their universities.

5.3.2. Participation of Individuals and decision-making in universities

University management should encourage individual staff to work hand in hand with each other and all stakeholders to enable university management improve on decision making in public universities. In particular, private universities should focus more on participation of individual staff, participation of individuals should be based on purpose; decisions should be collective in order to significantly improve on the decision-making process in their universities. Management of private universities should adopt the openness approach in decision-making in their universities in order to attain inclusiveness in decision-making process.

5.3.3. Regulatory Rules and decision-making in universities

University management should ensure adoption of effective regulatory rules that should be continuously reviewed to keep in touch with the changes that take place in universities in Uganda. Management controls should be enhanced in order to control fraud especially in public universities. Governance should continuously review regulatory rules and they should not be discriminatory or segregative in any way. They should be all embracing. The public universities should greatly improve on use of regulatory rules to improve on the decision-making processes. Management of public universities should make use of the clearly defined structures to enforce regulatory rules in order to improve on decision-making in their universities.

5.3.4. Authoritative Structures and decision-making in universities

University management should adopt effective communication and information flow within the authoritative structures in the universities. University management should

decentralize authority to departments especially in public universities. They should ensure liberalization of authority in order to improve on decision-making in the universities. Management should build a basis of professional bureaucratic approach properly and abandon subjective bureaucracy through attending seminars and regular meetings by the department managers in order to find out their opinions on the work of the organization and contribute to the efforts for improving the overall performance and provide transparent working environment. Public universities should pay more attention on authoritative structures in order to significantly improve on decision-making in their universities.

5.4. Contributions of the Study

This study is the first one to establish the effect of bureaucracy on decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda. Until the present study was undertaken, there had not been studies on the effect of bureaucracy on decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda. This study explored the effect of division of labour with special focus on social, technical and territorial division. On participation of individuals, particular interest was paid to the rationale, structure, form and decision issues. On regulatory rules, consensus procedure, ethical and ruled-based procedures were the main focus while on authoritative structures, centrality, formal and decentralized structures were the major focus.

The empirical findings in this study are a contribution to the existing body of knowledge in the disciplines of governance and management in higher education. The findings have

also provided new empirical affirmation to literature on bureaucracy and decision-making in general. The empirical findings affirm Max-Weber's bureaucratic theory. Publications from the findings of this study will create a reference point for academicians, managers and policy makers in educational institutions of higher learning. This study is therefore important to academicians in the fields of governance and management, education and public administration.

5.5. Recommendations Areas for Further Research

The study recommends further studies in the following areas:

- This study focused on only bureaucracy and decision making but did not focus on other important roles of universities such as teaching, research and service to communities. In this regard, it is recommended that further research could focus on the effect of bureaucracy on either teaching, research or service to communities in which the universities exist.
- The study did not seek to establish the factors that contribute to proper implementation of the bureaucratic system of governance in the universities. Therefore, it is recommended that further research could be done to establish the factors that affect adoption and implementation of bureaucratic principles in institutions of higher learning in Uganda.
- Similarly, the study did not consider the other factors that affect decision making apart from bureaucracy so, it is recommended that a study could be done on other factors that affect decision making in universities in Uganda.

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APPENDICES
MBARARA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
PhD RESEARCH PROJECT

Dear Respondent,

Request to Complete a Research Questionnaire.

I am a PhD student of Mbarara University of Science and Technology, conducting a study on Bureaucracy and Decision making in public and private universities in Uganda; A Comparative Survey. This is part of the requirements for successful completion of the programme. You have been identified as a potential respondent in this study. Therefore, this is to request you to complete this Questionnaire as honestly as possible. Your opinion will not only be respected but will also be treated with utmost anonymity and confidentially. The responses you will give will be strictly used for the purpose of this study.

Yours sincerely,

Kyatuha Ovia Mwisaka

**APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LECTURERS, NON-TEACHING STAFF
AND STUDENT LEADERS**

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Instruction: For each of the items in this section, kindly tick (√) in the box that represents the right option and where necessary, specify accordingly.

1. Sex
1. Male
2. Female
2. Duration of service within this Institution
 1. Less than one year
 2. 1-5 years
 3. 6-10 years
 4. 11-15 years
 5. More than 15 years
3. Designation
 1. Council member
 2. Member of Senate
 3. Administrative staff

- 4. Dean
- 5. Head of Department
- 6. Lecturer
- 7. Student Leaders
- 8. Other (specify)
- 4. Highest level of Education (qualification).
- 1. PhD
- 2. Master's Degree
- 3. Bachelor's Degree
- 4. Diploma
- 5. Other (specify)

SECTION B: BUREAUCRACY

Please tick on the rating scale whether you “Strongly Agree” (5), “Agree” (4), Neutral (3), “Disagree” (2) or “Strongly Disagree” (1) with each of the statements below.

DIVISION OF LABOUR	1	2	3	4	5
1. In this university, there is a clearly marked division of labor known to everybody.					
2. In this university, there is strong stakeholder involvement in the election process of top administrators in university governance					
3. There is an appropriate governance structure that duly ensures that administrators have appropriate capacity to perform their duties.					
4. There is an independent nominating committee for top management to ensure effective decision making.					
5. The division of labor in this university is based on social class of individuals which negatively affects decision making.					
6. The division of labor in this university is based on technical knowhow (training) that has improved on decision making					
7. The division of labour in this university is based on experience of the individuals which positively affects decision making.					
8. Division of labour is based on departmental sub-divisions in the university setting for improved decision making.					
9. Our top management bodies (Council, Senate, etc) are in place for effective leadership.					
10. Information between governance structures (Council, Senate, Colleges, Schools, Departments, etc) flows easily from top to bottom.					

11. There is formality on all committee proceedings at the various structural levels in the university thereby positively affecting decision making.					
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PARTICIPATION OF INDIVIDUALS	1	2	3	4	5
12. There is effective participation of various individuals in the decision making process in this university.					
13. The university plans orientation process for new members on each management committee.					
14. The members sitting on each management board/committee are aware of what is expected.					
15. The agenda of meetings is always well planned for everyone to effectively participate.					
16. Members of the committees/boards/councils receive written reports to the board in advance of meetings to enable them participate effectively.					
17. The participation of individuals on the basis of purpose of the decision being made at the time has minimized disagreements in the university.					
18. Most members on the management committees/boards effectively participate because the members come to meetings prepared.					
19. Participation of individuals depends on the structural setting in the department/faculty or colleges thereby improving on decision making in the department.					
20. The participation of all members on each management committee/board is important board discussions has improved on decision making.					
21. Involvement of individuals based on the kind of decision issues at the time improves on the ultimate decisions in the university.					
22. Since all decisions made are a result of collective participation of the members, the decisions are always good					
23. Effective participation of members at various levels of university business has improved on management.					

REGULATORY RULES	1	2	3	4	5
24. The guidelines for all proceedings are clearly laid down for all members involved to know.					
25. The procedure of decision making in particular cases is through consensus while in other cases it is by voting.					
26. It is a requirement that before decisions are made, exhaustive discussions are held before members subject themselves to the ultimate decision.					
27. Decision making in this university is hinged on determined ethical procedures that are provided in the rules of procedure.					
28. In execution of any decision, Management sticks to the established procedures as required by the rules.					
29. The management controls have significantly reduced fraud and misuse of university resources.					

30. The members of the various committees usually discuss all management issues before reporting anything to the rest of the university community.					
31. The regulatory rules used in this university have helped control disagreements among stakeholders.					
32. The regulatory rules have been a source of problems as they affect the decision making processes.					
33. Governance committees continuously review the regulatory rules to ensure that there is consensus.					

AUTHORITATIVE STRUCTURE	1	2	3	4	5
34. In this university, the decision making procedures used negatively affect the decisions made.					
35. The university has decentralized authority to departments in order to improve on the decision making process.					
36. In this university, authority is vested in formal structures for improvement of decision made.					
37. Failure to clearly define where authority lies has created problems in the decision making process in this university.					
38. Most of the problems in this university are a result of the fact that authority is vested in the hands of a few top administrators.					
39. Centrality of decision making in a university setting negatively affects implementation of the decisions made.					
40. Lack of authority at the lower administrative structures in this university has greatly affected decision making.					
41. Liberalization of authority has greatly improved decision making in this university.					

SECTION C: DECISION MAKING

Please tick on the rating scale whether you “Strongly Agree” (5), “Agree” (4), Neutral (3), “Disagree” (2) or “Strongly Disagree” (1) with each of the statements below.

DECISION MAKING	1	2	3	4	5
42. Decision making in this university follows a clearly defined procedure that is known to all stakeholders.					
43. Decision making in the university is rational, always based on critical evaluation of the situation obtaining in the university.					
44. Decision making in this university is haphazardly done without involvement of stakeholders.					

45. Decision making in this university is politically engineered.					
46. Decision making in this university is dictated by those in whose hands power is vested.					
47. The problems of the university are a result of the poor decision making process employed by top managers.					
48. Decision making in this university has been negatively affected by the red-tape (bureaucratic) system of management.					
49. In making decisions in this university, those involved determine the factors most important to decision issues in order to evaluate their choices.					
50. Some of the options chosen are often much more difficult to implement than expected.					
51. When communicating the decisions, management includes the rationale and justification.					
52. In a group decision-making process, those involved tend to support the friends' proposals in order to find ways to make them work.					
53. Before a decision is communicated, there is always an implementation plan					
54. When making decisions, they consider a variety of potential solutions before they make the decision.					
55. In this university, those involved in decision making, take time to choose the best alternative for each situation.					
56. Whenever there are doubts about any decision, we usually recheck the assumptions used in the decision making process.					
57. I think that involving many stakeholders to generate solutions can make the process more complicated than it needs to be.					
58. In this university, people are often times surprised by the actual consequences of their decisions.					
59. In this university, people are often times surprised by the actual consequences of their decisions.					
60. During the decision making process, most people tend to have strong "personal instincts" about problems.					
61. The decision making in this university relies on peoples own experience to find potential solutions to a problem.					
62. Before starting a decision-making process, those involved try to determine the real issue.					
63. After making a decision, it is final because they know that the process is strong.					
64. Decision making in this university is done after evaluating the risks associated with each alternative.					
65. The decision making process is selectively done by only a few people.					

SECTION D: POSSIBLE INTERVENING VARIABLES

Please tick on the rating scale whether you "Strongly Agree" (5), "Agree" (4), Neutral (3), "Disagree" (2) or "Strongly Disagree" (1) with each of the statements.

INTERVENING VIRIABLE	1	2	3	4	5
66. The environment in this university does not promote effective decision making.					
67. The decision making process significantly contributes to the challenges faced by management.					
68. The level of knowledge of the members on the decision making bodies has a significant effect on the decisions made in this university.					
69. The level of experience of the members on the decision making bodies has a significant effect on the decisions made in this university.					
70. The organizational culture in this university significantly contributed to the nature of decisions made by university authorities.					
71. The National Policies such as those laid down by National Council for Higher Education; significantly affect the decisions made in this university.					
72. Political interference is one of the factors that accounts for most of the problems faced by the university.					
73. Political interference is one of the factors hindering effective decision making in this university.					
74. Ownership of the university (government or private) does affect decision making.					
75. Ownership of the university is responsible for most of the problems encountered by management					

Thank you so much for participating in this study

END

APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MEMBERS OF COUNCIL AND SENATE.

The following items were used to guide the face to face interviews with the members of University Councils, Senate of the universities under study.

ITEMS

1. Could you kindly explain how the following are appointed: Council Members, Members of Senate?
2. As a Council Member (Senate, Vice Chancellor), in this university, comment on the institution's adherence to principles of sound decision making and management like compliance with National Council of Higher Education regulations, flow of authority in accordance with management structures and accountability?
3. In your opinion, what do you think are the obstacles limiting effective decision making and management in this university?
4. What activities has your university undertaken to develop and sustain effective decision making?
5. Comment on the performance of the following university organs in ensuring effective decision making and management in the university:
 - i. University Council,
 - ii. Senate,
 - iii. University Secretariat.
6. How do you view the status of your university's organizational and management structure, mechanism and academic freedoms?
7. Would you say that the university management structure is bureaucratic? If yes, could you kindly explain why you say so?
8. In your opinion, how are decision made in this university? Kindly describe what happens and how decisions come into force.

9. In your view, is there any relationship between the nature of university organization (structure) and the nature of decision making in this university? Please explain your response.
10. What other factors could be responsible for the nature of decisions made in this university?
11. If you were to advise the university managers in this university, what do you think they should do to improve on the decision making processes and ultimately the management of the university?

Thank you so much for participating in this study

APPENDIX III: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR COMMUNITY PEOPLE WITHIN UNIVERSITIES (PARENTS/GUARDIANS, BUSINESS PEOPLE).

The following items were used to guide the face to face interviews with the Parents/Guardians and business people of the students in the universities under study.

ITEMS

1. Since you are the guardians/parents of the students in this university, you might have knowledge on how the following are appointed: Council Members, Members of Senate and the Vice Chancellor. Could you please explain how they are appointed?
2. As a parent/Guardian of the student in this University's, comment on the institution's adherence to principles of sound decision making and management like compliance with National Council of Higher Education regulations, flow of authority in accordance with management structures and accountability?
3. In your opinion, what do you think are the obstacles limiting effective decision making and management in this university?
4. What activities has your university undertaken to develop and sustain effective decision making?
5. Comment on the performance of the following university organs in ensuring effective decision making and management in the university:
 - i. University Council,
 - ii. Senate,
 - iii. University Secretariat.
6. How do you view the status of your university's organizational and management structure, mechanism and academic freedoms?
7. Would you say that the university management structure is bureaucratic? If yes, could you kindly explain why you say so?

8. In your opinion, how are decision made in this university? Kindly describe what happens and how decisions come into force.
9. In your view, is there any relationship between the nature of university organization (structure) and the nature of decision making in this university? Please explain your response.
10. What other factors could be responsible for the nature of decisions made in this university?
11. If you were to advise the university managers in this university, what do you think they should do to improve on the decision making processes and ultimately the management of the university?

Thank you so much for participating in this study

APPENDIX IV: WORK PLAN AND TIME FRAME

In order to carry out this study, the researcher tried to restrict herself to the work plan and time frame below:

No.	ACTIVITY	DURATION
1.	Research proposal development	
	Library literature search and reading around and about the topic	One week
	Literature search (Internet and other sources)	One week
	Consultations with lecturers to sharpen the topic	One week
	Writing draft proposal	Two weeks
	Typesetting, proof reading and editing	Four days
	Working on the final proposal, printing, binding and submission	Three days
	Development of data collection instruments	One week
2.	Pilot study	
	Securing materials	One week
	Distribution of questionnaires	One week
	Computation of validity and reliability	One week
	Adjusting items in the instruments accordingly	Three days
3.	Data collection	
	Securing materials	One week
	Printing out and photocopying instruments	Three days
	Distribution of questionnaires	Three weeks
	Holding face to face interviews	Four weeks
	Collection of completed questionnaires	Four weeks
4.	Data analysis	
	Coding and tallying	One week
	Transcribing data	One week
5.	Report writing	
	Writing the draft report	Four weeks
	Typesetting	Three weeks
	Proof reading, editing and correcting draft	Three weeks
	Consultation with supervisor, reviewing and making final copy	Two weeks
	Printing, binding & submission	Two weeks

**APPENDIX V: COMPUTATION OF VALIDITY USING RATINGS FROM
THREE EXPERTS**

Three experts were requested to rate the items in the instrument as very relevant (VR), relevant (R) somewhat relevant (SWR) or not relevant (NR). Table below shows their ratings.

Rater/Rating	VR/R	SWR	NR
Rater 1	63	5	3
Rater 2	68	2	1
Rater 3	69	2	0

From data in the table, it is evident that all the raters agreed on at least 63 items as being either very relevant or relevant. Therefore, using the formula below, the content validity index was computed.

$$CVI = \frac{VR + R}{K}$$

K;

Where VR is for Very Relevant, R for Relevant and K is for total number of items in the instrument.

Substituting in the formula;

$$CVI = \frac{63}{75} = 0.84 = \mathbf{0.84}$$

Interpretation

Content Validity Index (CVI) presents an indication of the level of validity of the instrument. A high value for CVI indicates good level of validity of the items in the instrument. According to George & Mallery (2003) the values of the CVI are interpreted as follows:

- i. Equal to or greater than 0.9 = Excellent Validity,
- ii. Equal to or greater than 0.8 = Good Validity,
- iii. Equal to or greater than 0.7 = Acceptable Validity,
- iv. Equal to or greater than 0.6 = Questionable Validity,

- v. Equal to or greater than 0.5 = Poor Validity, and
- vi. Equal to or less than 0.5 = Unacceptable Validity.

Therefore, given that the calculated CVI for the Questionnaire was found to be **0.89** which is equal to greater than 0.7, it means that the validity of the questionnaire is acceptable. Thus the questionnaire was used for data collection in this study and it gave valid results.

appendix vi: MBARARA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW COMMITTEE

P.O. Box 1410, Mbarara, Uganda

Tel: 256-4854-33795 Fax: 256 4854 20782

Email: irc@must.ac.ugmustirb@gmail.com

Web site : www.must.ac.ug

<http://www.must.ac.ug/>



INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

This document outlines the research study and expectations for potential participants. It should be written in layman terms and typed on MUST-IRC letterhead. The wording should be directed to the potential participant NOT to IRC. If a technical term must be used, define it the first time it is used. Also, any abbreviation should be spelled out the first time it is used.

NB: All the sections of this document must be completed without any editing or deletions

Please use a typing font that is easily distinguishable from the questions of the form

Study Title: *It should be the same as on all other documents related to the study*

**BUREAUCRACY AND DECISION MAKING IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE
UNIVERSITIES IN UGANDA: A COMPARATIVE SURVEY**

Principal Investigator(s):

KYATUHA OVIA MWISAKA

INTRODUCTION

What you should know about this study:

- You are being asked to join a research study.
- This consent form explains the research study and your part in the study
- Please read it carefully and take as much time as you need

- You are a volunteer. You can choose not to take part and if you join, you are free to withdraw from the study at any time without any objection.

<p>Leave blank for IRC Official only:</p> <p>MUST – IRC Stamp:</p>	<p>IRC OFFICE USE ONLY</p> <p>APPROVAL DATE:</p> <p>APPROVED CONSENT IRB VERSION NUMBER:</p> <p>P I NUMBER:</p> <p>IRB NO:</p>
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Provide here a brief background to the study

- *In the past five years, there have been several strikes in universities in Uganda.*
- *The strikes have been attributed to non-participatory decision making by top management in the university sector.*
- *Although several studies (Basheka, Muhenda and Kittobe, 2009; Kayongo, 2009; Okwakol, 2009; 2004, Kasozi ,2003); have been carried out on higher education in Uganda, they have not focused on bureaucracy and decision-making.*
- *This has created a knowledge gap that the current study attempts to fill.*

Purpose of the research project: *Include a statement that the study involves research, estimated number of participants, an explanation of the purpose(s) of the research procedure and the expected duration of the subject's participation.*

Purpose: **To make a comparative analysis of how bureaucracy affects decision making in the university sector in Uganda.**

Objectives:

- i). **Examine the effect of division of labor on decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.**
- ii). **Demonstrate how authoritative structure affects decision making in public and private universities in Uganda.**

iii). To find out how participation of individual staff in various positions affects decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.

iv). Establish how existing regulatory rules affect decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.

- **Research Design:** A descriptive research design with both qualitative and quantitative approaches
- **Study Population:**
 - Members of Governing Councils
 - Members of Senate

<p>Leave blank for IRC Official only:</p> <p>MUST – IRC Stamp:</p>	<p>IRC OFFICE USE ONLY</p> <p>APPROVAL DATE:</p> <p>APPROVED CONSENT IRB VERSION NUMBER:</p> <p>P I NUMBER:</p> <p>IRB NO:</p>
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- Vice Chancellors
- Teaching and non-teaching Staff,
- Students leaders
- Parents /Guardians.
- From the statistics obtained from NCHE (2014), the target population of the study to be selected is 5420.
- **Sample Size:** Using Sloven Formula the sample size of the study will be 373 respondents.
- **Sampling Methods:** Purposive, Stratified and Snowball.
- **Data Collection Methods:** Questionnaire, Interviews.
- **Validity:** Will be assessed through consultation with supervisors and then computing the CVI.
- **Reliability:** Will be by pre-testing the questionnaires, interview guides and calculating the reliability coefficient (α).

- **Data Processing and Analysis:** The data collected will be cleaned and edited to ensure consistency, completeness and accuracy.
- **Using the SPSS, the data will be analyzed descriptively using mean and a regression analysis will be used to determine the perceived effect of bureaucracy on decision-making in the University sector.**
- **Comparison of results will also be done by considering the percentages obtained through the use of MS Excel.**

Why you are being asked to participate: *Explain why you have selected the individual to participate in the study.*

You are being asked to participate in this study because apart from being a stakeholder, the researcher feels that you have the vital information that the study intends to establish about universities in Uganda.

Procedures: *Provide a description of the procedures to be followed and identification of any procedures that are experimental, clinical etc. If there is need for storage of biological (body) specimens, explain why, and include a statement requesting for consent to store the specimens and state the duration of storage.*

Not Applicable

<p>Leave blank for IRC Official only:</p> <p>MUST – IRC Stamp:</p>	<p>IRC OFFICE USE ONLY</p> <p>APPROVAL DATE:</p> <p>APPROVED CONSENT IRB VERSION NUMBER:</p> <p>P I NUMBER:</p> <p>IRB NO:</p>
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Risks / discomforts: *Describe any reasonably foreseeable risks or discomforts-physical, psychological, social, legal or other associated with the procedure, and include information about their likelihood and seriousness. Discuss the procedures for protecting against or minimizing any potential risks to the subject. Discuss the risks in relation to the anticipated benefits to the subjects and to society.*

There are no risks involved with the procedures of this study.

Benefits: *Describe any benefits to the subject or other benefits that may reasonably be expected from the research. If the subject is not likely to benefit personally from the experimental protocol note this in the statement of benefits.*

There will be no direct benefit to the individual respondents but the study findings, conclusions and recommendations may be used to improve decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.

Incentives / rewards for participating: *It is assumed that there are no costs to subjects enrolled in research protocols. Any payments to be made to the subject (e.g., travel expenses, token of appreciation for time spent) must also be stated, including when the payment will be made.*

There will be no costs to those who will participate in the study. However, the researcher will take time to brief the subjects on the nature and importance of the study in order to secure their willingness to participate in the study.

Protecting data confidentiality: *Provide a statement describing the extent, if any, to which confidentiality or records identifying the subjects will be maintained. If data is in form of tape recordings, photographs, movies or videotapes, researcher should describe period of time they will be retained before destruction. Showing or playing of such data must be disclosed, including instructional purposes.*

Identification of subjects will be done in consultation with top management in the institutions (universities) to ensure that those that have the necessary data are selected. The raw data will be kept secure until the project is completed and endorsed by authorities in the academia.

Protecting subject privacy during data collection: *Describe how this will be ensured.*

Leave blank for IRC Official only:	IRC OFFICE USE ONLY
MUST – IRC Stamp:	APPROVAL DATE:
	APPROVED CONSENT IRB VERSION NUMBER:
	P I NUMBER:
	IRB NO:

The researcher will respect anonymity of the respondents by ensuring confidentiality of the respondents and the data provided. This will be done through assurance that the information they will provide will be purely for academic purposes and that their identity will not be disclosed to anyone. This will be highlighted in the introductory part of the questionnaire. All the sources of literature have been acknowledged through citations and referencing. Lastly, objectivity will be considered during report writing to avoid personal bias.

Right to refuse / withdraw: *Include a statement that participation is voluntary, refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which the subject is otherwise entitled.*

During the time of data collection, respondents will be briefed and told that they are free to participate or to refuse or withdraw at any stage without coercion.

What happens if you leave the study? *Include a statement that the subject may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits.*

The respondents will be free to withdraw their participation in the study. A consent form will be attached where the respondents will be required to sign indicating that they have consented to participating in the study.

Who do I ask/call if I have questions or a problem? *Include contact for researcher or Faculty advisor and Chairman MUST-IRC*

Call Kyatuha Ovia Mwisaka on 0772 615101/0701 615101

Email: kyatuaovia@yahoo.co.uk

Dr. Anguma Simon Chairman MUST-IRC on +256 712 602 114

Email: sanguma@must.ac.ug

<p>Leave blank for IRC Official only:</p> <p>MUST – IRC Stamp:</p>	<p>IRC OFFICE USE ONLY</p> <p>APPROVAL DATE:</p> <p>APPROVED CONSENT IRB VERSION NUMBER:</p> <p>P I NUMBER:</p> <p>IRB NO:</p>
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What does your signature (or thumbprint/mark) on this consent form mean?

Your signature on this form means

- You have been informed about this study’s purpose, procedures, possible benefits and risks
- You have been given the chance to ask questions before you sign
- You have voluntarily agreed to be in this study

Print name of adult participant	Signature of adult participant/legally	Date
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Authorized representative

KYATUHA OVIA MWISAKA

03.03.2015

Print name of person obtaining Consent	Signature	Date
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Thumbprint/mark	signature of witness
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<p>Leave blank for IRC Official only:</p> <p>MUST – IRC Stamp:</p>	<p>IRC OFFICE USE ONLY</p> <p>APPROVAL DATE:</p> <p>APPROVED CONSENT IRB VERSION NUMBER:</p> <p>P I NUMBER:</p> <p>IRB NO:</p>
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FOR OFFICE USE ONLY	Date of submission	Date considered	Approval granted?
Application No. (<i>Yr/No</i>)			yes / no
Signature: (MUST-IRC Chair)			

THIS FORM MUST BE TYPE-WRITTEN

**Appendix vii: MBARARA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
APPLICATION FORM FOR ETHICAL APPROVAL**

**ALL QUESTIONS MUST BE ANSWERED. ANY FORM STATING "SEE
PROTOCOL" WILL BE RETURNED. (This form must stand complete in itself).**

PLEASE PROVIDE COPIES OF THIS FORM AND THE ORIGINAL PROPOSAL AS
STATED IN THE GUIDELINE

AS FAR AS POSSIBLE YOU SHOULD RESTRICT ALL ENTRIES TO THE SPACE
PROVIDED ON THIS FORM

Please use a typing font that is easily distinguishable from the questions of the form
NB This form is available on diskette from the MUST-IRC Office

NAME OF APPLICANT: KYATUHA OVIA MWISAKA

Have you submitted this proposal to the relevant Faculty/Institute Research Committee
before?

No Yes Faculty:

√

1

Date and outcome:

26.11.2014 MUST Research and Ethics Committee raised issues and advised that the issues must be addressed before approval is granted. The issues raised have been addressed and that is the reason for resubmitting.

If you are re-submitting a proposal, please emphasize how the proposal has been amended in the light of previous recommendations from the Faculty Research Committee or Institutional Ethical Review Committee.

Vice Chancellors of universities will be requested to provide a list of the names of those who fall into these three categories (members of senate and council) to enable the researcher select them. Will be purposively selected. Cluster sampling will be employed on the teaching, non-teaching staff and student leaders. Within each cluster, simple random sampling will be used. On the other hand, convenience sampling which involves conveniently identifying available respondents (parents). The data collected will be cleaned and edited to ensure consistency, completeness and accuracy before it is entered into the Statistical Packaged for Social Scientist (SPSS). Qualitative data will be analyzed by sorting out emerging themes from the various responses explaining the situation regarding bureaucracy and decision making in the universities. Quantitative data will be analyzed using descriptive statistics and a regression be run. Convenience sampling which involves conveniently identifying available respondents; parents will be targeted during times of admissions or graduation and those parents who live and work within the surrounding of the universities. The technical terms have been removed and simple language used. Right referencing style has been used. MUST-REC contact has been included. Responses in protocol form have been addressed correctly.

If this proposal is for work that will go towards a higher degree (e.g. M.Med or PhD), please state name and Department of Supervisor(s):

**1. PROF. BENON BASHEKA, DEPARTMENT OF BUSSINESS AND
MANAGEMENT, UTAMU.**

**2. DR. GERTRUDE ZZIWA, DEPARTMENT OF BUSSINESS AND
MANAGEMENT, UTAMU.**

SECTION A

STUDY OUTLINE

A.1 TITLE OF PROJECT:

**BUREAUCRACY AND DECISION MAKING IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE
UNIVERSITIES IN UGANDA: A COMPARATIVE STUDY.**

A.2 SUMMARY

Explain why this study is being conducted, using lay terminology.

Guidance note:

Please convey what you think is the importance of the research and WHY it is being carried out.

In the past five years, there have been several strikes in Makerere, Kyambogo universities (for public universities) and Kampala International University (for private universities) in Uganda. In these universities and perhaps in several other universities in the country, academic, management staff and students are often in disagreement with administration (New Vision, October 23, 2013). These disagreements result in costly damage to property following student riots and strikes. These strikes were blamed on issues relating to decision making in the institutions (New Vision, Nov 7, 2013).

Although several studies have been carried out on higher education in Uganda, they have not really focused on bureaucracy and decision-making. For instance;

Basheka, Muhenda and Kittobe (2009) focused on programme delivery quality benchmarks and outcomes based education while Kayongo (2009) examined the need for a strong and effective public-private partnership in the provision of higher education in Uganda. Furthermore, Okwakol (2009) considered the challenges and prospects for quality assurance in science and technology education in African Universities; while Katamba (2007) made an assessment of government philanthropy towards private universities in Uganda and its implications for access, equity and quality of higher education. On the other hand, Nakabugo and Masembe (2004) restricted themselves on quality assurance in curriculum development in higher education; while Kasozi (2003) was more concerned about the African universities' capacity to participate in global higher education supply and production. None of these studies has specifically examined the influence of bureaucracy and decision making. This has created a knowledge gap that this current study attempts to fill. The present study is interested in the implications of the bureaucratic governance and corresponding effect on decision making in universities in Uganda.

A.3 OBJECTIVES

List the major objectives/hypothesis, which have governed your choice of study design

- i. To examine the effect of the division of labor on decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.**
- ii. To demonstrate how authoritative structure affects decision making in public and private universities in Uganda.**
- iii. To find out how participation of individual staff in various positions affects decision making in public and private universities in Uganda.**
- iv. To establish how existing regulatory rules affect decision-making in public and private universities in Uganda.**

A.4 METHODOLOGY

Outline how you intend to achieve the objectives of the study.

Guidance notes:

For each objective/hypothesis:-

- **Research Design: A descriptive research design with both qualitative and quantitative approaches**
 - **Study Population: Members of Governing Councils, Members of Senate, Teaching and non-teaching Staff,**
 - **Student leaders and Parents.**
 - **From the statistics obtained from NCHE (2014), the target population of the study to be selected is 5420.**
 - **Sample Size: Using Sloven formula, the sample size of the study will be 373 respondents.**
 - **Sampling Methods: Purposive, Cluster sampling and Convenience sampling.**
 - **Data Collection Methods: Questionnaire, Interviews.**
 - **Validity: Will be assessed through consultation with supervisors and then computing the CVI.**
 - **Reliability: Will be by pretesting the questionnaires, interview guides and calculating the reliability coefficient (α).**
 - **Data Processing and Analysis: The data collected will be cleaned and edited to ensure consistency, completeness and accuracy.**
 - **Using the SPSS, the data will be analyzed descriptively using mean and a regression analysis will be used to determine the perceived relationships between bureaucracy and decision-making in the University sector.**
 - **Comparison of results will also be done by considering the percentages obtained through the use of MS Excel.**
- *define the target population describe how the sample(s) is(are) to be recruited from the target population(s)*

Even if the main thrust of the research is biomedical, the rationale behind your use of social science methods (e.g. patient interviews) should be clear.

A.5 PARTICIPANTS

Please provide the following information on the participants with/from whom you expect to be collecting data:

A.5.1 Age / Sex: (please enter the expected number in each of the boxes)

	Neonates (<28 days)	Infants (1-11 months)	Young children (1-9 years)	Adolescents (10-17 years)	Adults (18 yrs & above)
Males					247
Females					126

Guidance notes:-

This age/sex breakdown helps convey how vulnerable the participants will be

If you are unable to give precise figures, state estimates and give an explanatory sentence in the space below

THE ABOVE FIGURES FOR MALE AND FEMALE RESPONDENTS ARE EXTIMATES BUT THE TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS WILL BE 373 COMPRISING OF 247 MALES AND 126 FEMALES. THESE WILL BE CONSISTING OF 19 MEMBERS OF COUNCIL, 24 MEMBERS OF SENATE, 158 TEACHING STAFF, 138 NON-TEACHING STAFF, 21 STUDENT LEADERS AND 13 PARENTS/GUARDIANS

A.5.2 What specific measures are in place to take into account women of childbearing age?

Guidance notes:

Pregnant women may have different responses to disease processes

The developing foetus may be particularly vulnerable in intervention trials

NOT APPLICABLE

A.5.3 Describe how and where the participants are to be recruited?

Guidance notes:

This is distinct from the statistical sampling method described in A.4. You should outline the procedures for recruitment of each group of participants, include details on:

- the setting (e.g. Country, Town, District, on the ward, out-patient department ,in the home)*
- inclusion and exclusion criteria for selection, if relevant (e.g. “Women of child-bearing age will be excluded”)*

THE 19 MEMBERS OF COUNCIL WILL BE SELECTED PURPOSIVELY; THE 24 MEMBERS OF SENATE WILL ALSO BE SELECTED PURPOSIVELY WHILE THE 158 TEACHING STAFF AND THE 138 NON-TEACHING STAFF AND THE 21 STUDENT LEADERS WILL BE SELECTED BY CLUSTER SAMPLING. THE 13 PARENTS /GUARDIANS WILL BE SELECTED BY CONVENIENCE SAMPLING

A.5.4 Please justify your choice of sample size (as described in A.4)

THE CHOICE OF SAMPLE SIZE WAS BASED ON THE POPULATION OF STUDY AS OBTAINED FROM THE NCHE STATISTICS (2014) AS A REPRESENTATIVE PICTURE IN UNIVERSITIES AND USING THE SLOVEN FORMULA STATED BELOW.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

A.6 PROCEDURES

A.6.1 What procedures or methods will be employed in the collection of data (e.g. patient interviews / focus group discussions / blood sampling / biopsies) and by whom (e.g. experienced facilitator / social scientist / teacher/ qualified doctor / nurse, auxiliary, etc.)?

Attach additional sheets if necessary.

Procedure	To be carried out by:
THROUGH INTERVIEW	RESEARCHER
THROUGH QUESTIONNAIRES	RESEARCHER

NOT APPLICABLE.

A.6.2 State the extent to which the procedures to be used are a part of usual clinical management (if appropriate).

A.6.3 Please indicate that the persons identified in A.6.1 are competent to carry out these procedures.

List any training of staff that may be required prior to commencement of the study.

NOT APPLICABLE

A.7 ANALYSIS

A.7.1 What are the major statistical (or other) methods that you intend to use to analyse the data to fulfill each of the objectives/hypothesis stated in A.3

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS SUCH AS FREQUENCIES, PERCENTAGES, MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATION AND REGRESSION ANALYSIS WILL BE USED TO ANALYSE QUANTITATIVE DATA. QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS WILL BE DONE BY NARRATIVE

A.8 QUALITY ASSURANCE

A.8.1 What procedures are in place to ensure the quality of the data?

Guidance notes:

For qualitative data (for example) what procedures will be used to check translations or compare data obtained from different sources?

For quantitative data (for example) how will transcription errors be minimised?

Give some detail on how methods are going to be piloted, if appropriate

QUALITY ASSURENCE WILL BE TAKEN CARE OF BY ASSESSING THE VALIDITY OF THE INSTRUMENTS BEFORE THEIR USE IN DATA COLLECTION. THIS WILL BE BY CONSULTING WITH SUPERVISORS AND COMPUTING THE CONTENT VALIDITY INDEX (CVI) WHICH WILL BE INTERPRETED USING THE GEORGE AND MALLERY SCALE (2003). A CVI ABOVE 0.7 WILL BE CONSIDERED APPROPRIATE FOR A VALID INSTRUMENT.

THE RELIABILITY OF THE INSTRUMENTS WILL ALSO BE ASSESSED FOR QUALITY ASSURANCE BY PRE-TESTING THE INSTRUMENT ON A FEW PEOPLE AND COMPUTING THE RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT USING CHRONBACH ALPHA FORMULA. THIS WILL ALSO BE INTERPRETED USING THE GEORGE AND MALLERY SCALE (2003). A COEFFICIENT ABOVE 0.7 WILL BE CONSIDERED APPROPRIATE FOR A RELIABLE INSTRUMENT.

A.9 DISSEMINATION OF RESULTS

Please outline what plans you have for dissemination of results.

Guidance notes:

Where possible a mechanism should be in place to inform study participants of the outcomes of the study.

It is important that study findings are made known to local services / policy makers before they are discussed (e.g.) at international scientific meetings

A COPY OF THE FINAL RESEARCH REPORT WILL BE GIVEN TO THE OFFICES OF THE VICE CHANCLLORS OF THE UNIVERSITIES UNDER STUDY AND NCHE. THE FINDINGS WILL ALSO BE PUBLISHED IN INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES AND JOURNALS.

SECTION B

CONSEQUENCES FOR THE LOCAL COMMUNITY / ENVIRONMENT AND PARTICIPANTS

B.1 Outline the potential adverse effects, discomfort or risks that may result from the study in the following areas:

B.1.1 Participants

Guidance note:

In addition to the physical effects of tissue sampling (for example blood sampling) it should be borne in mind that interviews and focus group discussions may sometimes trigger painful or distressing memories (e.g. questions about sexual practice or the death of a child)

NOT APPLICABLE.

B.1.2 Investigators

Guidance notes:

Include here (for example)

- *the biomedical risks to investigators (including local staff) involved in tissue sampling (e.g. Hepatitis B, HIV)*
- *the psychological consequences for social science investigators exposed to narratives of violence or severe grief*
- *the risks from the environment (e.g. in a war zone)*

NOT APPLICABLE.

B.1.3 Members of the public

NOT APPLICABLE.

B.2 Outline what steps will be taken to minimize the adverse effects, discomfort or risks described above.

B.2.1 For participants

Guidance notes:

In biomedical research, appropriate use of anesthesia prior to procedures (for example) is important.

For social science research it may be necessary to ensure that counseling services are available for those who re-live traumatic experiences through (for example) an in depth interview.

NOT APPLICABLE.

B.2.2 For investigators

Guidance notes:

Where the research may involve adverse experiences for investigators (see B.3.2), debriefing / support meetings may be important.

B.2.3 For members of the public

NOT APPLICABLE.

B.3 CONSEQUENCES FOR LOCAL HEALTH SERVICES

B.3.1 What demands will this research place on local health services?

Guidance notes:

For example, how much of a nurse's usual work time will be taken up in acting as an interpreter for an outside investigator?

NOT APPLICABLE.

B.3.2 Detail how the design of the research project takes into account the demands described in 3.1.

Guidance notes:

Disruption to routine services should be kept to a minimum.

NOT APPLICABLE

B.4 CONFIDENTIALITY AND PRIVACY

B.4.1 What steps will be taken to ensure privacy and confidentiality for participants?

**THE NAMES OF PARTICIPATING UNIVERSITIES AND RESPONDENTS
WILL REMAIN ANONYMOUS.**

B.5 INFORMED CONSENT

B.5.1 Information given to participants:

Please indicate what you will tell the participants in simple language. The purpose of the study, type of questions that will be asked, and procedure or treatment which will be

applied should be described and reference should be made to possible side effects, discomfort, complications and/or benefits. Please attach consent form typed on MUST-IRC official consent form.

It must be made clear to the participant that he/she is free to decline to participate or to withdraw at any time without suffering any disadvantage or prejudice.

THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY IS TO ESTABLISH THE EFFECT BUREAUCRACY ON DECISION MAKING IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES IN UGANDA: A COMPARATIVE STUDY.

B.5.2 Outline who will deliver the above information and how?

THIS WILL BE DONE BY THE RESEARCHER IN TWO WAYS. FIRST THROUGH A CLEAR INTRODUCTION AT THE BEGINNING OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND SECONDLY THROUGH A CLEAR EXPLANATION DURING THE INTRODUCTION BEFORE EACH INTERVIEW.

B.5.3 Please indicate how consent will be obtained, given local circumstances.

Guidance notes:

In some societies, the concept of giving consent on an individual basis is unfamiliar. It may be necessary to obtain consent both at community and individual level.

Obtaining consent from minors requires both consent from the guardian and, where possible, the minor.

THE RESEARCHER WILL SEEK WRITTEN PERMISSION FROM THE VICE CHANCELLORS OF THE RESPECTIVE UNIVERSITIES PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY. THE RESEARCHER WILL ALSO OBTAIN AN INTRODUCTORY LETTER FROM THE UNIVERSITY AND THESE TWO DOCUMENTS WILL ENABLE HER GAIN ACCESS TO THE UNIVERSITIES AND SEEK CONSENT OF RESPONDENTS WILLING TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY.

B.5.4 Are any inducements to be offered to either participants or the individuals who will be recruiting them? (e.g. improved patient care / cash) (please tick appropriate box)

Yes No

2

√

3

B.5.5 If yes, please give details:

NOT APPLICABLE.

B.5.6 Outline any hidden constraints to consent.

Guidance notes:

Examples where hidden constraints may be important include:

- *situations where participants are employees of the investigator*
- *patients who may feel their care could be compromised if they do not consent to research initiated by their carers.*

NOT APPLICABLE.

SECTION C

RESPONSIBILITY

C.1 Litigation:

In respect of any litigation which may result from this research

a) Who will provide compensation?

THE RESEARCHER (KYATUHA OVIA MWISAKA).

(Please provide documentary evidence where appropriate.)

- b) What insurance arrangements have been made by the applicant and his/her delegated assistants?

NOT APPLICABLE.

(Please ensure that any professional indemnity insurance is logged with the Director's office)

C.2 DECLARATION: TO BE SIGNED BY MAIN APPLICANT

- I confirm that the details of this proposal are a true representation of the research to be undertaken.
- I will ensure that the research does not deviate from the protocol described.
- If significant protocol amendments are required as the research progresses, I will submit these to the Mbarara University Faculty Medicine Research Ethics Committee for approval.
- Where an appropriate mechanism exists, I undertake to seek additional local Ethical Approval in the country (ies) where the research is to be carried out.

I expect the project to commence on (Date) **15/03/2015** and be completed by **15/05/2015**.

(Date):

Signed

Date

**SECTION D
APPROVALS**

D.1 List research team and all collaborators.

(Please include all overseas collaborators and give their affiliations, qualifications and role in the study).

PROF.BENON BASHEKA (MAIN SUPERVISOR).

DR. GERTRUDE ZZIWA (SUPERVISOR).