

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO WHAT THE MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES ARE  
DURING A TIME OF CRISIS: A UNIVERSITY STAKEHOLDER PERSPECTIVE.**

**by**

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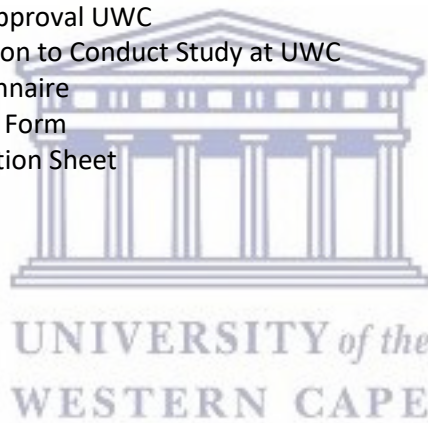
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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

#### 1.1 Introduction

October 2015, the painful smell of teargas fills the air, gunshots, screaming voices nullify any sounds, and the blistering heat radiated from the burning buildings. These were the scenes facing universities and thousands of students across South Africa after the announcement by the South African government of an increase in the 2016 student fees (eNCA, 2015). Suddenly, universities all over the country became battlefields for rioting students, police and security forces. The Department of Education appraised that the overall cost in property damage due to the #FeesMustFall movement at end of 2016 had exceeded R600 million (Rand Daily News, 2016). University managements around South Africa were unexpectedly flung into this crisis of great magnitude and the management structures of these Universities were openly criticised for their handling of this crisis (Muller, 2016).

#### 1.2 Introduction to the Problem to be Researched and Rationale

The study aims to identify the management competencies needed during the time of crisis at a university as perceived by the stakeholders. The study includes the top tier of management including the Executive Management of the University, as well as Deans of Faculties and Directors of Units, Centres, Divisions and Institutes. This research study explores the specific competencies emphasised in crises and uses the case of a university and its top management tier in the face of the #FeesMustFall onslaught. The researcher tests the perceptions and feelings of the university's designated stakeholders (staff) with self-administered questionnaires to establish which competencies are present within management during a time of crisis. The reason for this study is to identify the management competencies at play during a time of crisis at a university and to establish university managements as crisis managers.

### **1.3 Concept Clarification**

The terms competencies, management competencies, and crisis management are complex terms and have at times been misunderstood. Numerous researchers have defined these concepts differently over the years from their individual points of view. For the purpose of this research study, the terms have been defined within the preliminary literature review.

Shaluf, *et al* (2003) noted that crises and disasters are two different events, but the two concepts are related with various similarities. For this study, crises and disasters are viewed as one concept. When referring to the management competencies, the researcher would like to clearly state that leadership is a management competency as established within this study as to nullify any confusion around management and leadership.

### **1.4. Preliminary Literature Review**

#### **1.4.1 Crisis Management**

As a starting point, let me begin by defining what a crisis is as this is the focal point of the study. In general, a crisis is a serious occurrence, which, if not handled suitably and appropriately or if not handled at all, may grow into a catastrophe or disaster (Business Dictionary, n.d.) In his book, Hermann, (1972) and Van Mart and Kapucu (2011) further define crisis from an organisational point of view and stated that a crisis is a state that bullies the important objectives of a business or organisation, surprises executive management by its manifestation, and it further curbs the amount of time for response, thereby causing high levels of stress. The above notion is further motivated by Mitroff, *et al* (1987) who state that corporate crises are disasters triggered by economies, organisational structures, people and/or technology that cause widespread damage to the natural and social environment.

An example of a crisis is the 1979 Nuclear Power Plant accident on Three Mile Island in the United States of America (USA). The total cost of the accident was over \$4 billion and changed the nuclear power industry in the USA forever (Mitroff, *et al.*, 1987). A further example is the 2011 Fukushima Nuclear accident. Due to a massive 9.0 earthquake which caused a fifteen meter-high tsunami, and claimed more than 20 000

lives (Demetriou, 2011), it also disabled the power and cooling supply to the Fukushima nuclear reactors. More than 100 000 people had to be evacuated from this quiet rural region and more than 1000 lives were lost not due to radiation, but due to the maintaining of the evacuations (World Nuclear Org, 2017)

Taking the above into consideration, Herbane (2013) described crisis management as a business action that includes planning and organising to prepare for and to respond to threats that may thwart or hamper day-to-day business activities. This definition is supported by Pearson and Clair (1998) who stated that organisational crisis management is an organised effort by an organisation and its stakeholders to prevent any crises or to successfully manage any crises that do occur. Jaques (2007) added that crisis management should not be seen as just a tactical response to a crisis, but be viewed as a practical discipline accepting inter-related procedures ranging from prevention and preparedness, through reaction and recovery after a crisis. Crisis management only appeared as a field of study after World War II and grew as a formal management subject after the Tylenol poisoning scandal in 1982 in the USA and the Chernobyl nuclear disaster in 1986 in Europe, Jaques, (2009). Lalonde and Roux-Dufort (2013) expressed that crisis management comprises two contradicting terms: *management* referring to the anticipation and planning, organising, leading and help to control a crisis and *crisis*, which by definition is exceptional and unique and impossible to plan or manage.

For the purpose of this study, the crisis will be the #FeesMustFall (#FMF) movement, which addresses the funding of universities, the decolonisation of higher education, the increasing cost of higher education and the interpretation of that cost into long-term debt for the students. A student political movement would not be seen as a crisis to university management and the reason for its crisis credentials will be discussed in the sections below.

#### **1.4.2 #FeesMustFall**

The #FeesMustFall (#FMF) movement started to simmer into existence after the #RhodesMustFall (#RMF) movement was launched on 9 March 2015 at the University of Cape Town (UCT) (Cornell, *et al.*, 2016). Students on the UCT campus demanded the removal of a statue of Cecil John Rhodes, as he was a symbol of colonialism and

along with pledges to address contract worker rights, curriculum change, and several other issues that have been laid out in full in a petition presented by students, workers and staff to UCT management. (Kamazi, 2015) To emphasise the seriousness of the student's actions, Chumani Maxwele threw a bucket filled with human faeces on the statue. In the eyes of protesting students, the statue was a symbol of various social and economic problems within the structures of UCT. (Fairbanks, 2015) The protesters turned to violence to get their message across to the UCT Management. (Singh, 2016)

#FMF was officially launched after the University of Witwatersrand (Wits) declared an increase in tuition fees for 2016. (Pillay, 2016) The movement did not only support the financial difficulties students were facing but also supported the decolonisation of higher education, the language of tuition campaign at the University of Stellenbosch and Pretoria, and the housing shortages at the University of Cape Town. (Hodes, 2016) The #FMF movement became a uniting force for student issues. (Pillay, 2016) The protesting students were frustrated by the bureaucratic nature of negotiations and resorted to more militant actions to show university management the seriousness of their protest. Table 1.1 presents a timeline of the #FMF movement:

<b>Date</b>	<b>Action</b>	<b>Reference</b>
14/10/2015	Students at Wits protest against 10.5% increase to student fees. Students arrange to sit in and lock down of Wits University.	(Sello, 2015)
19/10/2015	Student protest actions spread from Wits to UCT and Rhodes University. Students block entrances to UCT campus. Riot police called in as RMF students illegally occupy administration building at UCT and 25 students were arrested.	(EWN, 2015)



20/10/2015	CPUT and University of Fort Hare students start protesting and barricading entrances to campuses.	(EWN, 2015)
21/10/2015	CPUT and UCT students join forces and march onto Parliament on the day of the meeting of the National Assembly with President Jacob Zuma and Higher Education Minister, Blade Nzimande, in attendance. Students demanded that Minister Nzimande address them and violent clashes with police erupted.	(Merten, 2015)
22/10/2015	Students of the University of Johannesburg clash with a private security company.	(EWN, 2015)
23/10/2015	NMMU students join the movement with the blocking of campus entrances. President Zuma meets with Vice Chancellors and student representatives at the Union Buildings. Student protests outside the Union Buildings turn violent, as portable toilets were set alight and fences were broken down. Police used tear gas, rubber bullets and stun grenades to disperse the protesting students. President Zuma announces no increase in university fees for 2016.	(PE Herold, 2015)  (Hosken, 2015)
14/08/2016	The South African Union of Students calls for students to shut down	(EWN, 2016)

	universities on 15 August 2016 after the Council on Higher Education concluded that a 0% fee increase would be unsustainable and recommended an inflation-related increase.	
15/09/2016	Student protests break out at Walter Sisulu, University of KwaZulu- Natal, and the Mangosuthu University of Technology.	(Potelwa, 2016)
19/09/2016	Minister Blade Nzimande announces that university fees will increase by 8%. Students at the University of the Witwatersrand mobilised and violent protests followed, further protests at University of the Free State and Pretoria erupted as well. UCT suspended their academic year.	(SABC News, 2016)
10/10/2016	Violent protests break out on the University of the Witwatersrand as protesters take protests into Braamfontein. Various shops and a bus are damaged during the confrontation with police. Vehicles were set alight on UCT campus	(EWN, 2016)  (News24, 2016)
	The total cost of #FMF exceeds R600 million.	(Kiernan, 2016)

#FMF has the possibility to become a major catastrophe for the higher education sector if not handled correctly. #FMF has not just caused

universities great cost in terms of rand value and the loss of important infrastructure and educational equipment, but also valuable time, as various lectures were canceled due to #FMF.

### 1.4.3 Management Competencies

What are competencies? The term competency grew due to the managerial competencies research of McClelland and the McBer consultancy group in the 1970s (Bolden and Gosling, 2006), but an American Management Association study commissioned by the McBer consultancy group in the 1980s (Horton, 2000) cemented the term competencies in behavioral and performance contexts. Woodruffe (1993), who stated that competencies are measurements of behavior, which are linked to greater job performance, supported this context. Boyatzis (1982) was a major contributor with his research on competencies and defined competencies as a collection of underlying required abilities, characteristics, knowledge, skills, attitudes, experience, motivation, and particular abilities for given job or position (supported by Brannick *et al.*, 2007; Schippmann *et al.*, 2000 as cited in Rubin and Dierdorff (2009)). Woodruffe (1993, p 29) worded his definition differently, but stated: “*competency is the set of behavior patterns which are needed to allow the incumbent to perform tasks and functions with competence.*” This notion was supported by Brannick *et al.* (2007), who stated that competencies are the activities and special attributes associated with the execution of tasks and duties for a specific profession. From the existing literature, research acknowledges that the various researchers over the years have found various similarities and overlapping opinions on the definition of competencies and that the common ground is that competencies consist of various attributes consisting of skills, knowledge, experience, motivation, and abilities, that allow a person to perform a task, duty, job or profession with competence and that competencies are dimensions of behavior which are related to superior job performance.

Management competency is an extension of the definition identified above but the focus area is the managerial context. Bolden and Gosling (2006) stated that management competencies are dependent on the analysis of the various

functions within a specific occupation to determine the expected standards of workplace behavior. In other words, what are the specific abilities, knowledge, and experience needed to ensure the effective performance within specific managerial functions? These functions of management, as identified by Boyatzis (1982), are referred to as planning, organising, leading, controlling, motivating and coordinating. Carson and Gilmore (2000) further added that managerial competencies may be more suitable and pertinent for high-ranking managers within big business, and those essential characteristics pertaining to a certain situation will influence the management competencies for that situation.

#### **1.4.3.1 Examples of Management Competencies**

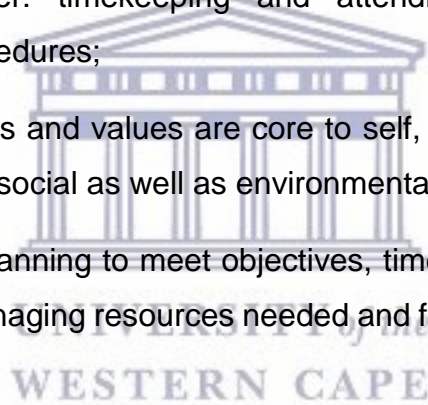
In their research article entitled “Managerial Competencies and the Managerial Performance Appraisal Process”, Abraham *et al* (2001) identified a list of twenty critical management competencies. Management competencies are vital to thorough business practice, due to competitive markets and business sectors in which business must exist. Carson and Gilmore (2000) believed that general management competencies are ideally suited for senior management within large organisations and those management competencies will be influenced by the essential features relating to a specific situation. Carson and Gilmore (2000) further state that a manager may hope to have all the managerial competencies, but it is unlikely that a manager will have all the attributes in meaningful abundance.

The competencies are:

1. Leadership skills: Takes control and exercises leadership, initiates actions and gives direction;
2. Customer focus: focused on client needs and fulfillment, setting a high standard of quality;
3. Results oriented: Driving projects to results, working methodically, upholding quality procedures, sustaining productivity intensities;

4. Problem solver: analysing and assessing data, testing assumptions and examining, creating solutions, constructing decisions, demonstrating systems thinking;
5. Good communicator: writing correctly, clearly and fluently, expressive and engaging writing style, speak fluently, able to explain concepts and opinions, articulate key points of argument, be able to speak and present in public, project credibility and respond to the audience;
6. Team worker: showing tolerance and consideration, adapting to the team, understanding others, recognising and rewarding contributions, listening, caring for others, consulting others, building team spirit, showing empathy, supporting others, developing and communicating self-knowledge and insight;
7. Quality focused: monitoring and maintaining quality, maintaining quality processes;
8. Interpersonal skills: promoting ideas, creating an impact, shaping dialogues, engaging emotions, negotiating and gaining agreement;
9. Technical expertise: applying procedural expertise, building technical knowledge, distribution of expertise, use of technology resources, indicating physical and manual skills, demonstrating cross-functional consciousness, establishing spatial awareness;
10. Business expertise: controlling costs, demonstrating financial awareness, identifying business opportunities, being aware of organisational issues, monitoring markets and competitors;
11. Flexible/adaptable: adapting to the different environment, accommodating new ideas, be able to deal with ambiguity, adapting interpersonal style, showing multi-cultural awareness,
12. Staff developer: provide a bearing or direction for staff to follow and coordinating action, empowering staff, overseeing and checking behavior, coaching, delegating, motivating others, identifying and recruiting talent developing staff;

13. Dependable/trustworthy: networking, connecting and communicating across all levels, dealing with conflict in a constructive way and the use of humour;
14. Safety conscious: showing awareness of safety issues. Complying with legal obligations;
15. Risk taker: taking calculated risks;
16. Innovative: always looking for innovating ways to improve or to make things better, seek to bring change, work strategically, developing strategy, has a vision of innovating change;
17. Hard worker: always achieving objectives, working enthusiastically, focussed on self-development and demonstrating ambition:
18. Time manager: timekeeping and attending, following directions, following procedures;
19. Integrity: ethics and values are core to self, integrity, utilising diversity and showing social as well as environmental responsibility;
20. Purposeful: planning to meet objectives, time management vital factor as well as managing resources needed and finally monitoring progress.



#### **1.4.3.2 Crisis Management Competencies**

Crisis manager competencies often develop from competencies of a manager in general that are forcefully demanded just in times of crisis (Mikusiva and Copikova 2016). Herbane (2010) state that a person senses the danger of a crisis, they will react instinctively and handle the crisis. This notion mirrors the statement by Carson and Gilmore (2000) that stated that management competencies are influenced by the situation. The situation in the context of this study is a crisis. Crisis management competencies have been identified and defined by various researchers and scholars over the years, each from their perspective viewpoint. Van Wart and Kapucu (2011), Pasmore (1988) and Kotter (1996) have described these competencies from emergency management, change management and even transformational

management point of view, but for the purpose of this study, crisis management competencies will refer to the competencies needed to be an effective crisis manager.

## **1.5. Research Problem and Research Questions**

### **1.5.1 Research Problem**

The creation of the research problem was based on the #FMF Movement and the reaction of the top tier management of universities to the impending crisis. Numerous Universities were openly criticized for the management of the #FMF crisis and various stakeholders raised questions if the Universities have the skills and experience to handle a crisis. From the research problem, the researcher poses a research question to establish what management competencies the management of the university must portray during a time of crisis like the #FMF as perceived by the stakeholders of the university, as well as any management competencies which were absent as perceived by the stakeholders.

The study identified specific areas for development for university management structures. Furthermore, the researcher concedes that the leadership of a university may not have had theoretical knowledge of crisis management, but due to the unfolding crisis, have gained knowledge and experience from the management area in general.

### **1.5.2 Research Objectives**

The research objectives are formulated as follows:

- To identify the management competency needed by university management during a time of crisis from a stakeholder perspective;
- To investigate which management competencies of university management were absent during time of crisis from a stakeholder perspective;
- To explore the presence or absence of management competencies of university management during a time of crisis;

- To explain the relationship between the stakeholders' identified management competencies and the crisis management competencies as found in literature from a stakeholder perspective.

### 1.5.3 Research Questions

The research study was guided by the following research questions:

- What are the management competencies during a time of crisis from a stakeholder's perspective?;
- What management competencies did the management of the university demonstrate during the #FMF crisis from a stakeholder's perspective?;
- What management competencies were absent from university management during the #FMF crisis from a stakeholder perspective, and why?;
- How do the management competencies exhibited by management, as identified by the stakeholder, compare to the existing literature on crisis management?

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## 1.6. Research Design / Methodology

### 1.6.1 Research Method

The study is based on an exploratory research design, which focusses on a qualitative and quantitative research methodology. Exploratory research “*tends to tackle new problems on which little or no previous research has been done*” (Brown, 2006, p 43). According to Burns and Bush (2010), exploratory research design is proper when the researchers have limited knowledge about the opportunity or issue, and is not limited to one specific paradigm but may use either qualitative or quantitative approach. This is ideal for this study, as the study produced quantitative and qualitative data. All forms of data collection have limitations and combining qualitative and quantitative methods can limit the number of limitations when collecting data. Greene and Caracelli (1997) concluded that mixed methods could strengthen a study especially considering the



previous statement. Creswell (2013) further motivated that a mixed method approach provides a better understanding of the research topic than either qualitative or quantitative alone.

### **1.6.2 Data Collection Method**

Data were collected by conducting a literature review on management competencies and crisis management competencies, universities in crisis and crisis management topics. The purpose of this process was to establish what is already known on the topics and to identify any gaps in the existing research. In a qualitative study, any number of approaches can be adopted when collecting data, including interviews with semi-structured and unstructured questions, participant observation and questionnaires (Ryan, *et al.*, 2007). Primary data in the form of a questionnaire was used to collect data from stakeholders, i.e. the staff of the university. Welman and Kruger (2000) state that survey questionnaires could be used to gather information from respondents, such as biographical information, typical behaviors, opinions, and attitudes. Bryman and Bell (2014) state that questionnaires offer a variety of advantages for the researcher, such as that it is cheaper than face-to-face interviews, quick to administer and very convenient for the respondents to complete.

A self-administered questionnaire was developed and piloted by the researcher during the study. The questionnaire was validated by asking experts in the field if the measurement tool captured the main concept of the study. Furthermore, the questionnaire was piloted on a smaller group of representatives of the definitive sample group that will not participate in the final questionnaire, to provide the researcher with the opportunity to detect possible flaws in the measurement procedures, to identify clear or unambiguously formulated items (Welman and Kruger, 2000) and rephrase questions to obtain better quality data from the respondents (Boynton, 2004).

The researcher made use of open-ended and closed-ended questions within the self-administered questionnaires as the open-ended questions offer the researcher to collect the perspective of the respondents in their own terms (Bryman and Bell, 2014), and the closed-ended question allowed the researcher to analyse and determine the ranking of the various competencies. Two modes of delivery were used to distribute

the questionnaire to the sample group. Web-based questionnaires are questionnaires that are physically created on a website and saved on a server. Participants are sent a website link to the questionnaire and are required to complete the questionnaire on the website (Hoonakker and Carayon, 2009). A hard copy of the questionnaire was delivered to the traffic, security and technical staff to allow them access to complete the questionnaire. The confidentiality of the participants was ensured, as no question requires the participants to enter any personal details and the website only generates a survey number once the survey is completed.

### **1.6.3 Data Analysis Method**

Qualitative research uses analytical categories to explain and describe social occurrences (Pope, *et al.*, 2000). The data collected during the data collection phase will be read and reread to identify and identify patterns and groupings, which may centre on specific phrases, events, or types of behavior.

For this study, the researcher will make use of qualitative content analysis. According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005), researchers who make use of qualitative content analysis stress on the various characteristics of language, especially within communication, with special attention to the contextual meaning of the text. Kondracki and Wellman (2002) stated that information might be in oral, photocopy, or electronic form and might have been acquired from historical responses, which could have been open-ended study questions, focus groups or interviews, even articles, books, or manuals. This statement was supported by the research of Cole (1988).

The qualitative content analysis goes past adding words, to inspect language in order to categorise large quantities of text into a well-organized number of categories that embody similar meanings (Weber, 1990). These categories can signify either obvious communication or inferred communication. The main objective of content analysis as stated by Downe-Wamboldt (1992) is to convey the necessary information and understanding of the phenomenon under review.

#### **1.6.4 Sample**

The study followed a probability sampling method, which allows findings to be generalised from the sample to the population from which the data was collected. (Bryman and Bell, 2016) A further advantage of this method is that every element within the defined population has an equal probability of being included in the sample. The researcher identified a university in the Western Cape, which was affected by the #FMM crisis. Stakeholders in the form of staff affected by the #FMM crisis would be asked to complete the self-administered questionnaire.

#### **1.6.5. Ethical Consideration**

The research was conducted according to the ethical standards prescribed by the University of the Western Cape, and the data generated through the questionnaires remained strictly confidential. No degree of deception was used in this research study, as participants were informed of their rights as participants through a disclaimer on the questionnaire, and could opt not to proceed if they did not feel comfortable assisting in this research. The researchers also ensured the participants that the data collected would not be made available to any third parties and that the POPI Act of 2013 clearly stated that the data collected during the research study can only be retained for the reason it was collected (Bryman *et al.* 2014).

#### **1.7. Limitations / Assumptions**

The study is limited, as data was only collected from one of the four universities within the Western Cape, and thus a generalisation of the findings cannot be justified within this region. Furthermore, funding and time constraints limited the researcher. The #FMM crisis not only affected all the higher education institutions within South Africa but also had support from South African students in London (EWN, 2015), thus the study is further limited within only one geographical area within South Africa.

## **1.8. Conclusions / Recommendations**

The study aimed to identify the management competencies during a time of crisis and with the use of self-administered questionnaires completed by staff, the researcher could identify the competencies at play and identify if any management competencies are absent. The study could identify specific areas for development for university management. The study would also conclude that the management competencies identified by the stakeholders are very similar to competencies found in the literature of crisis managers. The researcher recommends further studies at other universities affected; not just within the Western Cape, but the entire South Africa as the crisis was felt by universities nationwide.

## **1.9. Structure of the Thesis**

The thesis is organised into five chapters as follows:

Chapter 1 introduced the thesis topic as well as presenting the background to the study, including the topic to be investigated and the research questions identified by the researcher. The chapter also presents a brief account of the existing literature as well as an introduction to the research methodology of the study.

Chapter 2 provides an in-depth review of the literature on crisis management, #FeesMustFall (#FMF), management and crisis management competencies. The chapter will look into the competency debate and discuss the US and UK perspectives. Furthermore, also identify the gap in the literature concerning management competencies within higher education institutions.

Chapter 3 provides an overview of the research methodology used in this study. In this chapter the population, sample and sampling technique, research procedures and instruments used to analyse the data and ethical standards that were followed are discussed in detail. The nature, composition, trustworthiness of the data collection questionnaire are detailed in this chapter.

Chapter 4 presents the results of the analysis of the data collected and discusses the results in relation to the existing literature.

Chapter 5 presents a summary of the findings in the study and emphasises the major findings and lessons learned from this research study. The chapter also presents the conclusions of the work and makes general and specific recommendations for future research on the topic.

### **1.10. Conclusion**

This chapter has provided a brief glimpse of the hostile environment university managements faced during the #FMM crises, introduced, and defined the key concepts of this study. The research problems were articulated, and the research questions identified. The rationale of this research was clearly stated as well as the methodology that was followed. A preliminary literature review was presented with the limitations of this study. The next chapter will look in detail into the existing literature of the key concepts on crisis, crisis management, competencies, management competencies and crisis management competencies.



## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents a comprehensive investigation into the current literature on the main concepts of crisis management, management competencies, as well as management competencies in higher education and crisis management competencies.

The review of the current literature is one of the most significant parts in any research process, as it gives clarity to what is being researched. Brynard and Hanekom (1997) indicated that the foremost reason for gathering literature is to achieve perspective on the most recent outcomes associated with the study. Bryman and Hanekom further stated that a literature study also indicates the best research methods, the best instruments to use for measurement and help determine the facts of the research topic.

The above researchers also believed that for research projects to be successful, a thorough review of relevant literature available must be conducted and such a review usually entails obtaining useful references.

The chapter also traces the start, development, and establishment of the #FMF movement and its classification as a crisis. The chapter analyses the different definitions and examples of management competencies, and crisis management competencies.

#### **2.2 Discourse on Crisis, Organisational Crisis, and Crisis Management**

This section contains the discussion on what a crisis is and the various definitions, antecedents, characteristics, examples, and consequences that have been identified by researchers and scholars over the years. This section also covers what an organisational crisis is, as well as the definition and importance of crisis management.

## 2.2.1 Crisis

What is a crisis? The word crisis derives from the ancient Greek word “krisis”, which means judgment, choice or decision (Paraskevas, 2006). A general definition within the Business Dictionary (2017) defines a crisis as “a serious occurrence, which if not handled suitably and appropriately or if not handled at all, may grow into a catastrophe or disaster”. Roux-Dufort (2007) defines a crisis as an irregular occurrence that disrupts the goals of a business (or system) at an explicit time and in an explicit place and the priority should mostly be to rectify the imbalance as quickly as possible before other inequalities further worsen the situation. Shaluf, *et al.* (2003, p 29) agreed with Roux-Dufort’s definition and worded their own definition as follows: “A *crisis is an abnormal situation which presents some extraordinary high risk to business and which will develop into a catastrophe unless carefully managed.*”

It is clear that the above researchers agree that a crisis is an abnormal situation that has a high risk to the business or to the running of day-to-day business processes and that, the importance of correcting the crisis is of utmost urgency.

Researchers and scholars over the years (Mitroff, 1988; Lerbinger, 1997; Pearson and Clair, 1998; Fearn-Banks, 2002; Millar and Heath, 2004) all agreed that the characteristics of a crisis are that crises have high consequences, low likelihood, covered with risk and vagueness, accompanied with time-pressure, disruptive of normal business and potentially gravely damaging to the business reputation as well. All of the above definitions from various scholars and from various points of view all concur with the general characteristics of a crisis.

### 2.2.1.1 Types of Crises

Literature has indicated evidence that not all crises are the same. Some differ in scale from small to disastrous (Coombs, 1999), and in the manner they manifest, whether it is man-made or caused by nature. This section will cover the various types of crises and their cause, as well as the different groupings or classifications researchers, have placed the different types of crises to assist in preparation to deal with a crisis.

Coombs (2004) stated that a crisis type is a frame used to monitor clarifications of a situation. This frame contributes to the focusing on different cues in a crisis to distinguish between different types of crises. The crisis type or frame highlights what cues should be concentrated on. Lalonde (2007) cited from t'Hart, Heyse and Boin (2001), Quarantelli (2001), and Robert and Lajtha (2002) that the diversity of types of crises in society has increased as well as their occurrence. Lalonde further noted the following, which emphasises the diversity and growth of the types of crises:

- Crises in the Public Health Sector include the worldwide outbreak of the SARS virus (CDC, 2003), Avian flu (AL.COM, 2017) and the contaminated blood scandal in the United Kingdom where more than 5000 people were infected with Hepatitis C and from this group a further 1200 were infected with HIV virus by the National Health Services (BBC, 2007).
- Political and humanitarian crises include the Rwandan genocide where more than 800 000 people were slaughtered by ethnic Hutu extremist (BBC, 2014) and Darfur genocide where more than 450 000 were killed and over 2.8 million people were displaced (Worldwithoutgenocide, 2017).
- The growth of terrorism includes crises like the World Trade Centre on 11 September 2001 which killed 2750 people and launched the Islamic extremist group al-Qaeda (Bergen, n.d.). The Oklahoma City bombing, which left 168 people dead and hundreds injured, was planned and executed by US citizens Timothy McVeigh and Terry Nichols, who were known as anti-government militants (History, n.d.). Attacks were also launched in London (Allen and Henderson, 2017), Paris (BBC, 2015), Madrid (CNN, 2017) and Berlin (BBC, 2016).
- Crises in the Agri-business sector include the outbreak of Mad Cow disease or Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy (BSE) which causes variant Creutzfeldt-Jacob disease which is fatal to humans (CNN, 2016), and the ban of ostrich meat from South Africa to the European Union due to bird flu (Vecchiato, 2015).
- Business or organisational crises like the Enron crisis saw shareholders lose \$74 billion and the employees of Enron lose billions in pension benefits (Investopedia, 2016).



- Man-made crises like Chernobyl and Fukushima nuclear crises (Both crises will be discussed in another section in more detail).
- Acts of Nature include Hurricanes like Katrina in New Orleans (these crises will be discussed in another section in more detail), the tsunami in Southern Asia on 26 December 2004 amounted to an estimated 230 000 deaths and leaving more than a million homeless (History, n.d.), earthquakes in Bam, Iran which killed more than 15 000 people.

As stated above and in literature, various types of crises are identified by numerous researchers. Whether it is human-made or an “act of nature” or as (Shrivistava and Mitroff, 1987) stated, crises can also be caused by the interplay or reactions between the interaction of the organisational environment with the socio-technical factors. Taking note of the above, researchers have supported the notion of clustering different crises types into different categories to assist with the planning for crises. Coombs (2004) (Figure 2.1), and Mitroff and Alpaslan’s Wheel of Crises (2003) (Figure 2.2) listed below are examples of the clustering of crises types.

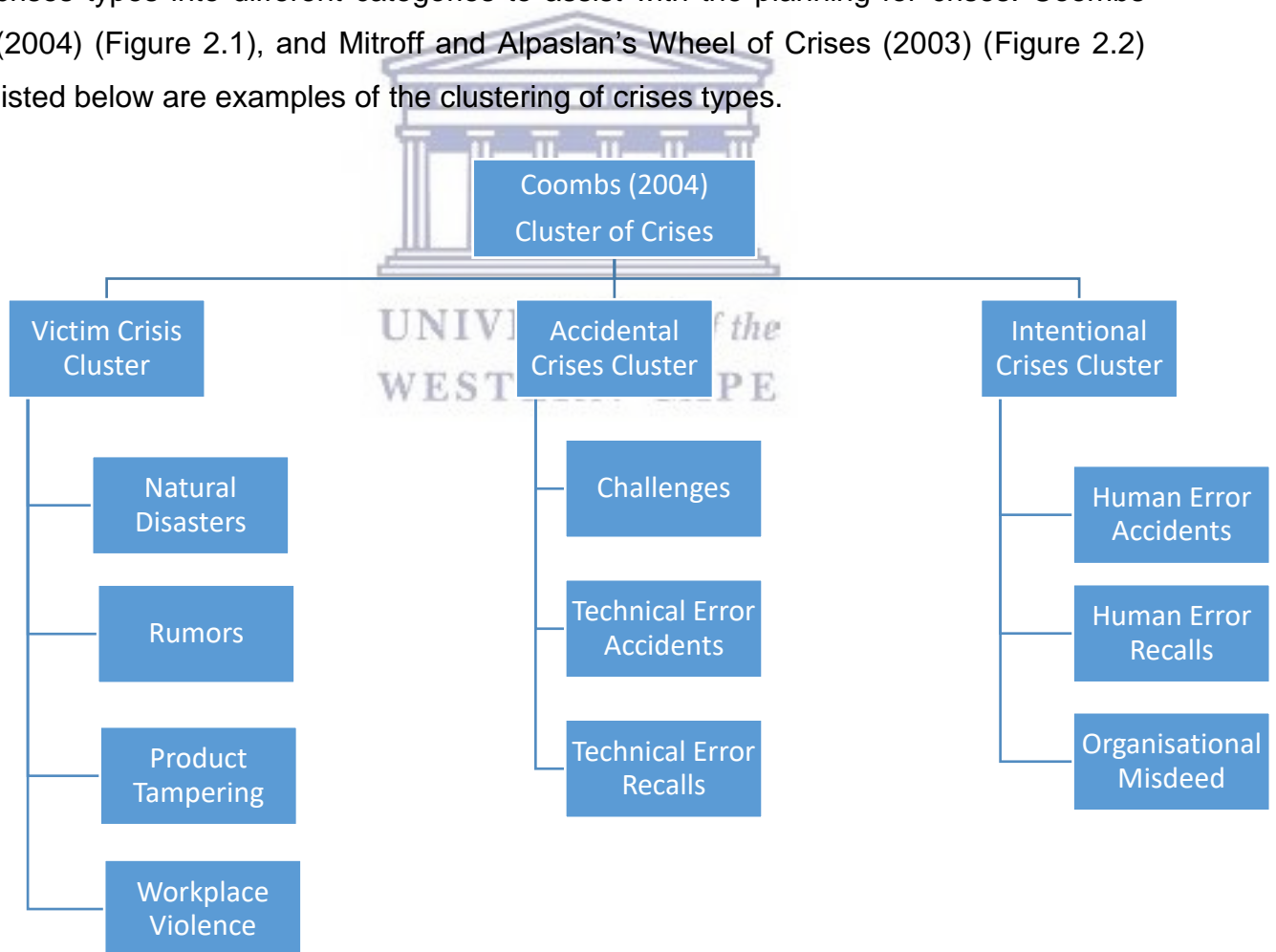


Figure 2.1: Source: WT Coombs (2004)

Coombs (2004) categorises the various types of crises under three main clusters, which he named the Victim Crisis Cluster, Accident Crises Cluster, and Intentional Crises Clusters. Coombs further states that organisations are viewed as victims of the crisis as the crisis was driven or started by external forces of the organisation management's control.

The *Victim Crisis Cluster* contains sub-categories, which include:

- Natural disasters such as earthquakes and tsunamis and certain acts of nature can affect the day-to-day running of a business.
- Rumours: The spreading of false information about the organisation.
- Workplace violence: Former or current workers injure or attempt to injure a current employee at work.
- Product tampering/malevolence: External factors or agents tamper or alter a product to cause harm to the organisation.

The *Accident Crisis Cluster* contains sub-categories, which include:

- Challenges: Stakeholders of the organisation publicly claim that an organisation is not managed in an ethical and moral way.
- Technical error accidents: Industrial accident occurs due to a technical or equipment error.
- Technical error recalls: A product is recalled as it may cause harm to stakeholders due to a technical or equipment error.

*Intentional Crisis Clusters* contains sub-categories, which include:

- Human error accidents: Industrial accident occurs due to a person or people not performing a job properly.
- Human error recalls: A product is recalled as it may cause harm to stakeholders due to a person or people not performing a job properly.

- Organisational misdeed: Management members intentionally violate laws and regulations concerning a product or service, which could injure stakeholders.

It is clear that Coombs categorised the crises in terms of their level of attribution of crisis responsibility and a reputational threat to the company or organisation. Coombs' clustering of crises types is centralised around the organisation. Each cluster contains numerous crises that can affect the day-to-day running of the organisation, but Coombs organises the various clusters due to their predicted threat to the company, whether the threat is physical in the form of "acts of nature", or violent attacks from employees or former employees or the non-physical threat in the form of rumours or tampering with products to endanger the company's reputation.

The level of attribution and the reputational threat is minimal within the Victim Crises Cluster and it increases within the Accident Crises Cluster until it reaches a high level of attribution of crisis responsibility and a severe reputational level threat to the company or organisation in the Intentional Crises Cluster.



Figure 2.2: Source: Mitroff and Alpaslan (2003)

Research by Mitroff and Alpaslan (2003) identify several kinds of crises groupings and group them into seven cluster groups or families and these seven families can further be grouped into three main areas.

*Natural Accidents* contain sub-categories, which include:

- Natural disasters for example floods, earthquakes, and fires.

*Normal Accidents* contain sub-categories, which include:

- Economic crises, which include recessions, stock market crashes, and hostile takeovers.
- Physical crises, which include crises like industrial accidents, supply, chain breakdowns, and products failures.
- Personnel crises, which include strikes, loss of key personnel, workplace violence and workplace vandalism.

*Abnormal Accidents* contain sub-categories, which include:

- Criminal crises, which include hostage situations and terrorism, kidnapping or product altering.
- Information crises, which include the theft of proprietary information, tampering with company records and cyber attacks.
- Reputational crises, which include rumour mongering or slander and logo tampering.

Mitroff and Alpaslan (2003) identified three main clusters or families of crises: Natural Accidents, Normal Accidents, and Abnormal Accidents. The first cluster, Natural Accidents, contains all crises, which occur in nature. In this cluster, there is no malicious intent from any individual or group, but the crisis occurs due to the ferocity and intensity of an act of nature, which leads to loss of life, destruction of infrastructure and inventory.

The second cluster, Normal Accidents, are crises that affect organisations and can be planned for by the executive management of the company and include economic and

physical crises. The third category within the cluster, Personal Crises, which include incidents like strike actions, loss of key personnel, workplace violence and workplace vandalism have the capacity to be planned for, but due to the nature of strike actions within South Africa, is accompanied by intimidation, damage to property and even violent protests. This category has the potential to be classified under the following cluster.

Abnormal accidents deal with malicious intent to cause damage to the company or to people in general. The crises in this cluster have the potential to be life-threatening, cause great financial damage and is normally caused by individuals or groups who are motivated by political or religious views or personal grievances or simply for financial gain.

The examples of clustering by Coombs (2004), Mitroff, and Alpaslan (2003) give the reader an understanding of how certain crises are clustered together. The two examples have two different points of view as the one focuses on the organisation and how the crisis affects the organisation, while the other example focuses on the cause of the crises. Both examples have their validation and importance, and especially to crisis management professionals who are tasked to avert any crisis, handle and manage any crisis that may occur and deal with the consequences of those crises.

Many organisations have dedicated personnel to deal with crises, as crises do not just happen in general, but also occur within organisations and have lasting effects on their numerous stakeholders.

Below follows a discussion on organisational crises, the various characteristics and some examples of organisational crises.

### **2.2.1.2 Organisational Crisis**

“An organisational crisis is a low probability, high impact event that threatens the viability of the organization and is characterised by the ambiguity of cause, effects, and means of resolution, as well as by a belief that decisions must be made swiftly.” (Pearson and Clair, 1998, p 60). Milburn et al (1983) stated that the most crucial stimulus on any company or organisation and its staff is an organisational crisis. An organisational crisis directly impacts the well-being of its staff, as well as other

organisations dependent on the organisation like vendors, suppliers, customers, and clients. Various researchers have studied the various characteristics of an organisational crisis throughout the years. The table below identifies the characteristics and the scholars who have researched it.

<b>Table 2.1: Organisational Crisis Characteristics</b>	
<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Researcher/Scholar</b>
1. Organisational crisis leads to stress (individual crisis)	(Hall and Mansfield, 1971)  (Hermann, 1972)  (Milburn, 1972)
2. Positive and negative conditions are associated with organisational crisis	(Smart and Stanbury, 1978)
3. The positive or negative conditions have a gain or loss value to the organisation	(Billings , <i>et al.</i> , 1980)
4. Organisational crisis can be triggered quickly or in certain situations can develop over time and are predictable	(Hermann, 1972), (Billings , <i>et al.</i> , 1980) (Lippitt and Schmidt, 1967), (Whetten, 1979)
5. Crisis resolution is urgently necessary regardless of the type of crisis	(Billings , <i>et al.</i> , 1980)
6. There are probabilities linked to organisational crises in terms of their occurrence and resolution	(Billings , <i>et al.</i> , 1980)
7. Crises involve a wide range of stakeholders.	(Shrivastava, 1987)  (Smith, 1990)

*“Organisational crisis is an opportunity for the organisation to attain its current goals; or demand or threat on the organisation which either prevents the organisation from*

*attaining its goals or actually removes or reduces an organisation's ability to attain its goals that the organisation seeks to resolve because the outcome at stake is important and the resolution strategy uncertain"* (Milburn *et al.*, 1983, p 1144) Hermann (1972), and Van Wart and Kapucu (2011) further defined crisis from an organisational point of view and state that a crisis is a situation that threatens the important objectives of a business or organisation, surprises executive management by its manifestation, and it further curbs the amount of time for response, thereby causing high levels of stress. Mitroff *et al.*, (1987) who state that corporate or organisational crises are disasters triggered by economies, organisational structures, people and/or technology that cause widespread damage to the natural and social environment further motivate the above notion. Pearson and Clair (1998) identify a list of crises that can have a major impact on the day-to-day running of an organisation, as well as the potential to affect the reputation of the business:

**Table 2.2: List of Organisational Crises**

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Extortion</li> <li>• Hostile takeover</li> <li>• Product tampering</li> <li>• Vehicular fatality</li> <li>• Copyright infringement</li> <li>• Environmental spill</li> <li>• Computer tampering</li> <li>• Security breach</li> <li>• Executive kidnapping</li> <li>• Product/service boycott</li> <li>• Work-related homicide</li> <li>• Natural disasters that disrupt major products or service</li> <li>• The natural disaster that destroys organisational information base</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bribery</li> <li>• Information sabotage</li> <li>• Workplace bombing</li> <li>• Terrorist attack</li> <li>• Plant explosion</li> <li>• Sexual harassment</li> <li>• Escape of hazardous materials</li> <li>• Personnel assault</li> <li>• Assault of customers</li> <li>• Product recall</li> <li>• Counterfeiting</li> <li>• The natural disaster that eliminates key stakeholders</li> </ul>
<p>Source: Pearson and Clair (1998)</p>	

### **2.2.1.3 Examples and Aftermath of Crises**

This section presents various examples of various types of crises and how they affect stakeholders within their environment.

#### ***The Johnson and Johnson Cyanide-laced Tylenol Capsules Crisis***

The crisis arose in September 1982, when various people of different ages, genders and from various parts of Chicago died within a few days of each other. The only strand of evidence tying each death was the use of Johnson and Johnson Extra-Strength Tylenol tablets. Police tested various samples of the tablets and discovered that the tablets were laced with fatal amounts of potassium cyanide (Fletcher, 2009). At that point in time, Johnson and Johnson's Tylenol represented 35% of the American over-the-counter painkiller market and represented 15% of the corporation's revenue (Baker, 2008).

Johnson and Johnson, the manufacturers of the tablets, issued a product recall. It was estimated that 31 million bottles were in circulation at the time, at a retail value of over \$100 million. In the aftermath of the crisis, Johnson and Johnson's market value fell by \$1 billion (Baker, 2008). Johnson and Johnson worked with the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) to produce a tamper-proof packaging, which included a foil seal, as well as the development of the caplet, which is an easy way to swallow tablets, coated with slick gelatine, but very difficult to tamper with (Markel, 2014).

All of the above became industry standard safety measures. The U.S Congress passed the "Tylenol Bill" which made it a federal offense for any person to tamper with consumer products and endanger consumers' lives (Chicago Tribune, 1983). It took Johnson and Johnson several years to recover its market share after the crisis happened, but not all companies are that lucky when a crisis hits their organisation.

#### ***The Chernobyl Nuclear Crisis***

Chernobyl, in Ukraine, was the site of the world's biggest nuclear disaster and one of only two Class Seven events on the International Nuclear Event Scale (Chernobyl Disaster, n.d.). The other is the Fukushima Nuclear Disaster. The Chernobyl Nuclear



Crisis is an example of man-made crises due to flawed design and human error. On 26 April 1986, the nuclear power plant at Chernobyl erupted due to a flawed Soviet reactor design coupled with various serious mistakes made by the operators at the plant (World Nuclear Association, 2017).

The nuclear crisis initially killed 30 operators and firefighters within the first three months after the nuclear incident. A further twenty-eight people died of Acute Radiation Syndrome (ARS), with a further 237 people diagnosed with ARS and from the diagnosed a further nineteen died between 1987 and 2004 (World Nuclear Org - Chernobyl, 2016). More than 150 000 people were evacuated within a thirty-kilometer radius of Chernobyl, as the largest uncontrolled radioactive release into the atmosphere spread through sections of Belarus, Russia, and Ukraine. A Russian publication reported that between 1986 and 2004, 985 000 premature cancer deaths followed worldwide because of the Chernobyl nuclear crisis (Chernobyl Gallery, n.d.).

The Chernobyl nuclear crisis led to closer collaboration between the East and the West, which improved reactor design and safety aspects. The crisis also led to the creation of the World Association of Nuclear Operators, which was formed in 1989, which links more than 130 nuclear plant operators from more than 130 countries, as well as to the Convention on Nuclear Safety, which was adopted in 1994 in Vienna. Several international projects were started post-Chernobyl, which include several safety review projects from the International Atomic Energy Agency, which is funded by Western Aid totaling \$1 billion. (World Nuclear Org, 2017).

### ***The World Trade Centre Attacks***

On 11 September 2001, four planes were hijacked by nineteen terrorists and used to implement the worst terror attack on American soil. Two planes crashed into the World Trade Centre in New York which caused the twin buildings to collapse in Lower Manhattan, killing 2 753 people (CNN, 2016).

A third plane crashed into the Pentagon, in Washington, where 184 people were killed (BBC, n.d.). The fourth plane crashed in Shanksville, Pennsylvania, killing forty crew and passengers (CNN, 2016). After the dust settled, all suspicion fell on Sunni Islamic, al-Qaeda who was led by Osama Bin Laden. This attack on US soil ignited the War on Terror and saw the USA declare war on Afghanistan a month after the attack on the World Trade Centre.

The initial financial cost of the World Trade Centre attack was estimated at \$250 billion, which included the economic losses after the attack, plus a decline in air travel and tourism, site damage, aid to bail out airlines, insurance claims, clean-up of site, as well as an anti-terrorism package approved by US Congress (CNN, 2016). America's reaction to the attacks on the World Trade Centre ignited the war on terror and Afghanistan, and the two wars combined cost the US government an estimated \$5 trillion.

A further consequence of the terror attacks on the World Trade Centre and the ensuing war on Afghanistan has led to an increase of anti-Americanism and surge in support of fanatical Islamism especially in Muslim countries (The Gaurdian, 2011). The US government has spent up to \$100 billion to upgrade all its airports and airplanes, which included better technology, an increase in the number of screening personnel employed better-trained screening personnel, an increase in air marshal workforce and the development of impregnable cockpit doors to safeguard the pilots.

Since 2002, more than 831 576 US soldiers have served in Afghanistan, 2 184 have died and 19 600 have been injured in Afghanistan. There are currently still 9 800 US soldiers in Afghanistan (Martinez, 2014). The attack on the World Trade Centre not only took the lives of thousands of innocent civilians and civil servants on the day, but the ignited war on terrorism and Afghanistan has changed the lives of hundreds of thousands of Americans, who have served their country in Afghanistan, many who were injured and also died in Afghanistan.

### ***The Enron Financial Crisis***

Enron was the product of the merger between Houston Gas Company and InterNorth Company, which was branded as an energy trader and supplier. Enron then created Enron Online (EONL) to focus on commodity trading online. The company was awarded the "Americas Most Innovative Company" by Fortune Magazine for six consecutive years. The company was looking to expand and took on ambitious projects. By the mid-2000s, Enron had completed an estimated \$350 billion worth of online trading, but Enron was the counter-party in every transaction. This means Enron was either selling or buying. Enron then spends millions of shareholders' dollars on the expansion into high-speed broadband telecom networks with no returns (Investopedia, 2016).

When the recession hit America, Enron was on the losing end of a volatile market. The then-CEO used mark-to-market accounting techniques to hide losses from the shareholders, in the hope of the market recovering. The CFO of Enron developed a plan to make it appear as if Enron was in a great financial position, despite the fact that its affiliated businesses were bleeding money. The CFO and other executives within Enron arranged a plan to use special purpose vehicles (SPVs), also known as special purposes entities (SPEs) to hide the growing debt from shareholders and stakeholders. Enron believed that its stock price would keep appreciating before its collapse (Bloomberg Business Week, 2001).

The aftermath of the deceit by the executives led to several charges including conspiracy, insider trading, and securities fraud. The founder and former CEO of Enron were convicted for six counts of fraud and conspiracy and four counts of bank fraud. The CFO pleaded guilty to two counts of wire fraud and securities fraud. The current CEO was convicted of conspiracy, fraud and insider trading, and was sent to prison for twenty-four years (Pasha and Seid, 2006). His sentence was later reduced by ten years and as part of the deal, he was required to give \$42 million to the victims of the Enron fraud (Investopedia, 2016).

In 2002, the President of the United States of America signed a new law, named the Sarbanes-Oxley Act, which enlarged the consequences for changing, terminating or fabricating monetary records and for trying to deceive shareholders. Enron shareholders lost a combined amount of \$63 Billion (USA Today, 2002). A total of 4 500 employees lost their jobs, with no pension fund, due to the fraudulent action of the convicted executives (Global Ethic, n.d.).

### ***Hurricane Katrina***

On 29 August 2005, Hurricane Katrina hit the Gulf Coast (Louisiana, New Orleans, Mississippi etc.) of the United States. Hurricane Katrina is a perfect example of an “act of nature” that left a wake of death and destruction. The hurricane had 100-140 miles per hour (160-225 km) winds and stretched over an area 400 miles wide (History.com, n.d.). The hurricane exposed engineering mistakes in the levees and floodwalls designed and built by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers which caused 80% of New Orleans to be flooded (Zimmermann, 2015).

The hurricane caused widespread floods that displaced more than 1 million people in the Gulf Coast area and caused an estimated \$135 billion in damages. As various sections of government blamed each other for slow service delivery and the high number of lives lost during the crisis, a select bi-partisan committee of the U.S. House of Representatives investigated the government's actions during Hurricane Katrina. The investigation focused on the preparation, response and aftermath of the storm and cited failures at all levels of government. Various role players lost their jobs and several political figures faded away.

An estimated 1 833 people died as the hurricane unleashed its devastating winds and floods along the Gulf Coast (Zimmermann, 2015), nearly half of the victims were over the age of 74 years old (Plyer, 2016). More than one million housing units were destroyed by Hurricane Katrina in the Gulf Coast (Plyer, 2016). The financial implication after Hurricane Katrina included \$120.5 billion from the federal government, philanthropic donations totaled \$6.5 billion and insurance claims covered a total of \$30 billion for the losses.

The U.S. Congress passed an Act in 2006 to restructure FEMA (Federal Emergency Management Agency). The act was named The Post-Katrina Emergency Management Reform Act. The Act enables cities to relook at their evacuation plans and apply for grants to improve their plans, which include the provisions for better communication with non-English speaking people and those with disabilities and recognises the evacuation needs of people with pets. Urban Search and Rescue teams funding was increased with the Act and require the establishment of a family registry within six months after a storm. New Orleans has advanced resident access to emergency evacuation and alert information.

### ***The Fidentia Financial Scam***

Financial crises do not only happen in the United States of America. In 2007, The Fidentia Group has mismanaged billions of Rands of funds, not by making erroneous decisions on investment or expansion, but purely out of greed and living a lavish lifestyle. Fidentia Holdings Ltd was listed as asset management and investment company that includes holding or owning securities of companies other than banks. The company administered the investment of Living Hands Umbrella Trust, which consisted of 47 000 widows or orphans whose husband or parents passed away. The

fund was valued at R1.2 billion (Biznews, 2014), The Teta Fund valued at R200 million, Antheru Investment Fund valued at R45.5 million, Evertrade Medical Waste valued at 48.9 million, and Balltron Fund valued at R38.6 million. However, in 2007, the Fidentia Group was placed under curatorship and the chief executive, Mr. J Arthur Brown was found guilty of two charges of fraud (Dolley, 2013).

In the aftermath of this financial crisis, the Living Hands Umbrella trust funds were used by Mr. Brown to ensure a lavish lifestyle for him and his subordinates at the Fidentia Group Holdings. Funds were used to purchase gym equipment, office furniture, a hotel, a spa, a game farm, two villas, various businesses, a marketing and printing company and business class flight tickets. The most notable spending was the use of the Living Hands Umbrella Trust funds to make payments to other trust funds the company was overseeing as well as R40 million to his own company, R25.2 restraint of trade payment and a director's loan of R25.5 million. All of the above was verified by the Fidentia curator and chartered accountant, Mr. George Papadakis (Cobbett, 2013). Mr. Brown is currently serving a fifteen-year sentence for fraud, but the damage he caused will last forever, as the stakeholders of the trust funds he stole from are living in utter poverty.

### ***The Fukushima Nuclear Crisis.***

The Fukushima Nuclear Crisis is a great example of how nature caused a major crisis by damaging a man-made nuclear facility that caused even further havoc for the people of Japan. A massive 9.0 earthquake hit Tohoku, Japan on 11 March 2011. The earthquake caused a massive fifteen metre- high tsunami that claimed more than 20 000 lives (Demetriou, 2011) and disabled the power and cooling supply to the Fukushima nuclear reactors. More than 100 000 people had to be evacuated from this quiet rural region and more than 1 000 lives were lost - not due to radiation, but due to the maintaining of the evacuations (World Nuclear Org, 2017).

The Japanese residents who stayed close to the Fukushima Plant had a higher risk of developing cancers like leukemia, solid cancers, thyroid cancer, as well as breast cancer due to the radiation leak from the nuclear plant (Nebehay, 2013). TEPCO, Tokyo Electric Power Company Holdings Inc., was ordered to pay 7 trillion yen in compensation (Rueters, 2015). The Japanese government was also found liable by the Japanese court and the Maebashi District Court near Tokyo awarded 39 million yen to 137 people who were forced to leave their homes following the accident

(McCurry, 2017). Further financial implications include the cost to the Japanese taxpayers exceeding 12 trillion yen (\$100 million) as well as the cost (estimated) to decontamination, compensation, decommissioning as well as the radioactive waste storage post-accident will cost the Japanese government a further 21.5 trillion yen (Harding, 2016) .

The Fukushima Nuclear crisis did not only have financial implications but also affected the Japanese people's opinion of nuclear power and in October 2011, an energy white paper approved by the Japanese cabinet (Inajima and Okada, 2013) indicated that the public's confidence in nuclear power has been negatively affected after the crisis and that a reduction of nuclear power was called for by the Japanese public.

### **2.2.2 Crisis Management**

Herbane (2013) describes crisis management as a business action that includes planning and organising to prepare for, and to respond to threats that may hinder day-to-day business activities. This definition is supported by Pearson and Clair (1998) who stated that organisational crisis management is an organized attempt by the organisation and its stakeholders to prevent any crises or to successfully manage any crises that do occur. Darling *et al* (1996) who stated that the management of a crisis was a series of processes that identified, studied and forecasted what the crisis issues were, and then developed further processes to enable the business not just to cope with the crisis, but also to prevent it from happening again in future echo the above notion. Crisis management comprises a basic understanding of the crisis and planning appropriate or suitable strategies in response to the crisis and its consequences.

Jaques (2007) added that crisis management should not be seen as just a tactical response or strategic activity to a crisis, but be viewed as a proactive discipline, embracing inter-related procedures ranging from prevention and preparedness through reaction and recovery after a crisis. Regester and Larkin (1997) agree and state that crisis management manages the state of things after the crisis becomes public knowledge and affects the company. This is a vital stage before the crisis at hand grows due to public outcry and damages the organisation's reputation as well. This crisis management's aim is not only to deal with the crisis at hand but also what caused the crisis in the first place and what preventative measures can be

implemented to ensure it does not occur again (Pauchant and Mitroff (1992). Thus, an important goal of managing a crisis is to prepare the best strategy for any given crisis situation (Cho and Gower, 2006).

Crisis management only appeared as a field of study after World War II, and grew as a formal management subject after the Tylenol poisoning scandal in 1982 in the USA and the Chernobyl nuclear disaster in 1986 in Europe (Jaques, 2009). Lalonde and Roux-Dufort (2013) expressed that crises management comprises two contradicting terms: *management* referring to the anticipation and planning, organising, leading and help to control a crisis, which by definition is exceptional, unique, and impossible to plan or manage; but why go through all this trouble of preparing for a crisis? The occurrence and diversity of crises have increased (Quarantelli, 2001, and Robert and Lajtha, 2002). Elliott, *et al* (2005) also states that the investment into crisis management would be justified by the significant cost to the company in terms of financial losses, loss of life and missed market openings that could have led to competitive advantage.

Fink (1986, p 7) suggests that planning for a crisis “*is the art of removing much of the risk and uncertainty to allow you to achieve more control over your own destiny*”. The above view is more than thirty years old, but it echoes the management approach of how organisations currently deal with crises, by viewing crises as insulated actions that can be examined in terms of causes, consequences, caution and coping. Shrivastava (1993) analyses each of these crisis elements as follows:

- causes equal the immediate failures that triggered the crisis,
- antecedent is the conditions that allowed failures to occur”;
- consequences refer to the immediate and long-term impacts;
- caution comprises the measures taken to prevent or minimize the impact of a potential crisis, and
- coping involves the measures taken to respond to a crisis that has already occurred.

Fink (1986) was also one of the first to develop a crisis model and he stated that a crisis could comprise as many as “four different and distinct stages”:

1. Prodromal Crisis Stage: the stage where the warning signs of the pending crisis materialise,
2. Acute Crisis Stage: the trigger event occurs and damage follows,
3. Chronic Crisis Stage: the lasting effects of the crisis continue and clean up begins,
4. Crisis Resolution Stage: the crisis is no longer a concern to stakeholders.

Fink furthermore designated a crisis with a starting and stopping section, but differentiates that the warning signals, which emerge in the prodromal crisis stage, actually happen before the crisis starts. Numerous other scholars created crisis models like Mitroff's (1994), Gonzalez-Herrero and Pratt (1995) and Coombs (2007) to mention a few, but Seeger *et al* (2003) followed the three-stage approach.

The above scholars believe that a crisis consists of three stages: (1) pre-crisis stage is where the organisation has set up contingency plans and have made the necessary plans for any crises; (2) the crisis stage, during which the crisis occurs and the organisation suffers damage; and (3) the final stage is called the post-crisis stage. When the organisation learns from the crisis and finds a resolution in ending the crisis. Veil (2011) asserts that the lessons learned from this stage equips the organisation against future crises.

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### **2.2.3 Conclusion of Crisis Section**

From its Greek origin to its most humbling of consequences, a crisis has the ability to reach any corner of the world. Whether it is by human-made means or "acts of nature", it is abundantly clear that a crisis can affect all. Various scholars have defined and coined the terminology to describe what a crisis is, but from various points of views. All the scholars do however agree on the characteristics of a crisis as described earlier in this section. These characteristics are:

- crises have high consequences,
- low likelihood,
- covered with risk and vagueness,
- accompanied by time-pressure,



- disruptive of normal business, and
- Potentially gravely damaging to the business reputation as well.

Numerous researchers, Lalonde (2007), Hart, Heyse, and Boin (2001), Quarantelli (2001), and Robert and Lajtha (2002)) concluded that the diversity and occurrence of types of crises in society have increased and the examples in this section give evidence to that. Researchers have been prompted to cluster various types of crises together to assist with the preparation for the crises. Coombs (2007) and Mitroff and Alpaslan (2003) are two examples of the clustering of crises but with different points of view.

For the purpose of this study, the following definition will be used as identified by Milburn *et al* (1983, p 1144): *“Organisational crisis is an opportunity for the organisation to attain its current goals; or demand or threat on the organisation which either prevents the organisation from attaining its goals or actually removes or reduces an organisation’s ability to attain its goals that the organisation seeks to resolve because the outcome at stake is important and the resolution strategy uncertain”*.

The above definition of organisational crises as defined by Milburn *et al* (1983) takes into consideration the various characteristics of organisational crises identified by various researchers through the years. The section introduces us to the various crises (Pearson and Clair, 1998) organisations are confronted with.

The list of examples of crises introduces us to the reality of the effects crises can have on the stakeholders within that crises environment. Acts of nature have tormented civilisation for many centuries and will do so again. Hurricane Katrina humbled the United States of America with the high loss of life, the damage caused and the inability of one of the most powerful nations to manage a crisis, which led to the firing of various political role players. The Fukushima and Chernobyl nuclear crises will have a lasting effect on its inhabitants for many years, especially the after-effects from the nuclear disaster on human health, the effects on the environments, but also the changes in the use of nuclear power and the monetary costs involved.

Organisational crises do not just damage the profit margins or the reputation of an organisation, but also affect all the stakeholders who are also shareholders. The

Enron and Fidentia examples shockingly represent the reality of stakeholders losing their life savings due to financial mismanagement and to go from living a comfortable life to not having any money to be able to buy basic necessities. The after-effects in the form of legislation enforce better governance of financial institutions. The September 2001 terrorist attack on the World Trade Centre changed the world completely. The world was witness to how the most powerful nation, with the largest defense force, was brought down to its knees. The World Trade Centre crisis did not only account for lives lost on the day but the thousands that would lose their lives to the war on terrorism. The aftermath of the attack changed US relations with Muslim nations, and cost the US government over \$5 trillion.

To conclude this section, the definition of crisis management and its importance to any organisation is emphasised. The crisis management as defined by Darling, *et al* (1996) as a series of processes that identify, study, forecast what the crisis issues are, and then develop further processes to enable the business not just to cope with the crisis, but also to prevent it from happening again in future. This definition links with what numerous scholars have identified as different phases of crisis management, most notably the three phases process which are the pre-crisis phase, crisis phase, and the post-crisis phase.

The importance of crisis management is not just to prepare the organisation for the pending crisis, but to look at the cause of the crisis and to try to prevent the crisis in the first place. If the crisis cannot be prevented, then the next aim for crisis management would be to try and soften the damage caused by the crisis and to prevent public outcry that would cause reputational damage, and finally to learn from the crisis to enable the organisation to have better contingency plans in case a similar crisis should strike the organisation again.

### **2.3 Origin, Growth and Consequences of #FeesMustFall**

For the purpose of this study, the crisis identified by the researcher is the #FeesMustFall (#FMF) movement, which addresses the funding of universities; the decolonisation of higher education; the increasing cost of higher education and the interpretation of that cost into long-term debt for the students.

A student political movement would not be seen as a crisis to university management and this will be discussed in the sections below.

This section contains the discussion on the establishment of the #FeesMustFall movement and its birth as a crisis and will discuss the history of student movements within South Africa. It also provides evidence of how student protests have turned into crises due to the magnitude of the actions.

### **2.3.1 Examples of International Student Protests**

Throughout history, there are various cases of student protesting to highlight educational, economic and even political issues by taking to the streets, carrying banners and voicing their concerns. Below are examples of mismanaged students' protests that have shaken the very core of countries where these protests took place.

#### ***Sorbonne University Student Protests, 3 May 1968, France.***

May 1968 saw students from the Sorbonne College of the University of Paris protesting for educational reform and upgrading of the French university system being joined by labour unions in support of political and economic reform. Violent clashes started in the Latin Quarter of Paris where 20 000 students set up barricades to propel advancing police forces (Steinfels, 2008). The protest lasted until June 1968 when President de Gaulle announced a national election. During the protests, the Sorbonne University was closed and students occupied the buildings and converted it to a commune.

At the height of the protest, several million workers had joined the strike, causing the shutdown of newspaper distribution, air transport and major railroads across France. The protests also spread to other French universities. More than 400 casualties were reported during the violent clashes with police and one police officer died. After the elections, President de Gaulle made several concessions to the striking workers and protesting students, which included higher wages, improved working conditions, and he passed a major education bill that was intended to modernise the higher education system in France.

### ***Tlatelolco Massacre, 1968, Mexico***

Before the Summer Olympics in Mexico City, on 2 October 1968, Mexican military proceeded to shoot live ammunition at a student protest in the capital's Tlatelolco Plaza. The protest was started after the army had killed several school children after they had started a street fight which the Mexico City Riot Police could not control (Rodda, 1968). The "Plaza De Las Tres Culturas" (Square of the Three Cultures) was turned into a kill-zone with government snipers shooting at an estimated 10 000 protesters which led to widespread chaos as protesters fled to safety (CNN, 1998). The massacre continued throughout the night of 2 October 1968 as soldiers performed a house-to-house search for protesters.

The Tlatelolco massacre led to the massacre of an estimated 300 students and civilians in the Tlatelolco section of Mexico City (CNN, 1998). Security police arrested more than 1,300 people. The events were considered part of the Mexican Dirty War when the Institutional Revolutionary Party government used its military forces to suppress political opposition (Chandler, 2014).

### ***Tiananmen Square Massacre 1989, China***

In May 1989, nearly a million Chinese students, parents, and supporters gathered in central Beijing at Tiananmen Square to protest for democracy and call for the resignations of the Chinese Communist Party. This was the beginning of the biggest political demonstration in China's communist history, but protests ended with the Beijing massacre on three and 4 June 1989.

Chinese troops and security police stormed through Tiananmen Square On June 4, 1989, firing live ammunition recklessly into the protesters who gathered. Chaos erupted as thousands of the young students tried to escape the raging Chinese forces. Other protesters tried to fight back by attacking troops with stones and destroying military vehicles. The official death toll stands at 241, but independent analysts state that as many as 7 000 of the protesters had been killed and as many as 40 000 activists were arrested, and are still imprisoned today. Several dozen activists have been executed for their part in the demonstrations (Chan, 2009).

The events of 4 June 1989 had a devastating effect on the international world when Soviet leader, Mikhail Gorbachev stated that he was saddened by the events in China and he hoped that the government would adopt his own domestic reform programme and begin to democratise the Chinese political system. The United States condemned the attack on the protestors, and President George Bush imposed economic sanctions against the People's Republic of China in response to the brutal violation of human rights.

The Chinese government still does not publish or acknowledge any information of the incident, even to the point where the National Museum of China, which is housed in Tiananmen Square, was renovated and opened to the public in April 2009, had no display or exhibits of the events of June 1989. The 20<sup>th</sup> anniversary of the Tiananmen Square saw thousands of people gather in Hong Kong but in Beijing, international news sites and twitter were barred and no journalists were allowed on the Square (CNN, 2016). The United States of America has requested the release of all persons still serving "Tiananmen-related sentences" and the last prisoner, former journalist Yu Dongyue, was released 17 years after he was arrested during the protests.

### ***Trisakti University Protests, 1998, Indonesia***

On May 12, 1998, a group of 6 000 students, lecturers and staff assembled at the Trisakti University for a non-violent protest against the Suharto government by marching to the People's Representative Council Building. After clashes with police and security forces four students were, shot dead and eighteen wounded during protests in Jakarta (Landler, 1998). The unlawful actions of the security forces triggered widespread riots and mass rapes, mainly of ethnic Chinese women. Protesters took to the streets in their thousands and looted shops, destroyed teller machines and set cars alight.

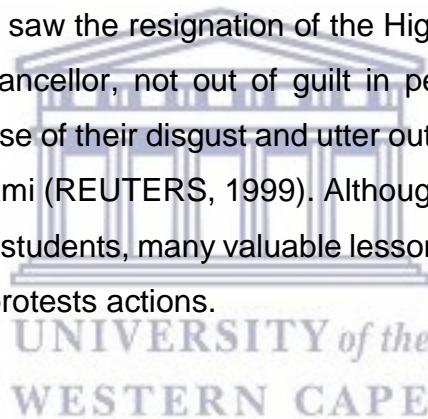
Over 1 000 people died, some in burning buildings, during the riots in Medan, Surakarta, Jakarta and elsewhere (The Jakarta Post, 2014). The damage to properties, shops, and other businesses exceeded \$400 million. (Beerkens, n.d.) The action of the security forces led to the resignation of President Suharto on 21 May 1998 and the prosecutions of two police lieutenants, with further prosecutions promised by Deputy Attorney General (Stopimpunity, 1998). The resignation of President Suharto led to the reform of the political, legal, economic and education

system in Indonesia and their abolition of the army's dual function within the government of Indonesia (NonViolentDatabase, 2015).

### ***Iranian Student Protests, 1999, Iran***

On 8 July 1999, students living in the Teheran University dormitory were subject to a violent police raid, which was supported by the Islamic conservatives within the Iranian government (The Gaurdian, 2009). The students in the Teheran University dormitories were actively protesting the closure of the reformist newspaper and parliament's passage of a new law limiting freedom of speech (Gorgin, 2008). The raid sparked violent protests that lasted for several days across the country. The raid saw 125 students arrested and twenty people hospitalised.

The following day, 10 000 students demonstrated all over Iranian cities, with 1 500 students being arrested by the Iranian security forces, and several killed during this period. The protest actions saw the resignation of the Higher Education Minister and the Teheran University Chancellor, not out of guilt in perpetrating the violent acts against the students, because of their disgust and utter outrage at how the matter was handled by President Khatami (REUTERS, 1999). Although the protests in 1999 were seen as a major loss for the students, many valuable lessons were learned which have added to more successful protests actions.



### **2.3.2 South Africa's Proud Student Movement History**

Student political movements have a rich and impressive history within the South African political landscape. Organisations like the South African Student's Organisation (SASO) led by Steve Biko, South African Students Movement (SASM) (SASM, 2017) and the Black Consciousness Movement (BCM) of the 1970s (MSU.EDC, 2017) have had a major impact during crucial stages of the war against Apartheid.

All three organisations were crucial during the Soweto uprising on 16 June 1976. The Soweto uprising saw thousands of students peacefully demonstrating and protesting in a student-organised demonstration in reaction to the decree from the Bantu Education Department that imposed Afrikaans as the medium of instruction in half the

subjects in higher primary and secondary schools as laid out by the Bantu Education Act (1953) (SAHistory, 2017).

The 10 000-strong protesting students were walking peacefully to Orlando Stadium in Soweto when Apartheid security forces fired teargas and warning shots to disperse the crowd, but with no success. The security forces then used live ammunition and fired into the crowd, killing Hector Pieterse and Hastings Ndlovu (Overcoming Apartheid, 2017). The actions of the security police sparked a massive uprising in rural communities all over South Africa and their international counterparts condemned the Apartheid government. The United Nations implemented Resolution 392 in which the United Nations condemned the incident and the Apartheid government, which led to stricter economic sanctions against South Africa (UNSCR, 1976).

The University of the Western Cape was at the forefront of protest actions against Apartheid and the lack of quality education at the university. In 1973, students presented a list of grievances to the university management. Once the management rejected the grievances, the students protested, forcing the university to close. On 8 July 1973, a mass rally was organised with more than 12 000 students, parents and religious figures in support (SA History, 2000). The sustained protests forced the university management to drop its demands to all students to be re-admitted. The protest actions even led to the first coloured rector, Richard van der Ross, to be appointed in 1975 (IOL, 2015).

Another protest action that drew the attention of the international world started in Cape Town in 1980. Fuelled by worsening conditions in the schools, the use of SANDF teachers in schools and the mushrooming of local organisations like Congress of South African Students (COSAS) and the Azanian Students' Organisation (AZASO). The protests spread through the Cape Flats from Hanover Park, Elsies River, Lavender Hill, and Bishop Lavis. At the height of the protests, more than 100 000 Coloured, Indian and Black schoolchildren and university students from the five Black campuses had joined the protests as well as struggle institutions like the University of the Western Cape and Hewat Teachers College (SA History, 2017).

The death of two students, Bernard Fortuin and William Lubbe, who was shot from an unmarked police vehicle in Elsies River on 28 May 1980 (Spencer-Smith, 1980)

resulted in a complete school boycott that was launched on 30 May 1980. During the boycotts, forty-two people were reported dead, over 200 injured including children and pregnant mothers (TRC, 2017). The protests saw the formation of the Committee of 81 by student leaders such as Ebrahim Patel, Zunaid Dharsey and Zenariah Barends, who represented all Coloured schools and colleges in the Western Cape (SA History, 2016). The aftermath of the school's protest action saw the formation of Student Representative Councils (SRC) and branches of COSAS in every school, which participated during this period (SA History, 2017).

### **2.3.3 Why is #FMF Categorised as a Crisis?**

Earlier, the question of whether a student protest movement can be regarded as a crisis was raised. By simply looking at the characteristics of a crisis (Mitroff, 1988; Lerbinger, 1997; Pearson and Clair, 1998; Fearn-Banks, 2002; Millar and Heath, 2004), one can answer the question.

Characteristics of a crisis:

- Crises have high consequences – the #FMF movement has led to more than R600 million worth of damage to university infrastructure, numerous injuries to staff and protestors plus one fatality.
- Low likelihood – although numerous previous student protests have been documented in the last ten years, none of them had the violent and damaging nature as with the #FMF.
- Covered with risk and vagueness – due to the violent nature, the risk to life and property was constant, and the continued shuffling of #FMF representation led to university management ceasing negotiations.
- Accompanied by time-pressure – #FMF movement gave deadlines for their grievances to be met by university management. The impending examinations also forced universities to look for solutions to ensure that final examinations finished according to the academic calendar.
- Disruption of normal business – #FMF supporters disrupted normal classes and examinations and even prohibited students from using university-issued

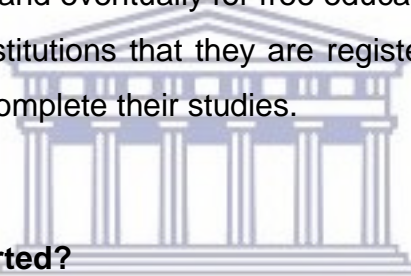


transport to alternative venues for examinations. These actions forced the academic calendar to cease at numerous universities.

- Potentially gravely damaging to the business reputation as well – university managements were criticised for their handling of the crisis by various stakeholders, as well as for the use of police and security forces to enforce interdicts against protesters.

The above clearly classifies the #FMF movement as a crisis.

The main concern over the #FMF movement is the fact that at all the institutions that the movement had occurred, violent protests and the destruction of university property followed. The first protests started in 2007 and nobody could have predicted the violent nature of the #FMF movement, nor the amount of damage it caused to the various tertiary institutions. The mere fact is that students who were protesting against the increase in the student fees and eventually for free education would cause millions of Rands of damage to the institutions that they are registered at, and destroying the infrastructure they need to complete their studies.



#### **2.3.4 #FMF: How it all started?**

The #FeesMustFall (#FMF) movement started to simmer into existence after the #RhodesMustFall (#RMF) movement was launched on 9 March 2015 at the University of Cape Town (UCT) (Cornell, *et al.*, 2016). Students at the UCT campus demanded the removal of a statue of Cecil John Rhodes, as he was a symbol of colonialism, and pledged to address contract worker rights, curriculum change, and several other issues were presented by students, workers and staff to UCT management. (Kamazi, 2015) To emphasise the seriousness of the students' actions, Chumani Maxwele threw a bucket filled with faeces that he brought with him from Khayelitsha on the statue. In the eyes of protesting students, the statue was a symbol of various social and economic problems within the structures of UCT. (Fairbanks, 2015) The protesters turned to violence to get their message across to the UCT management. (Singh, 2016)

Although the protest actions at UCT ignited the flame of #FMF, the protest actions at the Durban University of Technology of 2008 (MacGregor, 2008) and the protest at

the University of Limpopo in 2009 raised the issues of financial support, better quality tertiary education and academic exclusion (SA History, 2017). Various eruptions of protests actions occurred from as early as 2007 leading up to the full ignition of the #FMF movement. Free education was the main aim of the protests at the University of Johannesburg in 2010 when SASCO called for the closure of all the universities in South Africa (Newman and Gifford, 2010). These protests actions turned violent and burning tires blocked the university management called in police as entrances to the university.

#FMF was officially launched after the University of Witwatersrand (Wits) declared an increase in tuition fees for 2016 (Pillay, 2016). The movement did not only support the financial difficulties students were facing but also supported the decolonisation of higher education, the language of tuition campaign at the University of Stellenbosch and Pretoria, and the housing shortages at the University of Cape Town (Hodes, 2016). The #FMF movement became a uniting force for student issues (Pillay, 2016).





Figure 2.3: Source: Zwane, T (Mail and Guardian, 2015)

Zwane (Mail and Guardian, 2015) described how, within a few days in October 2015, the fire of the #FMF movement spread across various campuses throughout South Africa and brought the higher education industry to a standstill. Figure 2.3 above indicate the various violent clashes that occurred during the starting month of October 2015. Msweli and Hutton (2016) state that the #FMF campaign signified a shift from labour led political movement protests demanding wage increases, to an immense and extremely co-ordinated protest demanding an education system that is affordable.

The protesting students were frustrated by the bureaucratic nature of negotiations and resorted to more militant actions to show university management the seriousness of

the protest. University management was publicly criticised for their management of the crisis. Naidoo (2016) criticised university management under direction from their Senates and Councils who wasted valuable time and resources by empowering police and security firms through court interdict to protect universities “*against anyone else participating in disruptive actions*”. Naidoo further stated that instead of joining the call for free education and decolonising of the higher education systems, students were victimised by police and security firms and even noted that violence increased at university campuses when interdicts had been issued against protesters.

As the standoff between university management and student protesters grew, so too did the support for #FMF as South African students in London voiced their support by marching to the Lilian Ngoyi House in Trafalgar Square (EWN, 2015). Not only South African students abroad supported the call free education, but students from Canada, Australia, England, Germany, China, and Cameroon also voiced their support for the movement through social media (EWN, 2015).

It is clear that the #FMF movement’s cause was not just a South African cause but an international one by the amount of support the movement was receiving from all over the globe. The following section investigates the contributing factors for the #FMF movement and their origins within South Africa’s social, economic and political environment.



### **2.3.5 Origins of the Major Contributing Factor for the Existence of #FMF Movement**

The #FMF movement did not only occur at your previously disadvantaged universities that struggled with resources, student accommodation and fees but at the former white, more financially stable institutions. Andrew Nash (2006) delineated the restructuring of higher education in South Africa as published in 2002. The new policy reduced the higher education institutions from thirty-six to twenty-one institutions by merging traditionally white universities with traditionally black universities or technikons (Nash, 2006). This meant that the merged universities inherited all the problems (bad debt, accommodation, and rising fees) of the previously disadvantaged universities or technikons.

Universities became more focused on the need to achieve vital resources due to the dominance of the US university system. Nash pointed out the characteristics of the US University system as the systems focus on the highly distinguished pyramid of an academic institution, research-based 'output', and allocating massive resources behind the best academic individuals and institutions, and philosophy of individual self-advancement and unconcealed professionalism, and a focussed direction to the marketplace." Nash (2006) foretold that students who come from a working-class upbringing who do make it into university will lose their values within the push from the universities to maintain the highest levels of achievements as characterised by the US university system.

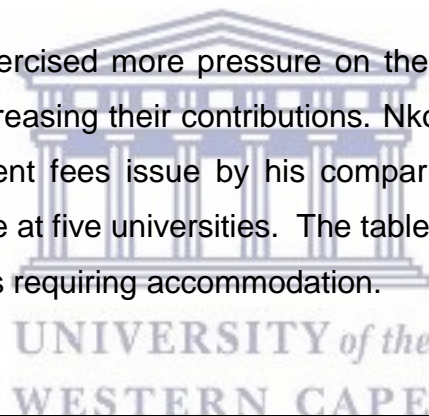
The #FMM movement singled out the push for the decolonisation of the university education system as a major grievance within the South African tertiary education system. The university demographic landscape has changed over the last five to ten years, due to the abolishment of Apartheid and its segregation laws, and the restructuring of higher education in South African education policy. A report from the Department of Higher Education in 2013 highlights that UCT has a 51% Black student population and 28% Black staff, Rhodes measured at 59% Black student body and 20% Black staff, WITS with the highest Black student population of 74% and 32% Black staff, Stellenbosch at 32% Black students and only 18% Black staff and University of Pretoria measured at 46% Black students and 20% Black staff members (DHET, 2013). The report calculated Coloured, Indian and Black as Black students and when referring to Black staff, the report depicts Black academic staff. These statistics reinforce claims about the transformation of the curriculum and staff composition. The report also states that at historically Black institutions, the Black student enrolment was over 80%, as well as Black academic staff at these institutions.

Naicker (2016, p 57) noted that another key element that led to the #FMM was the fact that the culture at the previously White institutions was still predominately White, but the demographics of the student population had changed in the last five to ten years as shown in the above paragraph. Suddenly you had a growing black student population at universities like UCT, Stellenbosch, WITS, and Rhodes who felt "*marginalised and excluded from institutional culture and practices at the liberal universities*". Naicker further noted that this exclusion led to the students adopting political practices that are closer to urban social movements and independent strike

committees than traditional student political parties and trade unions. This was evident with the mass-collective action, spontaneity and the rejection of the student representative structures as well as the #FMF alignment with workers on the various campuses.

The total number of students enrolled in higher education institutions in South Africa between 1994 and 2002 almost doubled, from 495 356 to 938 201 students (Hodes, 2016). Hodes also stated that government funding for higher education was reduced from 49 percent in 2000 to 40 percent in 2012. The Mail and Guardian (2015) reported that students had to find R7.7 billion more due to the loss of the government's contribution to universities. This meant that between 2000 and 2012 university fees doubled, but the government is not solely to blame. Universities were tasked to make up the deficit through private fundraising, but during this period student fees increased from 24 percent to 31 percent.

Universities could have exercised more pressure on the government to assist with student debt as well as increasing their contributions. Nkosi (2015) gives us a better understanding of the student fees issue by his comparison of the annual cost of studying for a BCom degree at five universities. The table below indicates the annual cost and extras for students requiring accommodation.



**Table 2.3: Comparison of the Annual Cost of Studying for a BCom Degree at Five Universities**

UCT	WITS	UP	Stellenbosch	UKZN
R50 000 - R62 000	R42 010 – R43 320	R36 250	R33 164	R39 170
Plus accommodation	Plus accommodation	Plus accommodation	Plus accommodation	Plus accommodation
Single room – R43 000  Small single room – R42 200	Per student in a single room – R33 660	R28 800	Single room – R36 360  Double Room per student- R29 880	R25 892

Double room, per student– R38 500				
Plus meals	Plus meals	Plus meals	Plus meals	Plus meals
3 meals for 7 days a week R17 300	15 meals a week R20 976	R14 400 for the year	R188 per day	Not provided by University R23 980 per year
Source: Nkosi (2015)				

The question may still linger: why is this researcher defining #FMF as a crisis? Obviously, the movement has legitimacy in terms of the cause of the protest actions.

The next section follows a timeline of how the #FMF movement was born and the number of violent protests which occurred and the extent of damage caused by the protesters on all the universities which provide evidence to the researcher's categorisation of the #FMF movement as a crisis.

The researcher does not dispute the legitimacy of the cause but has identified through literature the characteristics of a crisis which the #FMF fulfills.

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### 2.3.5.1 #FM Timeline

Table 2.4 refers to a timeline indicating how the #FMF movement started and flared up across the South African tertiary landscape. The timeline also indicates the various violent protests and incidents as well as the responses from the government and the universities.

<b>Table 2.4: #FMF Timeline</b>		
<b>Date</b>	<b>Action</b>	<b>Reference</b>
14/10/2015	Students at Wits protest against 10.5% increase to student fees. Students arrange to sit in and lock down of Wits University.	(Sello, 2015)

19/10/2015	Student protest actions spread from Wits to UCT and Rhodes University. Students block entrances to UCT campus. Riot police called in as RMF students illegally occupy administration building at UCT and 25 students are arrested.	(EWN, 2015)
20/10/2015	CPUT and University of Fort Hare students start protesting and barricading entrances to campuses.	(EWN, 2015)
21/10/2015	CPUT and UCT students join forces and march onto Parliament on the day of the meeting of the National Assembly with President Jacob Zuma and Higher Education Minister Blade Nzimande in attendance. Students demanded that Minister Nzimande address them and violent clashes with police erupted.	(Merten, 2015)
22/10/2015	Students of the University of Johannesburg clashed with a private security company.	(EWN, 2015)
23/10/2015	NMMU students join the movement with the blocking of campus entrances.  President Zuma met with Vice Chancellors and student representatives at the Union Buildings. Student protests outside the Union Buildings turn violent, as portable toilets were set alight and fences were broken down. Police used tear gas, stun grenades, and rubber bullets to disperse the protesting students. President Zuma announces no increase in university fees for 2016.	(PE Herold, 2015)  (Hosken, 2015)



11/11/2015	Protestors shut down all operations on UWC campus with violent protesting. Various buildings were damaged and four security personnel were treated for various wounds.	(Herman, 2015)
17/02/2016	UCT seeks an interdict to prevent violent protests after the bus, paintings and the Vice Chancellor's office is petrol bombed.	(Evans, 2016)
14/08/2016	The South African Union of Students calls for students to shut down universities on 15 August 2016 after the Council on Higher Education concluded that a 0% fee increase would be unsustainable and recommended an inflation-related increase.	(EWN, 2016)
15/09/2016	Student protests break out at Walter Sisulu, University of KwaZulu- Natal, Mangosuthu University of Technology.	(Potelwa, 2016)
19/09/2016	Minister Blade Nzimande announces that university fees will increase by 8%. Students at the University of the Witwatersrand mobilised and violent protests followed, further protests at University of the Free State and Pretoria erupted as well. UCT suspended their academic year.	(SABC News, 2016)

10/10/2016	Violent protests break out at the University of the Witwatersrand as protesters take protests into Braamfontein. Various shops and a bus are damaged during the confrontation with police. Vehicles were set alight on UCT campus.	(EWN, 2016)  (News24, 2016)
3/10/2016	Students close UWC and CPUT campuses for the second day in a row.	(Furlong, <i>et al.</i> , 2016)
7/10/2016	#FMF detonates nail bomb on UCT's Jameson Plaza.	(Hodes, 2016)
10/10/2016	UCT crèche evacuated after an anonymous threat.	(Doochin, 2016)
10/2016	Police in clashes with protestors at UWC campus. UWC management released a statement that the management will only meet with representatives of the SRC and #FMF to discuss their demands.	(Brandt, 2016)
11/2016	Numerous petrol bombs and petrol containers found on the UWC campus.	(Koyana, 2016)
07/11/2016	Violent clashes between police and protesting students on the UWC campus as students overturned campus security vehicle and graffiti scribbled on campus buildings.	(Petersen, 2016)
	The total cost of #FMF exceeds R600 million in damages to universities.	(Kiernan, 2016)

### 2.3.5.2 #FMF: The Financial Implication

#FMF has the possibility to become a catastrophe for any and all of the universities it has affected if not handled correctly. To date, only one person has lost his life due to the protest action when a cleaner passed away due to an asthma attack caused by protesting students releasing a fire extinguisher (Tandwa, 2016). #FMF has not just caused universities great cost in terms of Rand value and the loss of important infrastructure and educational equipment, but also valuable time as various lectures were canceled due to #FMF.

The Higher Education Minister, Blade Nzimande, had estimated that the costs for the #FMF movement for 2015 and 2016 can be R600 000 000 (Sowetan, 2016) and this estimation can increase as some universities are still waiting on the assessment from their insurance carriers for the final assessment. The cost of overtime for police officers in Gauteng alone are confirmed at over R3 million.

#### **The #FMF Cost per University Costs Summary plus Infrastructure Damage (Businessstech, 2016):**

- University of Johannesburg  
R144 000 000 – Auditorium and computer lab burnt down, damages to three cleaner change rooms, guard house and various properties vandalised
- University of KwaZulu-Natal  
R100 000 000 – Law library at Howard College, William O'Brien residence, coffee shop.
- North West University  
R198 000 000 – Damage to Administration building, science centre, entrance and house parents' residence, main gate, gate monitors and cameras.
- University of the Western Cape  
R46 000 000 – burnt and damaged residence buildings, vandalising of electronics in buildings, fire damage, broken doors, windows, and gates.
- University of Fort Hare  
R8 000 000
- Vaal University of Technology

R7 000 000

- Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University  
R6 600 000 – Xanadu Melody clubhouse was torched.
- Tshwane University of Technology  
R5 073 747
- University of Zululand  
R4 500 000 – fire damage to buildings and university vehicles
- University of Limpopo  
R4 000 000
- University of Cape Town  
R3 200 000 – University vehicles (bakkies and bus), air filtration system, broken doors and winders, private vehicles set alight, Vice Chancellor's office sustained fire damage, historical paintings, and statues.
- Free State University  
R2 800 000 - damage to statues
- University of Witwatersrand  
R2 044 000 – Damage to lecture room due to fire, plus lecture theatre, fire hydrants, fire hose reels, toilets, benches, bins and graffiti on various buildings and broken windows and doors.
- Stellenbosch University  
R1 400 000
- Cape Peninsula University of Technology  
Awaiting assessment from the insurance company. CPUT sustained a huge amount of damage to buildings and infrastructure on both campuses.
- Walter Sisulu University  
R351 287
- Rhodes University, R250 000

The above cost per university is only the amounts claimed for damages to universities and does not include extra expenditures like overtime for security staff, employment of extra security staff, overtime for emergency medical staff at campuses, the cost for transport to alternative examination venues, the hiring of venues etc.

### 2.3.5.3 #FMF and Violence

Student protests over the years have had its fair share of violent clashes with police but as documented above, the magnitude of the damage that the #FMF caused to the education sector was unforeseen. The #FMF movement was characterised by the sheer intensity and regularity of violent incidents with police or campus security. Protestors used whatever they could to block entrances, setting fire to rubbish bins, and used bricks or paving to assault police or security guards.

Hodes (2016) also referred to the militaristic appearance of the #FMF as protestors were seen wearing combat gear, army fatigues and arming themselves with sjamboks, bricks, and even petrol bombs, as is evident with the bombing of the UCT's Vice Chancellors office, as well as several petrol bombs discovered on the UWC campus (Koyana, 2016). A nail bomb was even detonated within the central campus at Jameson Plaza on 7 October 2016 on UCT. Hodes (2016, p 146) described this act of violence as "*indiscriminate targeting of staff, students and their families*"

The violence did not stop with the protesting as several cases of rape, homophobia and other forms of bigotry related to gender and sexuality were voiced. Several cases of rape and sexual assault were reported during the #FMF movement (Timeslive, 2015), (ENCA, 2016), (Malingo, 2016), as well as a case of assault against the instigator of the RMF movement, Chumani Maxwele (Isaacs, 2016). Numerous incidents of threats, intimidation and humiliation against fellow students and their families were reported as students were forced out of residences to join the #FMF (Hodes, 2016).

### 2.3.6 Conclusion of #FMF Section

The #FMF movement comes from a proudly South African student political history where previous student political bodies have stood toe-to-toe against a great adversary in the form of an apartheid government that was ruthless and abided by their own rules of engagement. The #FMF predecessors followed a protocol of peaceful protests and marches to express their views and perceptions. History has given evidence that none of the historical student protests have led to the damage of vital educational infrastructures such as schools, libraries or hostels although violent

clashes with police and the burning of tires were characteristic of the protests during the Apartheid era.

History has shown that a student protest has the potential to lead to victory or to defeat. Defeat, as the above examples have shown, can be thousands of lives lost during a brutal confrontation at Tiananmen Square in 1989 in China. Chinese protestors did not only lose their lives during the protest action but the Chinese government till today have prisoners who are serving “Tiananmen-related sentences” or victories from the Teheran University Massacre in 1999 in Iran, where students learned from the massacre and future protest actions were better organised and student protests led to more victories.

It is clear from the international student protests examples that student protest actions can escalate and lead to extremely high numbers of lives lost, damage to infrastructure and breakdown of governance structure, but on the other side of the coin can lead to regime changes, social, economic and political reform, but unfortunately history has too many examples of disastrous student protests. The #FMF movement has the potential to become another. At this stage, the movement has only cost one life but it is costing a system that is looking for ways and means to be able to afford free education millions of Rands. Student politics is a vital gear in the current political engine and has a pivotal part to play in addressing student issues within the student political environment.

## **2.4 Definition of Management Competencies**

This section contains the discussion on management competencies and crisis management competencies, its various definitions, antecedents, and examples that have been identified by researchers.

### **2.4.1 Competence, Competency, and Competencies**

The literature is ambivalent about the terms competence and competencies.

*The word “competence” in its simplest form derives from the Latin word “competent”, which can be translated as “one who has the right to judge”, respectively, “the one*

*who has the right to speak.* (Skorkova, 2016). The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English states that the two words, (competency and competence) can be used interchangeably and considered as nouns (Sykes, 1987). The Dictionary further defines competency and competence as “*the ability to do or for a task, sufficiency of means of living, easy circumstances’ legal capacity, and the right to take cognisance of*”.

The confusion surrounding the terms competence, competency and competencies is evident in academic literature, has been argued by various scholars over the years, and has led to two unique approaches within the study of competencies. The two approaches are the US approach and the UK approach.

Although Bergenhenegouwen (1996) stated that the US and UK competency approaches can be combined, he further stated that managers must own a range of individual competencies, as well as specific competencies to be able to deliver an effective level of performance. This notion is supported by Stuart and Lindsay (1997) who believed that the two approaches complement each other, as both approaches are incomplete. Elkin (1990) in his research stated that the further an employee moves up the occupational ladder within an organisation the UK approach becomes less important and the US approach increase in importance. Elkin’s statement underlines the complementary nature of the two approaches.

The main differences in the two approaches are that in the United Kingdom, competence is used to describe an appropriate standard for certification in professional organisations, whereas the US approach recognises the features of superior performers and excellence (Cheng, *et al.*, 2003).

#### **2.4.1.1 US Competency Perspective**

The term competency grew due to the managerial competencies research of McClelland and the McBer Consultancy Group in the United States of America in the 1970s by Bolden and Gosling (2006), but an American Management Association study in the 1980s cemented the term competencies in behavioural and performance contexts. David McClelland, published “Testing for Competence rather than for Intelligence” in 1973, in which his findings supported the fact that personal

competencies (motives and personality traits) or individual characteristics, were accepted as important forecasters of successful employee performance. McClelland argued that traditional psychometrics, such as IQ and aptitude tests, were outdated and that personal competencies are more precise in predicting success in the workplace. When McClelland (1973) believed that it may be required to measure competencies that are more commonly useful in groups of life outcomes, including work-related and social outcomes such as interpersonal skills, leadership etc. He further believed that aptitude and intelligence are not adequate predictors of high performance. McClelland's work was seen as provocative and he has been credited with the birth of the Competency Theory in HR management (McClelland, 1973).

This context was supported by Woodruffe (1993, p 36) who stated that competencies are "*dimensions of behaviour which are related to superior job performance*". Boyatzis (1982) was a major contributor with his research on competencies and defined competencies as a collection of underlying required abilities, characteristics, knowledge, skills, attitudes, experience, motivation, and particular abilities for given job or position (supported by Brannick, Levine and Morgeson, 2007; Schippmann *et al.*, 2000 in Rubin and Dierdorff, (2009). Boyatzis further stated that competency within a job signified high performance and abundant capacity. Woodruffe (1993, p 29) worded his definition a little bit differently: "*competency is the set of behaviour patterns which are needed to allow the incumbent to perform tasks and functions with competence*". This notion was supported by Brannick *et al* (2007) who state that competencies are the activities and special attributes associated with the execution of tasks and duties for a specific profession. Woodruffe (1991) further states that the term competency refers to two factors, namely:

1. the proven ability to perform a job competently/stands required in employment;
2. sets of behaviours the person must display in order to perform the tasks and functions of the job competence.

#### **2.4.1.2 UK Competence Perspective**

Due to the influence of the Management Charter Initiative (MCI), competence is a term mainly used in the United Kingdom. MCI perceive competencies are about the outputs to specific minimum standards. The UK Standards Programme terms a "competence"



as a description of an action, behavior or outcome which a person should be able to demonstrate (UK Training Agency, 1988).

The UK perspective is not associated with the underlying characteristics and behavior that supports managerial performance, as with the US perspective, but rather with standards of performance in a precise function. Cheng *et al* (2003) derived to the conclusion that the UK approach is focused on performance requirements of job positions, rather than the job holders. The British Institute of Management and the UK government support the MCI with the overall task of improving the quality of managers within organisations in the United Kingdom. The Constable and McCormick (1987) research echo the expectations on workplace performance in precise trades, and that manager is evaluated on fixed tasks with distinct industry standards labeled as “competences” which are distinguished from the individual's competencies. Cheng *et al* (2003) believed that the UK competencies approach emphasises job performance in precise occupations and is headed towards accreditation and certification.

#### **2.4.2 Definition of Competency**

From existing literature, research has acknowledged that over the years, a number of researchers (Boyatzis (1982), Woodruffe (1991), Brannick, *et al* (2007)) have found various similarities and overlapping opinions on the definition of competencies, and that the common ground is that competencies consist of various attributes consisting of skills, knowledge, experience, motivation, and abilities that allow a person to perform a task, duty, job or profession with competence, and that competencies are dimensions of behavior which are related to superior job performance. For the purpose of this study, competency is defined as a collection of underlying required abilities, characteristics, knowledge, skills, attitudes, experience, motivation, and particular abilities for given job or position which lead to superior job performance (Boyatzis, 1982). From the definition, it is clear that the study supports the US perception of competency.

### **2.4.2.1 Management Competencies**

Management competency is an extension of the definition identified above, but the focus area is the managerial context. Bolden and Gosling (2006) state that management competencies are depended on the analysis of the various functions within a specific occupation to determine the expected standards of workplace behavior. In other words, what are the specific abilities, knowledge, and experience needed to ensure the effective performance within specific managerial functions? These functions of management as identified by Boyatzis (1982) are referred to as planning, organising, leading, controlling, motivating and coordinating. Furthermore, Boyatzis states that managerial competencies depict a person who manages a team of employees or business and relates to effective and/or superior job performance.

General competencies denote a more comprehensive personality characteristic, skills, patterns of behavior and values that are crucial for every managerial position (McClelland, 1973). Carson and Gilmore (2000) added that managerial competencies may be more suitable and pertinent for senior managers within large organisations and those essential characteristics pertaining to a certain situation will influence the management competencies for that situation. Spencer and Spencer (1993) agreed with the above notion and added that managerial competencies are a specific sub-category of the competencies, which are predominantly important for managers. Hogg (1993) adds that managerial competencies lead to the parade of talents and skills, which delivers greater productivity levels within the job-related area.

### **2.4.2.2 Examples of Management Competencies**

In their research article entitled “Managerial Competencies and the Managerial Performance Appraisal Process”, Abraham *et al* (2001) identified a list of twenty critical management competencies. Abraham and his fellow researchers conducted a pilot study at New York University, within its MBA programme, to determine which competencies companies within their appraisal programmes currently used for managers. The reason for them choosing the MBA programme was that many of the MBA students were employed as managers within local and international companies.

A total of twenty companies, sourced from varying fields were included in the study, from large industrial manufacturing firms, regional power producers, financial institutions, health care providers and international distributors of health care products. The findings of the pilot study were validated with a survey that was sent to 2 500 organisations and confirmed that the results were similar. The pilot study identified twenty competencies considered descriptive of a successful manager. These competencies are identified in Table 2.5 but are defined by the use of the SHL Universal Competency Framework. The competencies are:

<b>Table 2.5: Management Competencies</b>		
	Competencies	Definition
1	<i>Leadership skills</i>	Takes control and exercises leadership, initiates actions and gives direction
2	<i>Customer focus</i>	focused on customer needs and satisfaction, setting a high standard of quality
3	<i>Results oriented</i>	Driving projects to results, working systematically, maintaining quality processes, maintaining productivity levels
4	<i>Problem solver</i>	analysing and evaluating information, testing assumptions and investigating, producing solutions, making judgements, demonstrating systems thinking
5	<i>Good communicator</i>	writing correctly, clearly and fluently, expressive and engaging writing style, speak fluently, able to explain concepts and opinions, articulate key points of argument, be able to speak and present in public, project credibility and respond to audience
6	<i>Team worker</i>	interconnecting self-knowledge and insight, adapting to the team, building team spirit, recognising and rewarding contributions, listening, consulting others, displaying tolerance

		and consideration, showing empathy, supporting others, caring for others, developing and understanding others
7	<i>Quality focused</i>	monitoring and maintaining quality, maintaining quality processes
8	<i>Interpersonal skills</i>	making an impact, shaping conversations, appealing to emotions, promoting ideas, negotiating, gaining agreement
9	<i>Technical expertise</i>	applying technical expertise, building technical expertise, sharing expertise, using technology resources, demonstrating physical and manual skills, demonstrating cross-functional awareness, demonstrating spatial awareness
10	<i>Business expertise</i>	monitoring markets and competitors, identifying business opportunities, demonstrating financial awareness, controlling costs, keeping aware of organisational issues
11	<i>Flexible/adaptable</i>	adapting to a new environment, accepting new ideas, adapting interpersonal style showing cross-cultural awareness, dealing with ambiguity
12	<i>Staff developer</i>	providing direction and coordinating action, supervising and monitoring behavior, coaching, delegating, empowering staff, motivating others, developing staff, identifying and recruiting talent
13	<i>Dependable/trustworthy</i>	building rapport, networking, relating across levels, managing conflict, using humour
14	<i>Safety conscious</i>	showing awareness of safety issues, complying with legal obligations
15	<i>Risk taker</i>	taking calculated risks
16	<i>Innovative</i>	innovating, seeking and introducing change, thinking broadly, approaching work strategically, setting and developing strategy, visioning

17	<i>Hard worker</i>	achieving objectives, working energetically and enthusiastically, pursuing self-development, demonstrating ambition
18	<i>Time manager</i>	timekeeping and attending, following directions, following procedures
19	<i>Integrity</i>	upholding ethics and values, acting with integrity, utilising diversity, showing social and environmental responsibility
20	<i>Purposeful</i>	setting objectives, planning, managing time, managing resources, monitoring progress
Source: Abrahams <i>et al</i> (2001)		

Numerous competencies have been identified and researched by numerous scholars throughout the years. Table 2.6 presents these competencies, sub-competencies and the various scholars who have researched and published on the listed competencies:

<b>Table 2.6: List of Key Managerial Competencies.</b>		
<b>Managerial Competencies</b>	<b>Sub-competencies</b>	<b>Studies</b>
Personal relationship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Customer relationship</li> <li>• Teamwork</li> </ul>	Raybould and Wilkins (2005), Chung-Herera <i>et al</i> (2003), Kay and Russette (2000)
Communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Oral communication</li> <li>• Writing communication</li> <li>• Effective communication</li> </ul>	Raybould and Wilkins (2005), Chung-Herera <i>et al</i> (2003), Kay and Moncraz (2007), Brophy and Kiely (2002), Connolly and McGing (2006), Brownell (2008) and Cizel <i>et al</i> (2007), Kriegl (2000), Kay and

		Moncraz (2007) and Siu (1998)
Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strategic position</li> <li>• Leader capability</li> <li>• Suitable leadership</li> <li>• Team building</li> <li>• Team spirit</li> <li>• Team cooperation</li> </ul>	Chung-Herera <i>et al</i> (2003), Kay and Russette (2000), Kriegl (2000), Kay and Moncraz (2007), Siu (1998), Brophy and Kiely (2002) Connolly and McGing (2006) and Brownell (2008)
Implementation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Administrative</li> <li>• Efficiency</li> </ul>	Chung-Herera <i>et al</i> (2003), Kay and Russette (2000), Brownell (2008) and Cizel <i>et al</i> (2007)
Strategic management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strategic planning ability</li> <li>• Organisation</li> <li>• Decision-making ability</li> </ul>	Siu (1998), Brophy and Kiely (2002), Connolly and McGing (2006), Brownell (2008), Cizel <i>et al</i> (2007) and Kay and Russette (2000).
Analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Conceptual and analytical</li> <li>• Critical thinking</li> <li>• Strategic thinking</li> <li>• Commercial concern</li> </ul>	Raybould and Wilkins (2005), Chung-Herera <i>et al</i> (2003), Siu (1998) Agut <i>et al</i> (2003) and Connolly and McGing (2006).
Problem-solving	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identify problems</li> <li>• Effectively deal with problems</li> </ul>	Raybould and Wilkins (2005), Brophy and Kiely (2002), Connolly

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Anticipate needs</li> </ul>	and McGing (2006), Brownell (2008) and Cizel <i>et al</i> (2007).
Human resource management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Motivation</li> <li>• Training and development</li> <li>• Managing and supervising</li> <li>• Recruitment and selecting</li> </ul>	Kriegl (2000), Kay and Moncraz (2007), Agut <i>et al.</i> (2003), Brownell (2008) and Cizel <i>et al</i> (2007).
Field management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Management flexible</li> <li>• Crisis management</li> <li>• Health and risk prevention</li> <li>• Service management</li> <li>• Customer services focus</li> </ul>	Kriegl (2000), Agut <i>et al</i> (2003), Brophy and Kiely (2002), Jauhari (2006), Brownell (2008) and Cizel <i>et al</i> (2007).
Expert knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Industrial knowledge</li> <li>• Commercial management</li> <li>• Accommodation management</li> <li>• Food management</li> <li>• Tourism services</li> </ul>	Chung-Herera <i>et al</i> (2003), Kay and Russette (2000), Kriegl (2000), Siu (1998) Agut <i>et al</i> (2003) and Cizel <i>et al</i> (2007).
Financial management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Controlling costs</li> <li>• Managing cash flow</li> <li>• Planning and budgeting</li> <li>• Financial analysis</li> <li>• Financial leveraging</li> </ul>	Kay and Moncraz (2007), Agut <i>et al.</i> (2003), Brophy and Kiely (2002), Jauhari (2006), Connolly and McGing (2006), and Cizel <i>et al</i> (2007)

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Revenue management</li> </ul>	
Marketing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Marketing analysis</li> <li>• Marketing position</li> <li>• Business marketing</li> </ul>	Kay and Moncraz (2007), Agut <i>et al.</i> (2003), Jauhari (2006) and Cizel <i>et al</i> (2007)
Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• International viewpoint</li> <li>• Integrating local culture</li> <li>• Appreciating different cultures</li> </ul>	Kriegl (2000), Jauhari (2006) and Brownell (2008)
Self-management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pursuing self-development</li> <li>• Challenging oneself</li> <li>• Managing emotion</li> <li>• Regulating stress</li> </ul>	Raybould and Wilkins (2005), Chung-Herrera <i>et al.</i> (2003), Kriegl (2000), Connolly and McGing (2006), Brownell (2008) and Cizel <i>et al.</i> (2007)
Attitude	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strong industry interest</li> <li>• Achievements</li> <li>• Self-realisation</li> <li>• Devoted to work</li> <li>• Positive being</li> </ul>	Kriegl (2000), Siu (1998), Brophy and Kiely (2002), Jauhari (2006), Brownell (200*) and Cizel <i>et al</i> (2007)
Foreign language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Foreign language communicative ability</li> <li>• Foreign language reading ability</li> <li>• Foreign language writing ability</li> </ul>	Agut <i>et al</i> , (2003), Kay and Moncarz (2007), Connolly and McGing (2006) and Cizel <i>et al</i> (2007)



Others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Drafting and implementing innovative strategies</li> <li>• Facilitating creative development of the enterprise</li> <li>• Planning innovative products</li> <li>• Bring innovation and differentiation to the hotel</li> </ul>	Kay and Russette (200), Kriegl (2000) and Jauhari (2006)
Source: Jeou-Shyan <i>et al</i> (2011)		

The above table lists the industry-specific competencies identified by Jeou-Shyan *et al* (2011). From the table and the twenty competencies identified by Abraham *et al* (2001), various similarities are identifiable. These competencies are seen as crucial in formal business, this is the reason Abrahams *et al* (2001) used MBA students who are employed in various companies. The importance of the various competencies was identified in their study.

### 2.4.3 Management Competencies within Higher Education

Bush and Glover (2003) define management within higher education as the efficient and effective maintenance of businesses day-to-day activities and the employment and execution of strategies. This definition is supported by Middlehurst (1992) who stated that the function of management is to make a company effective and efficient within established objectives. Although management and leadership have overlapping qualities, this study has already identified leadership as a management competency. Various researchers published work on leadership in higher education (e.g. Eddy and Van Der Linden, 2006; Ameijde *et al* 2009; Bryman, 2008) as well as leadership competencies within higher education (e.g. Spendlove, 2007; Smith and Wolverton,

2010), but no compelling literature was found on management within higher education, in particular, management competencies within higher education.

However, Smith's Higher Education Leadership Competency Model focused on higher education administrators and not the executive management structure of the university, whereas Spendlove's research focuses on the role that the Vice Chancellor, the Rector, and Principle Officers play and the various competencies needed for effective leadership. Their research does not address the management competencies needed by the executive management of a university.

The researcher identified a gap in the current literature that does not address the management competencies of executive management in higher education institutions (universities).

#### **2.4.4 Crisis Management Competencies**

Mikusiva and Copikova (2016) state that crisis manager competencies often develop from competencies of a manager in general, that are forcefully demanded in times of crisis. Herbane (2010) state that a person feels the threat of a crisis, they will react intuitively and deal with the crisis at hand. This notion mirrors the statement by Carson and Gilmore (2000) who postulate that general management competencies may be more suitable and appropriate for high-ranking managers within big companies and management competencies for precise circumstances will be influenced by the features of that precise situation. In the context of this study, the situation is a crisis.

Herrera (2013) states that managers need functional and personal competencies during a time of crisis. Functional competencies refer to the crisis manager's mastery of several aspects of the business's management and his specific role and responsibility within the organisation during a time of crisis, whilst on the other hand; personal competencies refer to the manager's mental and physical strength during a time of crisis. Crisis management competencies have been identified and defined by various researchers and scholars over the years, each from their perspective viewpoint. Many have described these competencies from emergency management, change management and even transformational management point of view, but for

the purpose of this study, crisis management competency refers to the competencies needed to be an effective crisis manager.

#### **2.4.4.1 Examples of Crisis Management Competencies**

Mikusiva and Copikova (2016) identify several critical competencies needed within the field of crisis management, from the business owner's point of view. The competencies identified are similar to the competencies identified by Herera (2013). In their study, Mikusiva and Copikova state that crisis managers use a variety of competencies, which are clustered into three categories. The categories are (1) managerial, (2) social and (3) functional, and give the reader an idea of the vast amount of competencies a crisis manager must be blessed with. Mikusiva and Copikova also state that crisis managers often have no theoretical knowledge or practical experience within the field of crisis management and that the competencies are intuitively present.

Mikusiva and Copikova identify three clusters of competencies, which are subcategorised with sub-competencies:

##### **Managerial Competencies**

- Time management: Setting priorities, delegating, awareness and disturbance;
- Coping with stress: Extremely complicated conditions, support even in stressful situations, work with emotions of others and control of own emotions in extreme situations;
- Focus on a human: Understanding the concerns of the employees;
- Focus on results: Disciplined and acceptance of criticism;
- Strategic thinking: Systematic, risks, variants, concentration, permanence;
- Troubleshooting: Team and individual work, overcoming of stereotypes, motivating environment, experience, and intuition;
- Leadership: Behaviour as a leader, facing the complex situation, credibility and reliability, and self-realisation of subordinates.

##### **Social Competencies**

- Communication: Active listening, feedback, presentation, development of the opinions of others;
- Teamwork: Cooperation, natural authority;
- Independence: Decision-making, obtaining resources and personal risk;
- Focus on the customer: Friendly behavior and communication;
- Solidarity: Values, vision, and goals.

### Functional Competencies

- Production management: Process and products;
- Work organisation: Distinction of urgent and important and variants;
- Financial management: Budget, plan, and analysis;
- Planning: Variants, sources, and consistency with surroundings;
- Human management: Regulations and art of motivation;
- Flexibility: Change of the style and methods and changes promoting;
- Creative thinking: Utilisation of ideas and intuition;
- Focus on standards: Regulations and careful work.

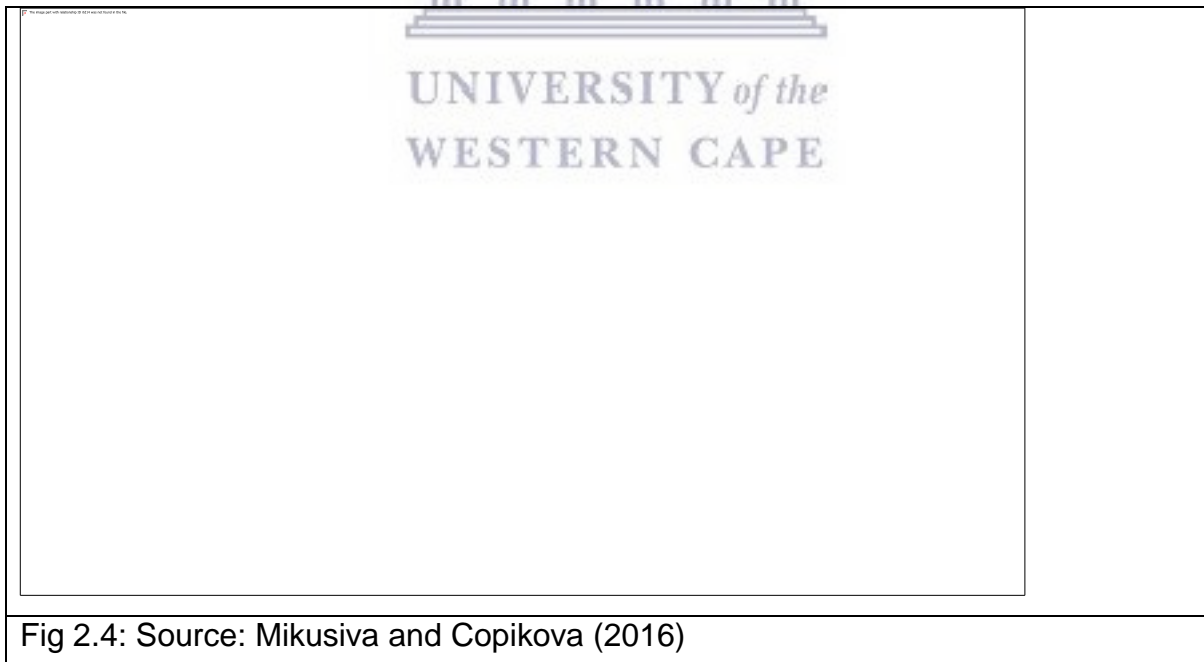


Fig 2.4: Source: Mikusiva and Copikova (2016)

The above figure represents the findings of the Mikusiva and Copikova (2016) study. The figure depicts the important competencies that are needed by a crisis manager

during a time of crisis. The findings point out that problem solving, resilience, independence, flexibility and financial management are the most important competencies needed by a crisis manager during a time of crisis. Leadership, strategic thinking, focus on output, communication, teamwork, creative thinking, and planning are grouped in a cluster that is second most important, with focus on humans, time management, sense of belonging, human management, product management and work organisation in the third cluster and focus on customers and focus on standards in the final cluster.

The National Occupational Standards for Management and Leadership in the United Kingdom set out the competencies required to perform key processes involved in crisis management. These are the basic crisis management competencies as referred by the National Occupational Standards (NOS) (Wood, 2013). Table 2.7 below indicates the main competency, the sub-competency, the defining characteristics of the sub-competency and the link to the NOS.

<b>Competency</b>	<b>Sub-competency</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>NOS</b>
1. Leading	1.1 Lead	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Set out and positively communicate the purpose and objectives of the crisis team to all members.</li> <li>• Involve members in the planning of how the crisis team will achieve its objectives.</li> <li>• Win, through your performance, the trust and support of people across the organisation and key stakeholders for your leadership.</li> <li>• Steer the crisis team successfully through difficulties and challenges,</li> </ul>	B5, B6, B7

		<p>including conflict, diversity and inclusion issues within the team.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encourage and recognise creativity and innovation within the team.</li> <li>• Give team member support and advice when they need it especially during periods of setbacks and change.</li> <li>• Motivate people across the organisation to present their own ideas and listen to what they say.</li> <li>• Encourage people across the organisation to take the lead when they have the knowledge and expertise and show a willingness to follow this lead.</li> <li>• Monitor activities and progress in different areas across the organisation without interfering.</li> </ul>	
2. Risk Identification	2.1 Risk Identification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Evaluate significant current and planned organisational activities and identify potential risks, the nature of the risks, the probability of occurrence and consequences.</li> <li>• Communicate information on identified risk to relevant people across the organisation and, where appropriate, to stakeholders, to enable decisions and actions to be taken in terms of accepting or treating risks.</li> <li>• Collect and evaluate information from across the organisation on how identified risks have been or are being</li> </ul>	B10

		dealt with, including contingency plans that have been put in place.	
3.Stakeholder Identification and analysis	3.1 Stakeholder identification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identify stakeholders and the background to, and nature of, their interest in the activities and performance of the organisation.</li> <li>• Identify organisations that share common or complementary objectives.</li> <li>• Obtain information on stakeholders from a wide variety of sources and actively use the information to support planning and decision-making.</li> <li>• Monitor and evaluate their likely needs/expectations/objectives in a crisis.</li> <li>• Consult with key stakeholders in order to inform and support organisational decisions.</li> <li>• Monitor wider developments in order to identify issues of potential interest or concern to stakeholders in the future and to identify new stakeholders.</li> </ul>	B2, D2, D17, E10
	3.2 Analyse stakeholder	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identify the extent to which decisions and their interests may affect stakeholders.</li> <li>• Identify and prioritise the strengths and weaknesses of your organisation and opportunities and threats in your organisation's external environment.</li> </ul>	

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Explore and assess a range of future scenarios within the environment in which your organisation operates.</li> <li>• Evaluate the feasibility of collaboration with other organisations in line with your organisation strategic objectives.</li> <li>• Organise stakeholder information and knowledge in a way that supports effective planning</li> </ul>	
4.Information collection and processing	4.1 Collect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Obtain information from a wide variety of sources and actively use the information to support planning and decision-making</li> <li>• Identify the information you need to make decisions and the sources of this information.</li> <li>• Obtain sufficient relevant information to allow you to make decisions.</li> <li>• Monitor all relevant media channels.</li> <li>• Record all information received and ensure that it is complete.</li> <li>• Ensure that the information is passed quickly to relevant members of the crisis team.</li> </ul>	E2, E10, E11
	4.2 Record	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Verify the accuracy and reliability of information.</li> <li>• Take timely action to remedy inadequate, unreliable, contradictory or ambiguous information.</li> </ul>	E11  E10

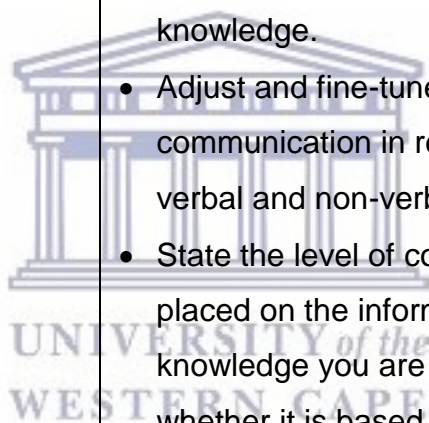




		<p>likely to conflict with values, policies, and guidelines.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Communicate your decision clearly to those who are affected.</li> </ul>	
6.Planning	6. Plan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Agree on the key objectives and scope of the plan and the available resources with key stakeholders.</li> <li>• Identify how the proposed plan fits with the overall vision, objectives, and plans of the organisation and any other activities being undertaken.</li> <li>• Develop, in consultation with the relevant people, a realistic and thorough plan for achieving the key objectives.</li> <li>• Balance the needs and expectations of key stakeholders and win their support.</li> <li>• Brief crisis team members on the plan and their roles and responsibilities and provide ongoing support, encouragement, and information.</li> <li>• Put processes and resources in place to manage potential risks arising from the plan and developing contingency arrangements.</li> <li>• Balance risk with desired objectives</li> </ul>	B1, B3, B4, B10, E8, F1
7. Implement	7.1 Act	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Implement the plan</li> <li>• Achieve project objectives using the agreed level of resources.</li> </ul>	E8, F1

	7.2 Monitor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Take timely corrective actions to deal with any significant discrepancies between actual and planned resource use.</li> <li>• Communicate progress to the key stakeholders and crisis team members on a regular basis.</li> <li>• Monitor, control and review progress of the plan so that it achieves the strategic objectives in the most effective and efficient way.</li> <li>• Identify, in the light of progress and any problems encountered and wider developments, any required changes to the plan, obtaining agreement from key stakeholders where necessary.</li> <li>• Confirm satisfactory completion of the plan with key stakeholders.</li> <li>• Evaluate the success of the plan, identifying what lessons can be learned and recognising the contributions of crisis team members.</li> </ul>	B1, F2, F1
8. Communicating	8.1 Communicate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Communicate information and knowledge only to those who have a right to it, in line with policies and legal requirements.</li> <li>• Identify how people prefer to receive information and knowledge and what media, languages, styles, timing, and pace are most appropriate for communicating with them.</li> </ul>	

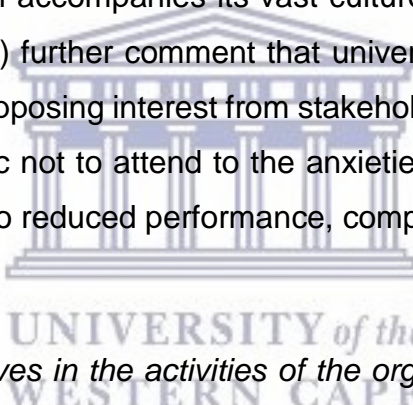
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Check that the information and knowledge you are communicating is current, accurate and complete.</li> <li>• Take action to minimise any interference or disruptions to your communication.</li> <li>• Communicate in ways that help people to understand the information and knowledge you are communicating and its relevance to them.</li> <li>• Use a variety of techniques to gain and maintain people's attention and interest and to help them retain information and knowledge.</li> <li>• Adjust and fine-tune your communication in response to both verbal and non-verbal feedback.</li> <li>• State the level of confidence that can be placed on the information and knowledge you are communicating; i.e. whether it is based on rigorously researched evidence, widely accepted facts or personal opinion.</li> <li>• Where you have to use jargon, technical terms or abbreviations, explain these carefully.</li> <li>• Confirm that people have received and understood the information and knowledge you have communicated.</li> </ul>	
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#### 2.4.5 Importance of Stakeholders

After identifying all the characteristics of this study, one cannot investigate the importance of the stakeholder's perception and what makes stakeholders so important to higher education institutions in general, without defining what a stakeholder is. Freeman (1984) define a stakeholder as *any person or group either affected by the company or able to influence on the accomplishment of its aims*" Bryson clarifies his definition by taking into context public and non-profit organisations, and classifies stakeholders as persons or groups that have the power to openly impact on the future of the business/organisation.

From the above definition, it is clear that stakeholders have a say in the way the institutions they are aligned, with are managed. Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum (1989, p ) support the above statement when they claimed that HEI has numerous customs and tradition which accompanies its vast culture of communal governance. Smith and Wolverson (2010) further comment that university management often has to stabilise the numerous opposing interest from stakeholders. Bryson (2004) declare that it would be catastrophic not to attend to the anxieties of stakeholders and often and very predictably leads to reduced performance, complete failure or even tragedy.



*"Despite involving themselves in the activities of the organization, stakeholders can not only control the stability of organisation, but also form corporate reputation - directly through decisions, boycotting, gentle revenge, income - taxes, restriction of the resource".* Matuleviene and Stravinskiene's (2015, p 81) definition above emphasised the importance of stakeholders by identifying the resources they possess which are necessary for organisation. Matuleviene and Stravinskiene (2015) further state that stakeholders can be categorised into four leading stakeholder groups, which are the shareholders, employees, suppliers, and customers. Current literature has established the importance of stakeholders within the governance of HEI. Bimbaum, *et al* (1989) defined that stakeholders have an impact, whether directly or indirectly on the running of the HEI.

#### **2.4.6 Conclusion of this Section**

The competency, competence and competencies debate has intrigued scholars for decades and the growth of the two perceptions had led to various studies on the matter, each with its own validation. In this study, we follow the US perception and clearly define competency as Boyatzis (1982) termed it as a collection of underlying required abilities, characteristics, knowledge, skills, attitudes, experience, motivation, and particular abilities for given job or position.

In this section, we establish through existing literature the definition of what management competencies are, which Spencer and Spencer (1993) describe as a specialised subset of the competencies that are particularly important for managers. The researcher also makes use of Abraham *et al's* (2001) 20 critical management competencies which they identified in their research article entitled: “Managerial Competencies and the Managerial Performance Appraisal Process”, which forms the basic managerial competencies the data collection tool will refer to. The literature study also identified a gap within the current literature on management competencies within higher education institutions.

Crisis management competencies are defined as competencies of a manager in general that are forcefully demanded just in times of crisis. (Mikusiva and Copikova, 2016). Mikusiva and Copikova's (2016) study identified several crisis management competencies, which are very similar to the crisis management competencies, associated with The National Occupational Standards for Management and Leadership in the United Kingdom. Further investigation also defined what stakeholders are and their importance within Higher Education institutions.

#### **2.5 Conclusion of the Chapter**

History has shown how crises have crippled businesses, cities, and even countries due to their enormous destructive nature. Whether human-made or “acts of nature”, crises must be managed in an appropriate manner. Student uprising as a crisis has had enormous effects on countries as seen by the examples in this chapter. South Africa has had a rich history of student protests that have defined the political landscape within this country, but this researcher as a crisis due to its volatile nature

and destructive aftermath has classified the #FMF movement. University management have been publicly criticised for the management of this crisis, which has affected the entire higher education sector. Is this criticism justified in terms of the competencies of the university management? Various academics and researchers have published their belief that certain skills, attributes, characteristics, experience and abilities (competencies) are needed to comprehensively succeed in a specific position.

This chapter's main aim was to present a comprehensive literature review of the main concepts of this research study. The various definitions, antecedents, characteristics, examples, and consequences of a crisis, crisis management and organisational crises were discussed. The literature review also dealt with the discussion on the establishment of the #FMF movement and its birth as a crisis, as well as discussing the history of student movements within South Africa and provided evidence of how the #FMF protests turned into a crisis. Finally, the researcher also reviewed the literature on management competencies and crisis management competencies, its various definitions, antecedents, and examples and importantly identified a gap within the literature on management competencies in higher education.



## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research design as well as outlined the research methodologies used to collect the necessary data for this study. Creswell (2012) states that for a study to be considered valid, it is required to provide a clear description of the research design, data collection methods/procedures, and data analysis. This chapter's goal is to describe in detail the research design process which is categorised into the following sections; objectives of the study, research questions, background to the study, research design, population, sample (sample technique, sample frame, purposive sampling technique), procedure, instrument (questionnaire, questionnaire design, validity and reliability, pilot of questionnaire), data analysis, ethical considerations and conclusion.

#### 3.2 Objectives of the Study

The study investigated the perceptions about management competencies that were employed by the management of a university in the Western Cape during normal business operations and during the #FMF crisis. The researcher listed the following objectives of the study:

- To identify the management competency needed by university management during a time of crisis from a stakeholder`s perspective;
- To investigate which management competencies of university management were absent during time of crisis from a stakeholder`s perspective;
- To explore the presence or absence of management competencies of university management during a time of crisis from a stakeholder`s perspective;



- To explain the relationship between the stakeholders' identified management competencies and the crisis management competencies found in the literature.

### 3.3 Research Questions

The research study was guided by the following research questions:

- What management competencies do stakeholders perceive to be important in university management during standard operating procedures?
- What management competencies do stakeholders perceive to be important in university management during crisis management?
- What management competencies did stakeholders perceive management at UWC to lack or not display during the #FMF student protest?
- How do the management competencies exhibited by management as identified by the stakeholder compare to the existing literature on crisis management?



### 3.4 Background to the Study

Student protest movements had a proud and impressive history in the South African political landscape. Student organisations like SASO, SASM and the BCM have had major impacts against the war against apartheid and the fight for democracy in South Africa (SASM, 2017). Reflecting on all the various student protest actions; the Soweto Uprising of 1976, the mass rallies at UWC in 1973, and the Cape Flats protest actions of 1980, none of the protest actions mentioned could have predicted how students demanding free education, decolonisation of the higher education and better working conditions for contract staff would turn out so violently and cause the amount of damage it did.

Universities became entrenched battlefields as rioting students set valuable infrastructure ablaze, students were intimidated to join the protests and even forcefully

removed from classes and prohibited from writing examinations by protesting students. University management was heavily criticised for their management of the crisis and the use of private security companies and eventually the police through interdicts to halt violent protests on various campuses throughout the South African tertiary sector (Naidoo, 2016).

### 3.5 Research Design

Bryman and Bell (2016) define research design as the framework for the gathering and analysis of the collected data which essentially meant that the research design provided a guiding structure for the use of the research methods and the analysis of the data collected. The study focussed on a qualitative and quantitative research methodology based on an exploratory research design. Exploratory research, according to Brown (2006) tackles fresh problems on which little or no prior research has been done. According to Burns and Bush (2010), *exploratory research design is suitable when the academics know minor details about the subject material and is not restricted to one detailed model but may use qualitative or quantitative methods*. The Burns and Bush (2010) definition is ideal for this study as the study produces quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative approach provides a numeric description of trends, attitudes or opinions of a population by usually studying a sample of that population (Twycross and Shields, 2004). Research questions led the investigation obtain answers to the unknown aspects of a phenomenon, which was presented in numerical form. The quantitative part of the study provides an account of the rank of importance of the management and crisis management competencies from the perception of the stakeholder.

According to Ryan *et al.* (2007), qualitative research methods are concerned with the feelings, experiences, and attitudes of the respondents of a research study. Frankel and Devers (2000a) state that qualitative research main goal is to understand the lived experiences of the persons who share time; space and culture share this notion together. This methodology is ideal for this study as the researcher's goal was to explore the management competencies portrayed by the university management during a time of crisis from the view of the stakeholders. The researcher was searching

for the stakeholders' own perception of what management competencies portrayed during the #FMF crisis.

According to Brynard and Hanekom (1997), qualitative research is research that yields descriptive information, which normally presented respondent's own written or spoken words, and thus the reason for its use in this study was to explore the views or perspectives of the stakeholders towards the management of the university in a time of crisis. Amanda Wilmot (2005) states that qualitative research purpose was to provide an in-depth understanding of the world as seen through the eyes of the respondents. The qualitative part of the data collected gave a more in-depth view of the reasoning behind the ranking as well as the personal perceptions of the respondents who experienced the trials and tribulations of the #FMF crisis.

### **3.6 Population**

Bryman and Bell (2016) defined population as the universe in bonds, like persons, countries, metropolises, districts, organizations etch from which the sample is to be designated. Lunsford and Lunsford (1995) state that a population within the research context is a group which information is sought from. The population of this study includes staff members of the university: academic, administrative/support staff, part-time and full-time, who worked at the university during the #FMF crisis. It is important to note that artisan, security and traffic staff are included under support staff. The Executive Members, Deans of Faculties and Directors of Business Units are excluded from this study. The researcher obtained the total number of the population from a list of staff members that meet the criteria of the study from the Human Resource Department of the university. The total population of the study is 2 149 staff members that met the criteria.

### **3.7 Sample (Sampling)**

The cost involved in studying the entire population of a research study is commonly unaffordable for the researcher in terms of time, money and resources. Lunsford and Lunsford (1995) define sampling as a selection of a subset of a representative of a

given population for research. Yu and Cooper (1983) comment that sampling enables a researcher to make interpretations about the population.

### **3.7.1 Research setting**

The research study aim was to identify and explore the management competencies portrayed by the management of a university during a time of crisis (#FMF) as perceived by the university stakeholders. Taking the above into consideration, it was logical that the study was conducted on one of the universities affected by #FMF. Furthermore, due to financial and time constraints, the researcher focused on one single university within the Western Cape, which was affected by the #FMF. The researcher identified a university within the Western Cape, which was affected by the #FMF that enabled the researcher to identify the management competencies at play as identified by the stakeholder.

### **3.7.2 Probability sampling method**

The study followed a probability sampling method, which allows findings to be generalised from the sample to the population from which the data was collected (Bryman and Bell, 2016).

A further advantage of this method is that every element within the defined population had an equal probability of being included in the sample. According to the list received from the Human Resources Department of the university, 40.7% of the 2 149 staff members of the population were academics, which totaled 876 people, and 59.3% of the population were Administrative/Support staff totaling 1 249 people as presented in Table 3.1.

The sampling method was further sub-divided into stratified random sampling, also called proportional random sampling or quota random sampling. The latter method of sampling involved the division of a population into smaller groups known as strata, in the case of this research project, the identified strata are the Academic Staff and the Administrative/Support staff of the affected university. The researcher distributed the questionnaire to 2149 staff with the use of the two distribution channels.

Table 3.1: Subdivided Strata		
Academic Staff	876	40.7%
Administrative/Support Staff	1273	59.3%
Population	2 149 staff	

### 3.7.3 Sample Frame

DiGaetano (2013) defines a sample frame as normally thought of as a file from which a sample can be drawn. Zikmund et al (2010) who defined a sample frame as a list of fundamentals from which a sample can be selected supported this notion. The sample frame for this study was a list of academic, support and administrative employees, which was affected by the #FMF crisis who have at least one year's working experience with the university in question. The resolution was based on the belief that those employees with less than one year's working experience may not have experienced the #FMF crisis at the university and would not have experienced the university's management competencies at play during the crisis. The resolution was used as the exclusion criterion for this study.

The top-tier management of the university management was excluded from the study, as it will be the management competencies they projected during the crisis that will be investigated. The top tier management of the University included the executive management, the deans of the respective faculties as well as directors of business units within the university. The researcher obtained information from the Human Resource Department of the University, which constitutes a reliable sample frame.

### 3.7.4 Sample Size

The target population of the study included Academic, Administrative/Support staff who are part-time or full-time, permanent or on contract, who has been employed at the university for more than one year. The top tier management of the university management was excluded which included the Executive Management, the Deans of the respective Faculties as well as Directors of Business Units within the University. The total population, which the researcher obtained from the University's Human Resource Department, was 2149 staff members. The sample size was determined as by the process explained in **Table 3.2** below. The table represents the different

samples for a definite population as established by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) from their research. Fowler (2009) states that when calculating the sample size, the researcher must take into consideration the confidence level and sample error to achieve a sample that is representative of the population of the study.

**Table 3.2: Theoretical Sample Sizes (S) for Defined Population Sizes (N) at a 95% Confidence Level with 5% Error.**

N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381

200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	384

**Source:** Krejcie and Morgan (1970): Determining sample size for research

To establish a sample size representative of the staff of the University that met the criteria as set out by the researcher, the researcher obtained the necessary information on the total number of a staff meeting the criteria, which was 2 149 in total. Applying the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) formula and table, the sample size was established to be 326 staff members. The sample of 326 was selected from a population of 2 149, in line with a high confidence level of 95% and a minimum sample error of 5% as reflected in Table 3.3. Therefore, the sample of 326 is representative of the characteristics of the defined population of 2149 university staff members as of 28 July 2017.

<b>Table 3.3: Sample Size</b>	
Population (N)	Sample Size (S)
50	44
100	79
200	132
500	217
1000	278
2000	322
2149	326
5000	357
10000	370
Source: (Krejcie and Morgan, 1970)	

### **3.8 Procedure**

Research protocol prescribes that prior to any research to be undertaken; permission must be requested by submitting the research proposal to the Higher Degrees Committee of the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences at the University of the Western Cape in compliance with the Master's degree requirements.

A second step before the data collection process can commence was to obtain ethical clearance from the University of the Western Cape.

The final step before research commenced on the campus of the university identified for this study, the researcher had to request approval from the Registrar of the University.

After the prescribed approval was obtained, the researcher requested a list of all staff, which included Academic, Administrative or Support Staff, full-time and part-time staff, who have been employed at the university for more than one year. Due to the sensitive nature of the information requested from the university, e.g. staff e-mail addresses, the researcher liaised with the Deputy Registrar: Student Administration to ensure that the information obtained remained secure. This process further ensured and guaranteed the safety and protection of the participants during the research process.



### **3.9 Instrument**

As this is an exploratory study, no instrument was replicated to test the perceptions of stakeholders with regard to management competencies in a time of crisis. The researcher made use of a self-administered questionnaire with closed and open-ended questions. The questionnaire was distributed via two distribution channels; one via an online questionnaire aimed at all the staff who has access to e-mail as part of their daily duties, and the second was a hard copy of the questionnaire, specially created to test the views of the artisan, security, and traffic staff contingency as well.

The following section describes the questionnaire and its function in detail and discusses the concept of trustworthiness in relation to this study.



### 3.9.1 Piloting of questionnaire

This process provided the researcher the opportunity to detect possible flaws in the measurement procedures, to identify clear or unambiguously formulated items (Welman and Kruger, 2000) and rephrase questions to obtain better quality data from the respondents (Boynton, 2004).

The pilot of the questionnaire was distributed to twelve randomly selected staff members of the university before distributing the questionnaire to the sample. Within the sampling section, the researcher identified that all staff, Academic and Administrative or Support Staff, permanent or contract, working for the university for more than a year were the target participants for this study but excluded the Executive Management, Deans of Faculties and Directors of Business Units within the university. The twelve randomly selected staff members consisted of six Academics and six Administrative/Support Staff members. The reasoning behind the distribution of the pilot questionnaire to academic and administrative/support staff members from the two categories was to establish if the questionnaire is clear and understandable to staff members on different levels.

The questionnaire was e-mailed to the selected staff members with a cover e-mail, accompanied by a copy of the consent form, information sheet and official letter from the university giving permission to conduct the research on the university. The staff members were requested to give feedback on the questionnaire, especially asking whether the questions were understood, whether it was easy to complete and how long it took to complete the questionnaire. From the twelve randomly selected staff members, eight responded to the request. Below is a breakdown of the biographic information of the pilot respondents is presented in Table 3.4.

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Race</b>	<b>Age Group</b>	<b>Highest Qualification</b>	<b>Years working at University</b>	<b>Category staff</b>	<b>Employment Status</b>
4= Male	7= Coloured	2=31-40	2 = PhD	1= 1-5 years	5=Admin/ Support	7= Perm
4= Female	1= African	4=41-50	2= Masters	3= 6-9 years	3=Academics	1= Contract

		2=51-60	1= Honours 3=National Diploma	2-10-14 years 2=15-19 years		
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All the respondents commented that they understood the various questions and could answer all the questions. A general concern from the respondents was that the questions under Section B were too long and if possible to shorten the questions and to rank the answers automatically within the questionnaire. The advice from the pilot study was incorporated and numerous questions were shortened within the final questionnaire.

### 3.9.2 The Questionnaire

In a qualitative study, any number of approaches can be adopted when collecting data, including interviews with semi-structured and unstructured questions, participant observation and questionnaires (Ryan, *et al.*, 2007). The study opted for a self-administered web-based questionnaire with open-ended questions. Marshall (2005) points out that questionnaires have the potential to yield good response rate, high-quality data and provide anonymity to respondents that lead to more authentic and forthright responses, which in turn reduce bias. Marshall further stated that the use of open-ended questions assists the researcher in seeking narrative, qualitative information. Dawson (2002) who stated that with open-ended questionnaires, the questionnaire does not contain a tick box but make use of blank spaces for the respondent to write an answer in his own words from his own perspective further motivated this notion.

Self-administered questionnaires encourage respondents to give considered, frank answers without pressure to impress the person administering the questionnaire. Another reason is its ability to collect a large amount of data in a short period of time (Powell, 1999: 91). The researcher used a web-based questionnaire, as web-based questionnaires are questionnaires that are physically created on a website and saved on a server. Participants were sent a website link to the questionnaire and requested to complete the questionnaire on the website (Hoonakker and Carayon, 2009). The

confidentiality of the participants was further ensured, as no questions require the participants to enter any personal detail. The hard copies of the questionnaire were distributed through the office of the Deputy Registrar: Student Administration where the hard copies plus collection boxes were placed at service departments and participants was instructed to complete the questionnaire and drop the completed questionnaire in the collection boxes before the due date.

### **3.9.2.1 Questionnaire Design**

The questionnaire has three sections and sixteen questions in total. The main goal of the questionnaires was to gather data that answer the research questions identified in the previous chapter. (See Appendix C for questionnaire)

The first section of the questionnaire was developed to ascertain whether the participants had read the information sheet and the consent form e-mailed to them with the link to the online questionnaire, or with regard to the hard copy, the information sheet, and consent form was attached. This was an important part as the participant cannot complete the questionnaire without answering yes to this question, which in turn establishes that the participant acknowledges that he/she has read the information sheet and consent form and formally gave consent to participate in this research study.

The main goal of the second section was to collect biographical information of the respondents such as gender, race, age, qualifications, years of employment at the university, and staff category and employment status.

The third and final section of the questionnaire focuses on the following research questions:

- What are the management competencies during times of crisis from a stakeholder`s perspective?
- What management competencies must the management of the university demonstrate during the #FMF crisis from a stakeholder`s perspective?
- What management competencies were absent from university management during the #FMF crisis from a stakeholder`s perspective and why?

### 3.9.2.2 Trustworthiness

The study focussed on qualitative and quantitative data, but the focus of this study was more on the qualitative aspects of the study. Researchers have advocated qualitative research should not be assessed using the same measures as within quantitative research. *“Applying reliability and validity standards to qualitative research presupposed that one single account is feasible and that the social scientist is able to reveal absolute truths about the social world”* (Bryman and Bell, 2016, p 363). Bryman and Bell (2016) further support their statement above by citing Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Guba and Lincoln (1994) who suggest in their research that trustworthiness is a viable criterion to judge qualitative research.

Trustworthiness is made up of four criteria:

- Credibility – Bryman and Bell (2016) state that to establish credibility, the researcher must ensure that the research study is carried out according to the ‘*canons of good practice*’ and to submit the findings to the people who were studied to confirm that the investigator has correctly understood their social world. This technique is called respondent validation, but the researcher has opted to use triangulation to crosscheck the findings of this research study. Triangulation, according to Bryman and Bell (2016), is the process of using more than one method of data collection to crosscheck the findings of the phenomena being researched. To establish triangulation, the researcher consulted literature and compiled a thorough literature review of the various aspects of the research study. The researcher then piloted the instrument before distributing the instrument to the population, and the data received from the pilot was consistent with the data received from the main data collection tool. Further factors for triangulation was the fact that the data collection tool was distributed to the population in two different ways. Firstly, the questionnaire was e-mailed via the office of the Deputy Registrar: Student Administration to the population, and secondly as hard copies, which were distributed, with the approval of the Deputy Registrar: Student Administration, to staff who do not have e-mail facilities. The data received from the e-mailed responses and the hard copy responses were again consistent.

- Transferability – Transferability (fittingness) refers to whether or not findings can be applied outside the context of the study situation. When critiquing qualitative research, a study can be deemed to have met the criterion of transferability when the findings can 'fit' into other contexts and readers can apply the findings to their own experiences. Transferability is also enhanced when the results are meaningful to individuals not involved in the research study. This study set out to investigate the perceptions about management competencies that were employed by the management of a university in the Western Cape during normal business operations and during the #FMM crisis. The #FMM crisis affected all of the HEI within South Africa. Universities all over the world are affected by student protests and thus the findings of this study, although applied to the one university within the Western Cape, can be applied to other Universities who have been affected by student protests actions or have dealt with major crises that affected normal operational business.
- Dependability - (Ryan, *et al.*, 2007) depict dependability as an essential element of rigour and described the researcher giving the reader(s) satisfactory information to conclude how trustworthy the researcher and the research study are. When an alternative researcher can clearly trail and theoretically reach the same or similar conclusions, deem the study dependable. A research study may be shown to be trustworthy by generating evidence of a decision trail at each stage of the research. It is also necessary for each stage of the research to be traceable and clearly documented. The researcher has documented every step of the research process in detail, from the research design process which is categorised into the following sections: objectives of the study, research questions, background to the study, research design, population, sample (sample technique, sample frame, purposive sampling technique), procedure, instrument (questionnaire, questionnaire design, validity and reliability, pilot of questionnaire), data analysis, ethical considerations and conclusion.
- Confirmability – Confirmability is troubled with guaranteeing that, while recognising that complete objectivity is not possible in social research, the researcher can be shown that he or she did not knowledgeably allow personal values to affect the research. It is concerned with establishing that findings are clearly derived from the data (Tobin and Begley, 2004). Confirmability is usually

established when credibility, transferability, and dependability are achieved. As stated above, complete objectivity is impossible, the researcher ensured confirmability by making use of an external party to analyse the data after the data collection process. The data analyst was given the four objectives identified in the study and asked to analyse the data according to the research objectives. The quantitative data was collated based on the highest frequency for each rank in the top ten. Where a skill was already entered at a higher rank or position, the next highest rank for that position was selected. The qualitative data were grouped into themes, which was led strictly by the responses of the respondents.

### **3.9.3 Data Collection Process**

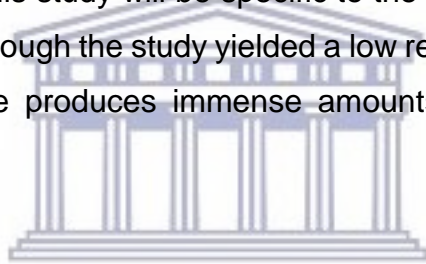
Once the pilot stage of the research was concluded, the feedback from the respondents was incorporated into the new questionnaire. The researcher forwarded an e-mail to the Deputy Registrar: Student Administration, which contained a cover e-mail written by the supervisor and the researcher that informed the staff on the purpose of the study and what was required from staff to complete as well as the main goals of the study. The e-mail also contained the information sheet and consent form, but the first question on the questionnaire clearly asked if the participant had read and understood the above documents and by answering yes to this specific question, it meant that the participant has given written consent.

The Deputy Registrar: Academic Administration e-mailed the online questionnaire and gave permission to distribute the hard copies on 4 September 2017 to all staff who met the population criteria as well as the deadline for submission, which was set for 22 September 2017.

The researcher received only thirty-seven responses to the questionnaire on the deadline day and submitted a second call to the staff on the 26 September 2017 with a deadline set for 13 October 2017.

Following the second deadline the researcher only received a further seven responses. A third and final deadline was set for 31 October 2017 and reaped a final count of 106 questionnaires. From the 106 responses, only 97 were viable, which means where completed and answered all the questions. The Krejcie and Morgan

(1970) formula indicate that a representative sample of the university staff meeting the criteria for this study is 326 staff members. The online and hard copy questionnaire only delivered 97 valid responses, which is a 30 % of the representative sample size as identified by Krejcie and Morgan formula. Nulty (2008) conveyed that the response rate for online surveys average at 33% and is comparable to other modes of administration. The response rate to the questionnaire was only 5%, taking in consideration that 2 149 staff members met the criteria for the study and had equal opportunity to respond to the questionnaire and only 97 valid questionnaires were received after the third deadline. High response rates increase the probability that the respondents accurately represent the sample, thus reducing the chance of response bias. Babbie (2011) concluded that for survey research, in general, there is no consensus on response rates for surveys and recommended that a minimum response rate of 50% sufficed for data collection and generalisation. Considering the above statement, the findings of this study will be specific to the current institution the study has been conducted at. Although the study yielded a low response rate, the qualitative nature of the questionnaire produces immense amounts of data, which could be analysed.



#### **3.9.4 Reasons for Low Response Rate:**

A major contributor to low response rates was the fact that the target population was over-surveyed. Weiner and Dalessio (2006) state that where individuals and firms were bombarded with questionnaires/surveys leads to obvious survey fatigue and refusal to respond to any non-essential questionnaires. During the period that the questionnaire was forwarded to the target staff, several other research surveys were e-mailed to the staff as well. Baruch and Holton (2008) identified numerous reasons given by respondents for not completing a questionnaire, which included not considering the questionnaire as relevant, incorrect e-mail address, and company policy not to complete questionnaires.

Another contributor to the low response rate was the length of the questionnaire. Various researchers (as cited by Sheehan (2001); Herberlien and Baumgartner (1978); Steele, Schwendig and Kilpatrick (1992); Yammarino, Skinner and Childers (1991)) have indicated through their research that the length of the

questionnaire/survey was seen to have a negative influence on mail survey response rates. The longer the questionnaire, the lower the response rate. Due to the qualitative nature of the study, the questionnaire was designed to let the respondents put their perceptions in their own words. The questionnaire contained only sixteen questions and nine of the questions the respondents could just tick the answer.

### **3.10 Data Analysis**

#### **3.10.1 Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA)**

The research study made use of analytical categories to explain and describe social occurrences (Pope, *et al.*, 2000). There are various methods that are used to analyse text data, which include ethnography, grounded theory, phenomenology, and historical research. For the purpose of this study, the researcher opted to use Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA). According to Cavanagh (1997) sighted in Hsieh and Shannon (2005), "*researchers regard content analysis as a flexible method for analysing text data*". Kondracki and Wellman (2002) stated that information might be in oral, photocopy, or electronic form and might have been acquired from historical responses, which could have been open-ended study questions, focus groups or interviews, even articles, books, or manuals. Taking into account that the data collected would be derived from a questionnaire with open-ended questions made QCA the ideal method to analyse the data collected. Weber (1990) added that QCA does not purely tally the words to examine the language intensely for the aim of categorising huge quantities of text into a well-organised quantity of categories that represented comparable meanings.

The categories identified can then represent either inferred communication or explicit communication. The main objective of content analysis as stated by Downe-Wamboldt (1992) is to convey the necessary information and understanding of the phenomenon under review. This statement is supported by Elo and Kyngas (2008) who stated The main objective of content analysis as stated by Downe-Wamboldt (1992) is to convey the necessary information and understanding of the phenomenon under review that *the purpose is to achieve a summarized and comprehensive description of the research subject and the result of the analysis is notions or groupings describing the research subject. Content Analysis can be used in an inductive and deductive way.*



For this study, the researcher used the content analysis in an inductive way, as there was not enough prior knowledge about the phenomenon.

The analysis was guided by the structure of the questionnaire. For example, participants had to provide motivations for their rankings. Thus, the content analysis was a surface level summary of the main reasons provided by participants. Recurring ideas or motivations were summarised and presented in the summative form. In other words, the structure was imposed on the analysis by the questionnaire. The analysis must also talk about quantitative analysis. The analysis used descriptive statistics including ranks, frequencies, and percentages. These strategies are appropriate for summarizing data across the sample.

The quantitative part of the study provided an account of the rank of importance of the management and crisis management competencies from the perception of the stakeholder. The data collected in this regard was collated based on the highest frequency for each rank in the top ten. Where a skill was already entered at a higher rank or position, the next highest rank for that position was selected.

### **3.11 Ethical Consideration**

During this study, the researcher conducted the research study according to the ethical standards prescribed by the University of the Western Cape and the data generated through the questionnaires will remain strictly confidential.

The right to confidentiality and anonymity of the participants was upheld at all times. No names were requested, but the participants' age, gender, relationship status, employment status, and employment category were requested for the purpose of analysis. The questionnaires were secured at all times as the data collected was saved on a server which was username and password protected. Only the researcher had access to the data. The hard copies of the questionnaire were transcribed to electronic format and the data saved on google drive facility only accessible by username and password by the researcher. The hard copies were destroyed.

No degree of deception was used in this research study, as participants were informed of their rights as participants through a disclaimer/information sheet that was emailed with the link to the web-based questionnaire. They were further informed of their rights

to opt not to proceed if they do not feel comfortable assisting in this research. The use of the web-based questionnaire further ensured that the information gathered from participants was safe and only the researcher had access with a username and password security system. The researcher also ensured the participants that the data collected would not be made available to any third parties and that the POPI Act of 2013 clearly states that the information gathered during the research project can only be kept for the purpose it was collected (Bryman *et al.* 2014).

### **3.12 Conclusion**

The aim of this chapter was to present the methodology used to conduct the study. The research method selected was qualitative in nature and used open questions within a self-administered questionnaire as the method of collecting the necessary data. The participants were selected from a university in the Western Cape affected by the #FMF crisis. Only staff members (Academic, Administrative / Support, full-time and part-time) who have worked for more than one year with the university were chosen to participate. The probability sample method was applied. Advice and suggestions from the pilot questionnaire were incorporated into the final questionnaire. A probability method implied that 2 149 members of staff who met the research criteria received the questionnaire. Only 106 questionnaires were received of which only 97 were usable.



Furthermore, the chapter described the development of the questionnaire. Pilot testing was done, and the results shaped the final questionnaire. The analysis of data was done through qualitative content analysis of research questions and categorised data from open-ended questions in the questionnaire. Issues such as sample and ethics were also highlighted in this chapter.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a detailed analysis and a discussion of the main findings. The first section of the chapter presents statistics of the biographical information. The second section will present the data collected from the questionnaire in relation to the four objectives of the study and a detailed discussion of the findings.

#### 4.2 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are summarised in graphics, frequencies, and percentages below.

##### 4.2.1 Results of the Biographical Section of the Questionnaire

This section presents descriptive statistics of the biographical information of the self-administered web-based questionnaire, as well as the hard copy questionnaire, namely: gender, race, age group, qualification, years of service, employment status, staff category, and employment category.

Fig 4.1: Gender of Participants

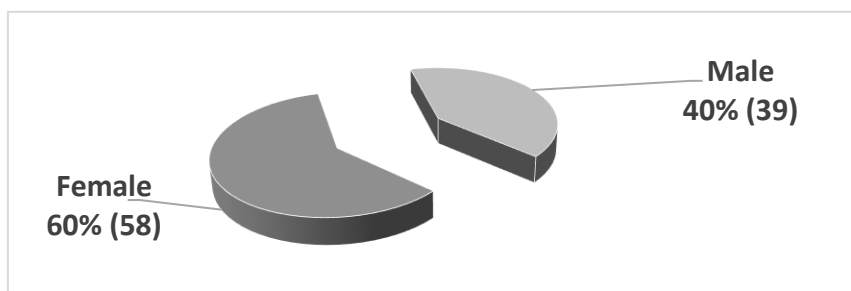
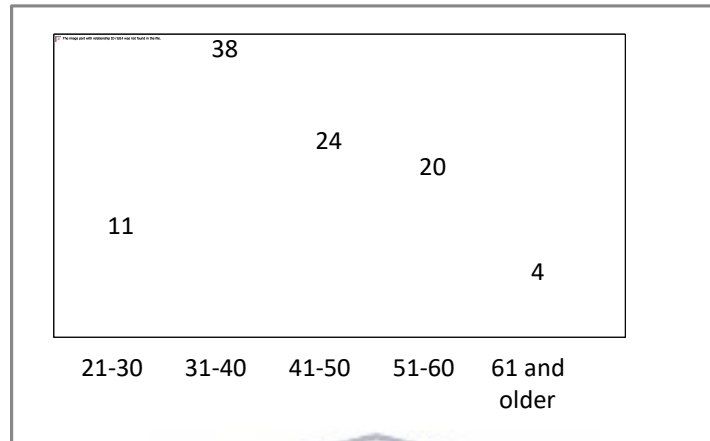


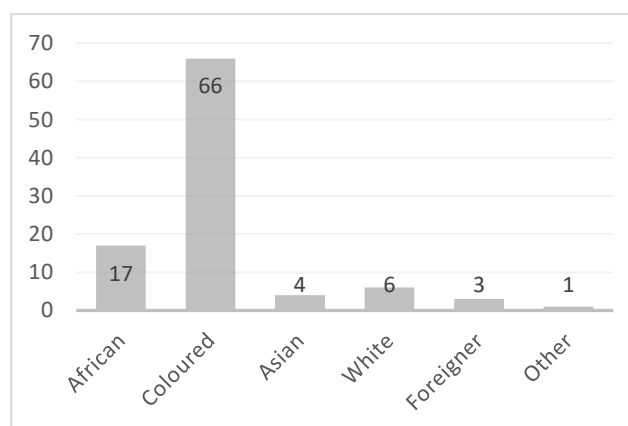
Figure 4.1 revealed that the majority of the 97 participants were female with 60% (n=58), while males follow with 40% (n=39)

Fig 4.2: Age Distribution of Participants



From the above frequency distribution, 39% (n=38) of the participants are in the age group 31-40 years old, followed by 24% (n=24) in the age group 41-50 years old. Furthermore, 20% (n=20) were between 51 and 60 years of age, 11% (n=11) of the respondents were between the age of 21 and 30 years old and 4% (n=4) were above 61 years of age.

Fig. 4.3 Population Group of Participants



The above figure indicated that 68% (n=66) of the respondents were Coloured, 17.5% (n=17) were Black/African, 6% (n=6) were White while 4% (n=4) were Indian/Asian

and 3% (n=3) were foreigners. Nonetheless, 1% (n=1) indicated that they do not fall in any of the indicated groups and did not indicate which race they do belong to.

Fig 4.4: Education Level of Participants



Figure 4.4 revealed that a greater percentage of the participants have Honours degrees, 29% (n=28), while 10.3% (n=10) have Masters and Doctoral degrees, and the lowest percentage was for the Postgraduate Diploma and Professional Degrees at 1% (n=1).

Fig 4.5: Staff Categories

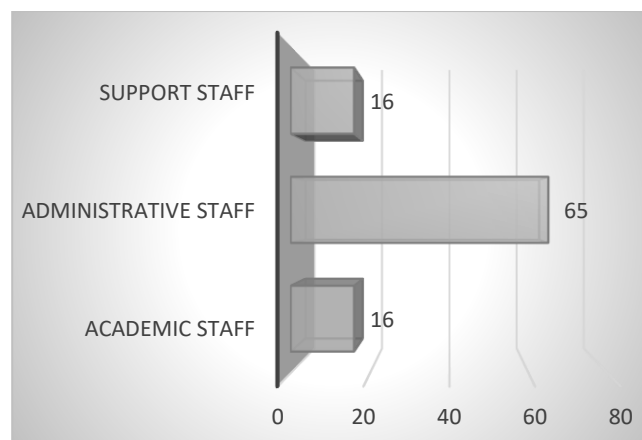


Figure 4.5 indicated that 67% (n=65) of the respondents are Administrative staff, 16.5 % (n=16) are Academic and a further 16.5% (n=16) are Support Staff.

Fig 4.6: Years Employed at the University



Figure 4.6 revealed that the majority of the participants 31% (n=31) have worked at the university between six and nine years, followed by 28% (n=28) between one and five years. Furthermore, sixteen participants (16.5) indicated that they have worked at the university between ten and fourteen years, seven participants (7%) between fifteen and nineteen years, two participants between (2%) twenty and twenty-four years, another seven participants (7%) between twenty-five and twenty-nine years and six participants (6) indicated that they have worked at the university for more than thirty years.

Figure 4.7 Employment Category

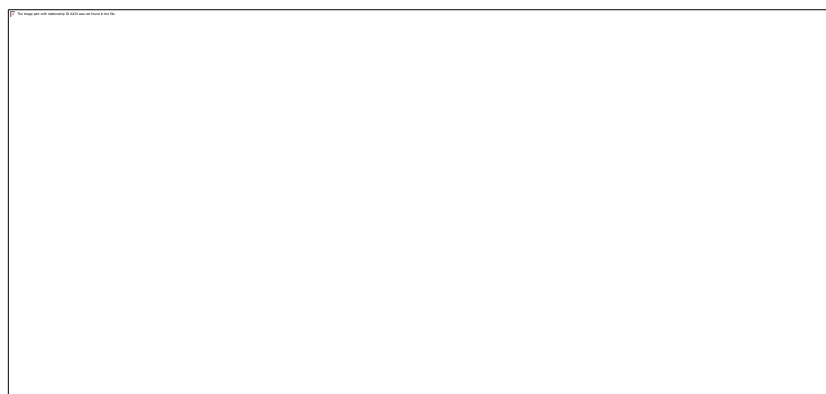


Figure 4.7 indicated that of the 97 respondents, 85.6% (n=83) are permanently employed at the university while 14.4% (n=14) are employed on contract.

Figure 4.8. Employment Status

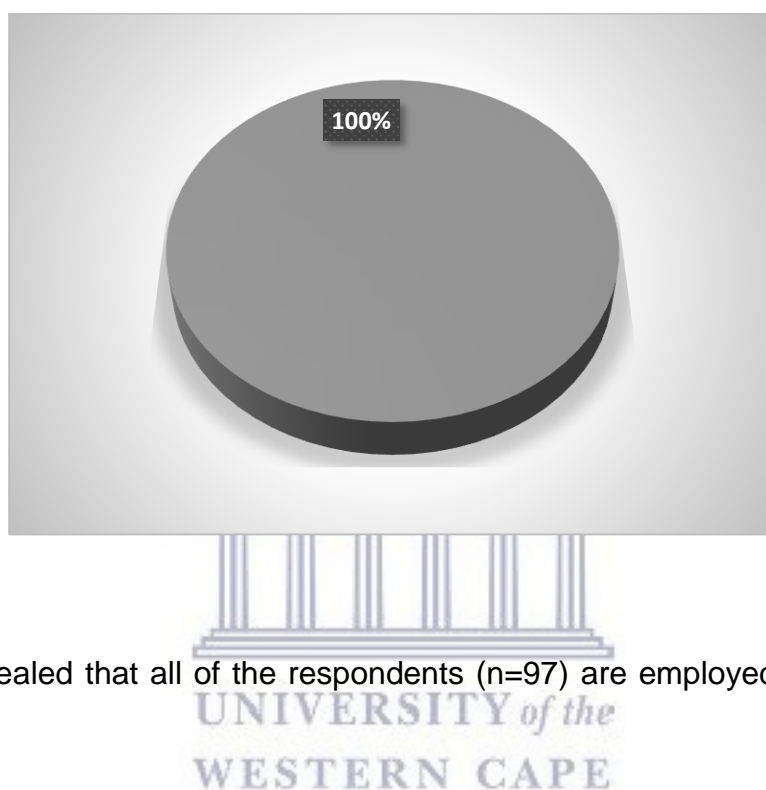


Figure 4.8 revealed that all of the respondents (n=97) are employed full-time at the university.

The data collected from the questionnaires indicate that the typical respondent is a coloured female, between the ages of 31 – 40 years old, employed on a full-time/permanent basis as an Administrative staff member with six to nine years working experience, and had completed an Honours degree. Considering the above information, one can derive that the data received from the questionnaire came from staff members who are experienced, educated and understand the workings of a higher education institution. The second prominent group of respondents is that of employees with one to five years working experience, which gives interesting perspectives of employees new to higher education institutions and those starting a career within tertiary education, who raise their concerns of the sector within the responses of the questionnaires.

### 4.3 Findings and Discussions

#### 4.3.1 Objective One - *To determine the management competency needed by university management during a time of crisis from a stakeholder`s perspective.*

Results of management competencies

<b>Table 4.1: Top Ten Managerial Competencies</b>		
<b>Ranked</b>	<b>Management Competencies</b>	<b>Respondent's feedback</b>
1	Leadership skills	<p>"Lead by example and strategy"</p> <p>"In order for the institution to implement its operational goals it needs leadership skills to motivate and direct the energies into the same direction to achieve the goals."</p> <p>"Person must instinctively be able to be assertive in leading."</p> <p>"Need to take people with you. Can't do it alone and academia is a collegial project."</p> <p>"Person has to practice what they preach."</p>
2	Interpersonal skills	<p>"Should have interpersonal skills if managing staff to achieve the desired goals."</p> <p>"Management must be able to deal with staff."</p> <p>"Must be able to relate to staff in a manner that is suitable to each staff member"</p> <p>"They need to lead by getting the team to buy into their direction."</p> <p>"Must be approachable"</p>
3	Good communicator	<p>"Communication is key - no communication then no one knows what is expected of them."</p> <p>"Good communicator: if you do not know how to address staff and communicate effectively everything else lacks."</p> <p>"Clear communication is the start to any interaction."</p>



		<p>“Communication is vital in any company.”</p> <p>“Effective communication causes productivity to increase, errors to decrease and operations to run smooth.”</p>
4	Dependable/trustworthy	<p>“No one can work with someone they cannot depend on.”</p> <p>“Again within today's corrupt business and political world.”</p> <p>“Staff likes someone that they can trust.”</p> <p>“Management must ensure that there is close collaboration to achieve the best results.”</p> <p>“Staff must be able to trust the leader to follow him/her.”</p>
5	Integrity	<p>“Morals and standards must be rock solid.”</p> <p>“Manager must have integrity and be truthful.”</p> <p>“This is perhaps the most important principle of leadership and dependent on integrity because it demands truthfulness and honesty. Many companies and organizations fail because they don't follow the reality principle.”</p> <p>“Must conduct him/herself in an ethical manner.”</p> <p>“Must be able to trust management and by having integrity means that staff can trust in management.”</p>
6	Problem solver	<p>“Management should solve all problems.”</p> <p>“In order to move forward and not allow problems to escalate.”</p> <p>“Management should be able to scrutinize and work through details of a problem to reach a solution.”</p> <p>“Must be able to solve tricky problems diplomatically.”</p> <p>“All leaders must know how to solve problems for their team and company. Your number one goal as a leader is to solve a problem in the best interest of both the company and employee. Turning problems around for an employee can also inspire loyalty and retention.”</p>

7	Quality focused	<p>"Its approach is focused on exceeding customers' expectations."</p> <p>"We should all do our very best in whatever we do."</p> <p>"Management to improve output in order to satisfy the customer needs and make the product or service do what they supposed to do."</p> <p>"We produce quality students who are intelligent and present positively."</p> <p>"Must focus on quality."</p>
8	Results oriented	<p>"Must focus on results to keep stakeholders happy."</p> <p>"It doesn't always matter how you do things, as long as the desired outcome is reached - combines with innovation."</p> <p>"Means management actually achieve goals."</p> <p>"Of course a leader must work towards achieving goals."</p> <p>"Must strive for positive results."</p>
9	Staff developer	<p>"It is important for management to develop their staff."</p> <p>"Developing staff means continuous improvement for the business."</p> <p>"Develop staff which improved quality service, understanding of purpose/rules etc."</p> <p>"Take peoples growth into account."</p> <p>"Developing skills and attributes within the current staff shows management values staff and believes in the possibilities that staff can achieve"</p>
10	Team worker	<p>"The manager must work as a collective with his employees to gain trust and efficiency."</p> <p>"Must be able to work in teams, management should be able to engage with everyone."</p>

		<p>“Work as a team to meet goals.”</p> <p>“Focus on teamwork to achieve goals.”</p> <p>“Business does not run on the achievements of one individual but on the collaboration of various staff members, thus teamwork is essential.”</p>
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The table above was collated based on the highest frequency for each rank in the top ten. Where a skill was already entered at a higher rank or position, the next highest rank for that position was selected. To pursue the answers for objective one, respondents were asked to identify what are the most important competencies for a manager to possess in a time of normality. The management competencies were ranked according to the importance as perceived by the respondents and a list of the top ten management competencies was identified. The final column consists of the actual respondent’s reasons for deciding on a rank of a competency.

Below is a summary of the respondent’s responses.

### 1. Leadership skills

Participants identified important leadership skills in a number of areas. Managers and leaders should lead by example to other staff members, and inspire, motivate and give direction to staff to work towards organisational goals. It was mentioned that focus on attaining such goals would facilitate change and promote growth. Good leaders also support and coach staff.

### 2. Interpersonal skills

Interpersonal skills were identified as important for dealing with diverse populations and at all staff levels. Being able to communicate effectively with staff and customers is seen as vital for achieving company goals and success. An emphasis was placed on treating all individuals with respect and professionalism, enabling diplomatic conflict resolution.

### 3. Good communicator

Participants identified that clear and open communication is important to avoid confusion or misunderstanding. Problems arise when there is a lack of understanding.

Staff at all levels need to have open communication from managers to know what is expected of them to achieve goals. Open communication also involves communication from both parties, and managers need to respond to questions and concerns raised by staff.

#### 4. Dependable/trustworthy

Participants highlighted that leaders need to be trusted with sensitive information, and to maintain confidentiality. Staff expects managers to make informed decisions, and act on decisions reliably. Staff is not able to trust or depend on managers who cannot make decisions, or change their minds regularly. Managers who make promises or claims should follow-through on their word. These qualities allow staff to trust management to lead them towards success.

#### 5. Integrity

Managers who adhere to strong moral and ethical principles were valued among participants. If managers behave ethically and treat all staff and clientele in a fair and just manner, staff are more likely to trust them and the decisions or rules made.

#### 6. Problem solver

An important trait expected in management is the ability to come up with sustainable solutions to problems, which will escalate and prevent further issues. Participants noted that disputes and complaints encountered by staff and students, need to be handled diplomatically and in a fair manner that benefits all parties.

#### 7. Quality focused

Organisations are judged on the quality of goods/services provided. Producing high-quality goods/services creates a good impression/reputation and allows the organisation to gain status. High-quality outputs also attract customers and keep customers happy long term. Managers should encourage staff to push for the highest quality outputs and produce high standards of work in order for growth to occur.

#### 8. Results oriented

The primary purpose of an organisation is to achieve results. Leaders should focus on attainable and realistic goals, set targets for staff, motivate and push staff to bring

about the desired results. Meeting deadlines and achieving results will keep both staff and customers happy.

#### 9. Staff developer

Participants emphasised that management should value individuals already within the organisation and develop their skills to meet demands. Participants were very negative about looking outside the company for new staff or recruiting. Developing the skills of staff will ensure productivity, and ultimately better service delivery outputs. Enabling staff to grow within the organisation benefits both the staff and the organisation. Participants indicated that management should encourage staff to develop themselves through offering workshops, short courses or training. Empowering staff to grow will make them feel more valued and loyal to the organisation.

#### 10. Team worker

Participants noted that a manager is a part of the team and must be able to work in synergy. Emphasis was placed on managers not being separated from or 'above' other staff members. Participants also indicated that responsibility should be shared. Management should encourage staff members to work together towards a common goal and help each other. Management must be involved with staff at all levels to improve communication, as well as sharing of suggestions and ideas.

**Table 4.2: Top Ten Crisis Management Competencies**

Ranked	Crisis Management Competencies	Respondent's feedback
1	Leadership skills	<p>"Strong leadership is needed during tough times like a crisis."</p> <p>"In dealing with students one must be able to show that you are a leader in the position you are holding."</p> <p>"Must lead by example and show no fear or favour."</p> <p>"Management must lead effectively; provide sufficient support for staff to complete their work on campus and off campus."</p> <p>"Stressful time so lead by example."</p>

2	Problem solver	<p>“Management must be able to solve problems especially during a time of crisis.”</p> <p>“Management must actively work towards solving problems that may impact the organisation negatively.”</p> <p>“Management must work with staff and students to solve problems.”</p> <p>“Problem-solving is important because of space and resources.”</p> <p>“Must solve any kind of problem that causes the crisis.”</p>
3	Safety conscious	<p>“Safety is always important but taking into consideration the damage caused by #FMF management must make it a priority.”</p> <p>“Management should ensure that the safety of their staff is met during crisis times.” “Safety will result in workers working well under pressure and in crises.”</p> <p>“Staff should be a priority.”</p> <p>“Health and safety of staff and customers are of key concern.”</p>
4	Good communicator	<p>“During #FMF incidents, management needs to communicate effectively.” “Communication is vital as everyone wants to know what is going on and what to do.” “Sharing information is crucial in crisis time.”</p> <p>“Staff wants to know what is going on and where they stand and that’s why communication is important.”</p> <p>“Less ambiguity during this phase is key.”</p>
5	Integrity	<p>“Never take advantage of poor students.” “Moral and ethical values must form the basis on which decisions are made.” “Moral and ethical values must form the basis on which decisions are made.”</p> <p>“Crucial in order to gain respect, especially in times of a crisis.”</p> <p>“People need someone to trust and be consistent.”</p>
6	Purposeful	<p>“Working with a common goal is key to managing through a crisis.”</p> <p>“Must have a purpose and goal to achieve in crises.”</p>

		<p>“Management should be determined to resolve issues in order to avoid more damages that strikers may do by making awareness and finding out the purpose of keeping the fees be paid.”</p> <p>“Management must realize there is a difference between responding from a purposeful position versus a fearful position during a crisis situation.”</p> <p>“Yes, the purpose for solving crises is there but management should work more with clients in doing so to meet the common goal.”</p>
7	Flexible/adaptable	<p>“Management should be flexible with staff when needed.”</p> <p>“Management must be flexible and adaptable during the time of crisis.”</p> <p>“Flexibility allows the business to adopt new strategies during a crisis.”</p> <p>“During the crises, it is a must to have a leader that is open-minded to come up with different solutions.”</p> <p>“Be able to change with every situation and be able to think on their feet and not get flustered.”</p>
8	Customer focus	<p>“Management must ensure they focus on their customers.”</p> <p>“Consider the impact of decisions/situations on students, both protesting and non-protesting.”</p> <p>“Happy customer/unhappy customer will give you accurate thoughts on products.”</p> <p>“Must keep customers happy during crisis time to ensure their business.”</p> <p>“Management should consider what their consumer needs and try to listen to the complaint /request.”</p>

		“Customer satisfaction is important however management must decide which customer must be satisfied e.g. #FMF or rest of campus.”
9	Results oriented	<p>“Must have resulted in mind.”</p> <p>“Management must be results oriented in order to find solutions to the crisis.”</p> <p>“Need to still keep the focus on results that will affect business.”</p> <p>“Management to make sure that results are achieved and make visible achievement easy access to funding to those in need.”</p> <p>“It doesn't always matter how you do things, as long as the desired outcome is reached”</p>
10	Time manager	<p>“Time is also a critical factor as it ensures that the whole supply chain is efficient.”</p> <p>“Time managed properly will result in more work produced, no time wasting.”</p> <p>“Timing and planning for every situation are crucial.”</p> <p>“Setting deadlines and managing time is going to be crucial.”</p> <p>“Disruptions in normal duties require time management.”</p>

The above table was collated based on the highest frequency for each rank in the top ten. Where a skill was already entered at a higher rank or position, the next highest rank for that position was selected. A second question was raised and requested respondents to identify the most important competencies for a manager to possess during a time of crisis. The respondents also gave reasons for their ranking preference. Five competencies were ranked under both conditions, which were: leadership skills, good communicator, integrity, problem solver and results orientated.



### 4.3.1 Discussion on Objective One Results

Leadership skills were identified by the respondents of this study as the most important crisis management competencies to possess in a time of crisis and this is consistent with the literature (Mikusiva and Copikova (2016), and Herera (2011). Kielkowski (2013) stated that managers are anticipated to communicate strategies with staff and that leaders must direct the company through preparation and training with the understanding that a crisis is doubtful to go as planned and may require flexibility in response. He further stated that managers must lead the decision-making procedure while continuously considering other possibilities. The effective management of a crisis is reliant on the management behavior that inspires members to actively participate in knowledge attainment and the design of strategies to resolve the crisis as proclaimed by Dutton and Jackson (1987 and Wooten and James (2004. The respondents identify leadership as the most important of all crisis management competencies to possess as they understand the need for strong leadership skills for “*solutions, guidance, and direction*” especially during a time of crisis when day-to-day operations are interrupted.

Decisions that have significant consequences must be made quickly in what is typically strategies, and crisis response. (Kielkowski, 2013) stated that having a leadership team active during a crisis provided the benefit of having many eyes to identify any issues as well as each member of the leadership team bringing unique skills set. “The participation of top managers is unconditionally essential for the evolving of systematic strategy in crisis management and convincing others in the organisation to co-operate as stated by Pauchant and Mitroff (1992) This statement is supported by (Jaques, 2012) who stated that the role of Chief Executive Officer or Managing Director is a key player in setting and driving crisis leadership. Current literature surely supports the fact that leadership skills are the most important crisis management skill to possess.

Mikusiva and Copikova (2016) identified within their research that being able to solve problems is a crucial competency needed by crisis managers and ranked in the top cluster of competencies within their research. Participants of the study agreed with Mikusiva and Copikova and used phrases like “require managers to *think and act quickly* during times of crises”, as well as “managers should also be able to *identify problems* before they escalate and come up with *viable solutions* to prevent further

*complications or negative outcomes*". Respondents identified the need to fix what is broken as quickly as possible and get back to business as usual.

According to Cox and Flin(1998) management obligation, management action, the priority of safety, communication and employee participation emerged as the most important areas perceived to influence organizational safety culture. Taking into account the violent nature of the #FMF movement, and the incredible destruction of university property with fire, the respondents emphasised the importance of staff and student safety during a time of crisis. Respondents stated that they "*expect leaders to prioritise the safety of all staff and students on campus during the crisis*" but also felt that "*safety should be most important to management during the crisis*" and further stated, "*management should inform all involved of the potential dangers by implementing safety strategies or protocols*".

Mikusiva and Copikova (2016) and King (2002) confirmed that a worthy crisis manager must have good communication skills and be creative. Seeger (2016) stated that the main objectives of crisis communication were to reduce and contain harm, limit damage to the company, business or organisation's reputation, avoid responsibility, prioritise re-establishing public order while the community and stakeholders may highlight being informed, protected, and even reimbursed during the post-crises phase.

Hyman *et al*, (1990) agreed that personal integrity and the capability to participate in ethical decision-making and behaviour are the basis for organisational integrity and trust. (Wooten and James, 2008) added to that statement by revealing that trust is predominantly essential following a crisis and that shareholders perceive that a business is at fault for a crisis, for example, shareholders often experience that as unfaithfulness". Wooten and James (2008) further indicated that it is vital that the leadership of a business act with integrity rebuild trust with its stakeholders.

Throughout all the competencies identified by the respondents, purposeful has been linked with several of the competencies identified by the respondents of this study. Respondents stated that to address the crisis, "*management needs to have clear and shared goals, with plans and procedures in place to achieve these goals*". The above reasoning for the respondents' decision to rank purposeful incorporates the

leadership, problem-solving as well as decision-making competencies. The above just highlights the importance of decisiveness, purposefulness and focussed approach during a time of crises. As stated by the respondents, that during a time crisis, time is crucial, and purposefulness is key to returning to a time of normality.

Roche *et al*, (2013) stated that crisis management needs adaptability. Adaptability has been identified as a key teamwork competency (Rousseau *et al.*, 2006; Salas, Sims and Burke, 2005 cited in Jobidon *et al* (2013). Jobidon *et al* (2013) further state that adaptability and related concepts such as agility, swiftness, and rapidity are progressively noticeable in public safety and military organisations. Organisations or businesses must be able to adapt to a varied variety of conditions in dealing with conditions characterised notably by high risk, time pressure, and uncertainty (established characteristics of a crisis) (Jobidon *et al*, (2013).

Although the competency “focusing on customer” did not rank that high within the study of Mukusiva and Copikova, the respondents of this study ranked it within the top ten crisis management competencies for management to possess during a time of crisis. Although the study did not ask why this competency was ranked but took into consideration that the customers of this business are students, the likely conclusion is that the respondents see the importance of education, the value of attending classes and completed higher education degrees. Ensuring that the customers or students are informed of progress as well as safety aspects are important. Without the customer, the business would come to a halt.

Focussing on results or outputs featured in the top crisis competencies as identified by Mikusiva and Copikova (2016), not only in terms of importance but as well under the significance of the competency. Respondents certainly agreed with this statement as respondents stated that “*management must focus on keeping the business going during crisis times*”, “*management should set realistic and attainable goals for staff*”, “*the ability to produce tangible results in response to realistic goals were considered solutions to the crisis*” as well as “*positive outcomes from the crisis is important*”.

Mikusiva and Copikova (2016) identified time management as one of the must-have competencies for a crisis manager to possess. Respondents noted that time is crucial during a time of crisis. Participants mentioned that managers should not waste vital

time on things that do not matter but focus on what is important to resolve the crisis. Managers should prioritise their actions and be efficient in doing so. Working towards goals and deadlines during the crisis will benefit the company and keep productivity high.

#### 4.3.2 Discussion on Objective Two Results

To determine which management competencies of university management were absent during time of crisis from a stakeholder`s perspective:

The respondents were asked to identify any competencies not portrayed by the management of the university during the #FMF movement.

1. Good communicator
2. Safety conscious
3. Problem solver
4. Innovative
5. Dependable/trustworthy



The above competencies were identified from the list of competencies supplied within the questionnaire. Majority of respondents identified that during the #FMF crisis, the university management did not communicate effectively, and this led to confusion, mistrust and a strong belief that management is incapable of handling the crisis. The management did not project a united front as various messages from different governance structures were publicised and did not echo the same message as the management of the university.

The respondents also felt that the safety of the staff was never a priority, as management would advise staff to return to work, but the management of the university would be safe in their homes. Staff would be placed on the frontlines while management watched from safety.

The following two competencies problem solver and innovative can be joined as management according to the respondents tried any innovative ways to solve the problems or address the issues of the students.

Due to the lack of communication or even the lack of a united front from management, the respondents did not feel that the management could not be trusted or depended on to solve the crisis.

Respondents also identified competencies that were not listed on the questionnaire and emphasised their importance during a crisis.

1. Decision-making – Decisive decision-making is crucial during a time of crisis, as time is of the essence and decision need to be made to respond to the crisis at hand.
2. Planning – One of the main aspects of management is to plan accordingly. Planning for crisis scenarios and setting up contingency plans for any crisis should have been done. The #FMF crisis has shown the inadequate manner in which the management of the university governs. The university was caught off-guard and paid the price for a young and inexperienced management team.
3. Conflict resolution – None of the members of the university management team showed any sign of conflict resolution competencies.
4. Empathy – The management of the university showed no empathy for staff safety, student needs and the empathy to resolve the crisis.

#### **4.3.3 Objective Three**

To explore the presence or absence of management competencies of university management during a time of crisis from a stakeholder`s perspective.

**Table 4.3: Reasons for competencies/skills being absent during #FMF**

<p><b>Theme 1: Being prepared</b></p>	<p>“I strongly think that management wasn't prepared for the #FMF despite it happening for two years at almost the same time. Our management was being reactive in their approach to the protests instead of being responsive, which could have had calmer effects later down the negotiation process.”</p> <p>“Lack/non-existence of an effective documented Crisis Management plan.”</p> <p>“Lack of/non-existent executive Crisis Management training.”</p> <p>“A shortage of time to develop in-house solutions led management to select off the shelf vendor-driven solutions. Money could have been saved if better planning was done beforehand and testing was performed.”</p> <p>“The fees-must-fall caught management unaware and they struggled to manage it.”</p> <p>The business continuity plans were not completely feasible, and the extent of the crisis was not taken into account prior to this occurring.”</p> <p>“Management did not think it would happen, students did not know how to engage with management and resorted to violence as a last resort.”</p> <p>“The type of crisis was the first of its kind experienced. The absence of pre-empting this nature of the problem. Being too sure about the behaviors of the subjects involved (students - #FMF).”</p> <p>“Management did not think of it.”</p>
<p><b>Theme 2: Lack of experience/new management</b></p>	<p>“Lack of experience, within a new management team, not all staff supported executive management and this #FMF was not the only crisis management had to deal with, but with the faction of staff not supporting new management team.”</p> <p>“Lack of experience in crisis management and visionary leadership.”</p> <p>“Lack of experience - no one expected #FMF to be so big, maybe also lack composure during the #FMF period. Management should have taken a stronger stance against rioting students.”</p> <p>“Management team is young and inexperienced.”</p> <p>“Management showed through their actions their inexperience.”</p> <p>“Management was not ready for #FMF and their decisions show their lack of experience.”</p>

<p><b>Theme 3:</b></p> <p><b>Solving problems</b></p>	<p>“As we know, there were constantly more claims coming from the #FMF group, so that indicates that it wasn't really about solving the grievances, there was something else going on and if our management was more responsive they would have a proper analysis done and then developed a calmer handle on this matter!”</p> <p>“It appears as if previous grievances were not dealt with effectively.”</p> <p>“Possibly due to their heavy-handed approach to resolving matters.”</p> <p>“They expected each person/department to find their own resources to complete the program or do what they think is right irrespective of the potential dangers.”</p> <p>“Management should have taken a firmer stance against the rioting students and projected a more solid front.”</p> <p>“Negotiating and Mediating skills: Management appeared to be sending out mixed signals at the best of times. Conflict Resolution: Conflicting situations between staff and students did not have a familiar shape and form – Management was taken by surprise at the best of times and could not effectively plan and therefore could not navigate their way as they would under normal circumstances. Issues of trust presented a major challenge. Tolerance: It was expected of Management to be open-minded and to exercise patience and forbearance at a time that was filled with anxiety and angst. Decisiveness: Management appeared indecisive – decisions fluctuated depending on where and what the crisis mode was they found themselves in.”</p>
<p><b>Subtheme One:</b></p> <p><b>Recognition/ consideration of staff</b></p>	<p>“We were in many instances left alone to find solutions and I find there was very little recognition, Unfortunately, the university must learn to acknowledge and recognize people’s hard work and efforts.”</p> <p>“Complete lack of trust which was completely unwarranted. Staff used personal internet accounts, telephone lines, and printers without compensation even though it was promised. No appreciation for admin staff. Seemed as if academic staff were the only ones who were inconvenienced.”</p> <p>“The manager was more focussed on concluding processes than debriefing staff on how they felt.”</p> <p>“During #FMF management panicked, the focus was on completing the academic year successfully, student (the client) and stopping the #FMF movement. However, failed to focus on their staff. It might be that they failed to understand the importance of every staff member, regardless of the position in which the person is in.”</p> <p>“In my department, no support and no additional guidance was provided. The expectation was still for work to be done the same regardless. Academic staff offered no support to admin staff even though it was a crisis. Lack of understanding.”</p>

<p><b>Theme 4:</b> <b>Leadership</b></p>	<p>“It is mainly due to bureaucratic nature that management had to operate in.”</p> <p>“Lack of strong leadership and lack of processes caused complete chaos with exams (3 sessions!) SDAs etc. Crazy and no thought to how staff was going to deal with these complicated processes.”</p> <p>“Management did not have a united front against #FMF, they allowed the situation to get out of control, they did not act immediately when the students became violent, and I also feel that management should not engage with #FMF at all because of the violence and the way they held the university hostage during #FMF.”</p> <p>“UWC confused between minority and majority rights, stuck in pre-94 mindset and afraid to teach students a valuable lesson to consider others and not to be selfish, to engage in robust debate not to threaten people to get their opinion across. Executive too far removed from reality.”</p> <p>“Politics and management’s soft stance on student riots.”</p> <p>“Decisiveness - The management’s true intentions to nullify the crisis were not clear and adaptation was very slow. 2. Assertiveness - management should have taken a stand against all undemocratic behavior and the minority displaced the majority. 3. Resilience - Management gave in to radical elements at the expense of the majority and it happened twice.”</p>
<p><b>Subtheme Two:</b> <b>Responsibility</b></p>	<p>“They were protecting their integrity and name.”</p> <p>“Management did not want to be held accountable for the damages into the university resources and put staff in danger.”</p> <p>“UWC does not want a bad name publicly. UWC wants to give the impression that this is a safe place. Selfish reasons with hidden agendas. Non-risk takers.”</p> <p>“Leadership was too egotistical / Power struggle.”</p> <p>“Management was not seen on campus, while staff had to come to work and face students and then to be chased away.”</p> <p>“Lack of ownership and fear of risk.”</p> <p>“They don't value it... feeding their own professional ego's.”</p> <p>“Managers acted on their own instinct and knowledge of crisis management and were not equipped to deal with such volatile situations. They were either not informed by higher powers or trying to impress that they are brave and not going to give in to the demands or not safety contentious enough, therefore, putting staff under tremendous pressure and extreme danger.”</p>



<p><b>Theme 5:</b></p> <p><b>Communication with all staff levels</b></p>	<p>“Communication, as well as staff safety, was disregarded.”</p> <p>“Difficult to communicate and reach out to staff.”</p> <p>“Management was aloof and lacked the ability to engage in an open forum with staff.”</p> <p>“Communication needs to be opened for levels.”</p> <p>“There was a lack of trust among the management team which has impacted on delayed of a message to be relayed to the staff on the next step to take. Staff were not well informed on action and provided with counseling after the trauma experience.”</p> <p>“Management and middle management did not listen to subordinates who are working on ground level.”</p> <p>“Did not take advice from staff on the ground, afraid to take major decisions, Executive must stand by their decision.”</p> <p>“The divide between admin staff and academic staff is big and the effect of the decision was more focused on the effect it would have on academia, and not the university as a whole.”</p> <p>“Management SHOULD include the executive of the university as well as the executive of faculties. It seemed that not all faculty deans were party to decision making processes and determining the way forward.”</p>
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### Discussion on Objective Three Results

**Theme 1** indicated that the stakeholders did not believe that the university management was ready for the crisis of this magnitude and clearly did not have any contingency plans to deal with the ramifications of the #FMF. Kielkowski (2013) stated that the advantage of having a leadership team in place during a corporate crisis is having many eyes on the process to identify concerns. Garcia (2006) revealed that if the leadership team is not equipped to manage the crisis, negative long-term consequences could affect the firm’s profitability, reputation, market position, and human resource management systems. Taking into consideration what Garcia stated, and the respondents’ reasoning, it is clear that the management of the university was caught unaware and thus responded to the crisis from an unplanned and uninformed reactive position.

**Theme Two** emphasises the lack of experience by the management of the university and the fact that the Executive Management team was new to the university. Mikusiva

and Copikova (2016) came to the defense of the management of the university and stated that competencies of crisis managers regularly come from competencies of a general manager that are demanded during a crisis. From data collected, the management team who this study has established as being inexperienced were trying to resolve two crises, the one being the #FMF crisis and the other faction of staff in support of the management team.

**Theme Three** highlights the inability to solve problems. Earlier in this chapter, the importance of solving problems during a crisis has been emphasised. Mikusiva and Copikova (2016) identified within their research that being able to solve problems is a crucial competency needed by crisis managers and ranked in the top cluster of competencies within their research. Solving problems would lead to the end of the crisis and back to business as usual. A reason identified by respondents was the fact that the #FMF leadership constantly made more claims, and thus was not actively involved in trying to resolve the #FMF crisis. Other reasons include heavy-handed tactics from management; focus on completing examinations, mixed messages from management, as well as previous grievances not effectively resolved.

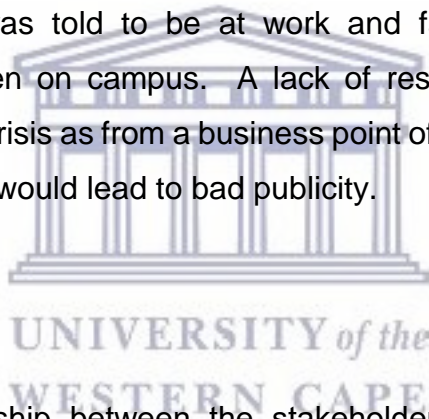
**Theme Four** addressed the lack of strong decisive leadership. Within the finding of objective one, the respondents identified leadership as the most important competency to possess. This is consistent with literature as well. Wooten and James (2008) further indicated that it is vital that the leadership of a business act with integrity rebuild trust with its stakeholders. Staff looks to leadership to communicate, motivate and plan the road ahead during a crisis. Mumford *et al*, (2007) stated that when businesses are caught in a crisis, it requires leadership to guide the business through the crisis period and to ensure the business's survival. Respondents felt that there was no strong leadership and that this competency was lacking from the management of the university. Kielkowski (2013) highlighted that the management of the organisation must lead the business through proper planning and practice with the understanding that a crisis is unlikely to go as planned and may require flexibility.

**Theme Five** focused on the importance of communication, especially focusing on communication with staff. Internal communication is vital, as staff needs to know what

the plan of action is going forward as well as to be informed of any and all progress made during the crisis period. Seeger's (2016) statement about the main objectives of crisis communication highlights the importance of communication. The importance of communication was highlighted earlier in this chapter as the respondents as one of the top ten competencies for management to portray during a crisis period ranked it.

**Sub-theme One** highlights the lack of acknowledgment from management to the staff. Management was focused on completing the academic year and concluding the end of year examination. The staff made use of their own personal resources to ensure that the various processing was completed. The lack of clear communication and trust was evident during the #FMF crisis. The management did not consider their staff in terms of safety, communication, and alternative arrangements during the #FMF crisis.

**Sub-theme Two** brings to emphasises the lack of responsibility from the Management of the university. Staff was told to be at work and face violent protests while management were not seen on campus. A lack of responsibility, which normally follows any organisational crisis as from a business point of view management, did not take any responsibility and would lead to bad publicity.



#### 4.3.4 Objective Four

To determine the relationship between the stakeholders' identified management competencies and the crisis management competencies found in the literature.

<b>Rank</b>	<b>Findings</b>	<b>Responses</b>
1	Leadership skills	<p>"Management must deploy leadership skills during times of crisis."</p> <p>"Crisis times call for strong leaders to lead and manage crisis situations accordingly."</p> <p>"Staff look to leaders during crisis times, these leadership skills are vital."</p>
2	Problem solver	<p>"Must be able to solve problems and avoid future problems."</p> <p>"Management must work actively to solve any and all problems."</p> <p>"Management must be engaged or skilled at solving problems."</p>
3	Safety conscious	<p>"Safety of staff is very important during #FMF."</p>

		<p>“During times of conflict staff and students have confidence that decisions would have taken into account safety and therefore supports the decision with confidence.”</p> <p>“The safety of both staff and clients have to be protected.”</p>
4	Good communicator	<p>“During #FMF incidents, management needs to communicate effectively.”</p> <p>“Communication the most important skills required to solve a crisis.”</p> <p>“Management should communicate with all stakeholders involved in #FMF to avoid protest actions as best as possible.”</p>
5	Integrity	<p>“Management must work within moral and ethical grounds.”</p> <p>“Having high standards and morals is vital during a crisis.”</p> <p>“Must be able to trust management and by having integrity means that staff can trust in management especially during a crisis.”</p>
6	Purposeful	<p>“Working with a common goal is key to managing through a crisis.”</p> <p>“Working towards specific goals during a crisis is vital.”</p> <p>“Focus on wins and outcomes and not waste time.”</p>
7	Flexible/adaptable	<p>“Be able to work under different circumstances and not panic.”</p> <p>“Management must be flexible and adaptable during the time of crisis.”</p> <p>“Flexibility allows the business to adopt new strategies during the crisis.”</p>
8	Customer focus	<p>“Consider the impact of decisions/situations on students, both protesting and non-protesting.”</p> <p>“A happy customer/unhappy customer will give you accurate thoughts on products.”</p> <p>“Management must be focused on meeting the needs of customers.”</p>
9	Results oriented	<p>“Management must be results oriented in order to find solutions to the crisis.”</p> <p>“Management must be focussed on positive results.”</p> <p>“Must strive to complete goals and communicate results to stakeholders.”</p>
10	Time manager	<p>“Response time during a crisis period is vital and “Management must know that every second count.”</p> <p>“Time is also a critical factor as it ensures that the whole supply chain is efficient.”</p> <p>“Time managed properly will result in more work produced, no time wasting.”</p>

Table 4.4 represented the findings of the study regarding Objective Four. The findings were collated based on the highest frequency for each rank in the top ten. The

stakeholders identified the most important management competencies the management of a university must possess during a time of crises. From the findings, eight management competencies identified by stakeholders are consistent with crisis management competencies identified from literature (Mikusiva and Copikova, 2016). *Leadership* ranked as the top competency that management should possess during times of crisis. Smith and Wolverson (2010) state that university leadership often have to balance the various competing interest between stakeholders like students, trustees, donors, government, and the community it serves. This statement supports the findings as the participants quoted in Table 3 motivate the importance of leadership through the responses. *The stakeholders listed problem-solver as the second most important management competency to portray during a time of crisis* as the urgency of correcting the crisis and solving whatever is needed to rectify the situation is vital. Mikusiva and Copikova (2016) stated that *problem-solving* and *leadership skills* are critical when coping and dealing with a crisis. Mikusiva and Copikova further stated that *communication* (identified as the fourth most important management competency in a time of crisis) is a key part in a reactive crisis strategy.

*Communication* considered as a vital part, as the responses from the participants clearly support this statement. *Purposeful*, as identified by the respondents is vital during a time of crisis. *Working together to complete common goals and not waste time is crucial to the respondents. This statement links with the identification of time management as an important competency to possess. Flexible/adaptable is key for organisations or businesses dealing with conditions characterised notably by high risk, time pressure, and uncertainty (established characteristics of a crisis)* (Jobidon et al, 2013). *Customer focus and results-oriented competencies are intertwined, as the customer of this business are students. Students needed to attend classes, write examination and graduate during a time of crisis. Thus, the respondents of the study identified the importance of the above. Time management* was identified as an important management competency by the stakeholders and ranked at number 10. Mikusiva and Copikova (2016) identified time management as a vital competency to possess during a time of crisis. Respondents supported this by stating that during a crisis, time is crucial. Working purposefully together to achieve planned goals are vital. Two management competencies were not consistent with the crisis management competencies identified by literature. The crisis management competencies, which

were used to compare the management competencies identified by the respondents, are focused on SME's and from the viewpoint of SME owners. The stakeholders identified the two management competencies as safety conscious (second most important management competency) and integrity (fifth most important management competency). Their importance can be viewed from a higher education institution viewpoint especially taking into consideration the violent nature of the #FMF protests, and the fact that those involved during times of crises need to rely on management being consistent in their decision-making in order to build trust. Bryman (2007) mentioned that this aspect of leader behavior indicated the need for leaders to be trusted and to be seen as "people of integrity". This statement was supported by leadership literature (e.g. Kouzes and Posner, 1993 cited in Bryman, 2007).

The crisis management competencies identified by the stakeholder are consistent with the crisis management competencies found in the literature (Mikusiva and Copikova, 2016). From the ten competencies identified by the respondents, eight of the competencies are consistent with that literature, the two not consistent are safety conscious and integrity and taking into consideration the violent nature of the #FMF these competencies were identified.

#### **4.4 Conclusion**

This chapter introduced the biographical information captured from the questionnaires as well as the actual responses by the respondents of the questionnaire. The data from the biographical information informs that the responses come from a well-educated, experienced administrator who knows and understands the higher education sector.

This chapter also addresses the research objectives of this study and with the use of the data collected discuss and formulate specific findings for each of the objectives of the study.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The final chapter of the study presents a summary of the findings and highlights the main discoveries of the study, with respect to the four objectives of the study. This section summarises each of the previous chapters and concludes with recommendations.

##### 5.2.1 Chapter One

In this chapter, the problem area and rationale were identified and explained. The main objectives were identified. The reasoning behind the research was established and the research questions that would guide the study were presented. A preliminary literature review was included that explained the main concepts of the research study and gave the reader a brief summary of the competency debate as well as a view into the intricate world of crisis and crisis management. An outline of the research methodology in the context of the main theories in the study was presented as well as a framework of the various chapters.

##### 5.2.2 Chapter Two

A comprehensive literature review was presented that focused on all the concepts of the study. The chapter started with a discourse on the crisis, organisational crises, and crisis management, followed by the origin, growth, and consequences of the #FMF movement, which included a section on the history of the student movement in South Africa. The literature review finally defined management competencies and tackled the debate around competence, competency, and competencies. Within this section, the gap in modern literature was exposed to Management Competencies within Higher Education. The chapter wrapped up by highlighting the importance of stakeholders.

### **5.2.3 Chapter Three**

Chapter Three presented the research methodology. This section highlights the research design, population, sampling, instrument design, validity and reliability, data collection process, data analysis and presented on the ethical standards that were complied with throughout the research study.

### **5.2.4 Chapter Four**

Chapter Four presented the data analysis and presented the results of the data collected during the data collection process. Each of the four objectives identified in Chapter One was addressed and the results were analysed according to the research questions.

### **5.2.5 Chapter Five**

Chapter Five presented an overview of each of the chapters of this research study and gave a synopsis of each chapter. A summary of the results was presented and recommendations for further studies were presented as well as propositions to the Executive Management of the university and other higher Educational institutions in general.

## **5.3 Conclusion**

This study set out to establish what management competencies the management of the university must portray during a time of crisis like the #FMF as perceived by the stakeholders of the university as well as any management competencies which were absent as perceived by the stakeholders.

Excavating deeper into the research question, the researcher identified four research objectives:



- To identify the management competency needed by university management during a time of crisis from a stakeholder perspective;
- To investigate which management competencies of university management were absent during time of crisis from a stakeholder perspective;
- To explore the presence or absence of management competencies of university management during a time of crisis;
- To explain the relationship between the stakeholders' identified management competencies and the crisis management competencies as found in literature from a stakeholder perspective.

The researcher met all of the research objectives and answered the research questions. The study identified a gap in current literature concerning management competencies within the Higher Education Institutions but also highlighted the important competencies perceived by stakeholders during a crisis.

Below follows a summary of each of the results of the four objectives:

### 5.3.1 Objective One

To determine the management competencies needed by university management during a time of crisis from a stakeholder's perspective, the respondents of the study were asked two questions. Firstly, to identify the management competencies needed by university management during a time of normality and secondly to identify the management competencies needed by university management during a time of crisis.

<b>Table 5.1: Top Ten Managerial skills/ attributes vs Top Ten Crises</b>		
<b>Management competency</b>		
<b>Ranked</b>	<b>Management</b>	<b>Crisis Management</b>
1	Leadership skills	Leadership skills
2	Interpersonal skills	Problem solver

3	Good communicator	Safety conscious
4	Dependable/trustworthy	Good communicator
5	Integrity	Integrity
6	Problem solver	Purposeful
7	Quality focused	Flexible/adaptable
8	Results oriented	Customer focus
9	Staff developer	Results oriented
10	Team worker	Time manager

The respondents of the study identified the top ten management competencies as well as top ten crisis management competencies as perceived by stakeholders.

### 5.3.2 Objective Two

Respondents were asked to identify which management competencies of university management were absent during the time of crisis from a stakeholder`s perspective. The respondents identified the following competencies as being absent.

1. Good communicator
2. Safety conscious
3. Problem solver
4. Innovative
5. Dependable/trustworthy
6. Decision-making
7. Planning
8. Conflict management
9. Empathy

### 5.3.3 Objective Three

Within Objective Three, the researcher set out to explore the presence or absence of management competencies of university management during a time of crisis from a stakeholder's perspective. The data collected identified five main themes or categories as well as two subthemes or subcategories, which acknowledged the reasons for the absence of management competencies of university management during a time of crisis as from a stakeholder's perspective.

Main themes	Sub-Themes
Being prepared	Recognition/consideration of staff
Lack of experience/new management	Responsibility
Solving problems	
Leadership	
Communication	

### 5.3.4 Objective Four.

The final objective of this study was to establish the relationship between the stakeholders' identified management competencies and the crisis management competencies found in the literature.

Rank	Findings	Responses
1	Leadership skills	<p>"Management must deploy leadership skills during times of crisis."</p> <p>"Crisis times call for strong leaders to lead and manage crisis situations accordingly."</p> <p>"Staff look to leaders during crisis times, these leadership skills are vital."</p>

2	Problem solver	<p>“Must be able to solve problems and avoid future problems.”</p> <p>“Management must work actively to solve any and all problems.”</p> <p>“Management must be engaged or skilled at solving problems.”</p>
3	Safety conscious	<p>“Safety of staff is very important during #FMF.”</p> <p>“During times of conflict staff and students have confidence that decisions would have taken into account safety and therefore supports the decision with confidence.”</p> <p>“The safety of both staff and clients have to be protected.”</p>
4	Good communicator	<p>“During #FMF incidents, management needs to communicate effectively.”</p> <p>“Communication the most important skill required to solve a crisis.”</p> <p>“Management should communicate with all stakeholders involved in #FMF to avoid protest actions as best as possible.”</p>
5	Integrity	<p>“Management must work within moral and ethical grounds.”</p> <p>“Having high standards and morals is vital during a crisis.”</p> <p>“Must be able to trust management and by having integrity means that staff can trust management especially during a crisis.”</p>
6	Purposeful	<p>“Working with a common goal is key to managing through a crisis.”</p> <p>“Working towards specific goals during a crisis is vital.”</p> <p>“Focus on wins and outcomes and not waste time.”</p>
7	Flexible/adaptable	<p>“Be able to work under different circumstances and not panic.”</p> <p>“Management must be flexible and adaptable during the time of crisis.”</p> <p>“Flexibility allows the business to adopt new strategies during the crisis.”</p>

8	Customer focus	<p>“Consider the impact of decisions/situations on students, both protesting and non-protesting.”</p> <p>“A happy customer/unhappy customer will give you accurate thoughts on products.”</p> <p>“Management must be focused on meeting the needs of customers.”</p>
9	Results oriented	<p>“Management must be results oriented in order to find solutions to the crisis.”</p> <p>“Management must be focussed on positive results.”</p> <p>“Must strive to complete goals and communicate results to stakeholders.”</p>
10	Time manager	<p>“Response time during a crisis period is vital and</p> <p>“Management must know that every second count.”</p> <p>“Time is also a critical factor as it ensures that the whole supply chain is efficient.”</p> <p>“Time managed properly will result in more work produced, no time wasting.”</p>

Table 5.3 represented the findings of the study regarding Objective Four. The findings were collated based on the highest frequency for each rank in the top ten. The stakeholders identified the most important management competencies the management of a university must possess during a time of crises. From the findings, 8 management competencies identified by stakeholders are consistent with crisis management competencies identified from literature (Mikusiva and Copikova, 2016).

#### 5.4 Recommendations

The researcher made use of this section to make recommendations for future research and provided recommendations to the Executive Management of the affected university. Taking into consideration the sample size and that the response rate was very low, the recommendations and finding cannot be generalised and focus solely on the University the research study was conducted at.

#### 5.4.1 Recommendations for Future Research

**Recommendation One:** Taking into consideration that the #FMF movement affected the entire higher education sector in South Africa, it would be interesting to see the findings of replicated studies at other universities within the Western Cape.

**Recommendation Two:** Taking into consideration that the #FMF movement affected the entire higher education sector in South Africa, it would be interesting to see the findings of replicated studies at other universities in South Africa.

**Recommendation Three:** Having established that student unrests are not only found in the South African higher education sector, but it would also be interesting to compare the findings of similar studies at higher education institutions internationally.

**Recommendation Four:** The research established a gap in current literature within the competencies of University Management. Further research into establishing a Higher Education Management Competency model will contribute to the debate.

**Recommendation Five:** The research identified student unrest as a crisis situation taking into account the volatile economic and political environments within South Africa. Future research is needed on all the higher education institutions in South Africa and who used the #FMF crisis to establish crisis management teams or contingency plans for the future.

#### 5.4.2 Specific and Practical Recommendations

The overall findings of this study lead to recommendations pertaining to the institution where the study was conducted and was not meant for the Higher Education Institutions in general.

#### **5.4.2.1 Internal Recommendations**

- As much as the #FMF crisis caught all HEI's off-guard, scenario planning, contingency planning, and crisis management teams should be established to manage future crises in a pro-active manner.
- A key resource in any organisation is its employees. Communication policies and role clarity during a crisis period should be clarified to all employees with appropriate support and training.
- Decisive decision-making and presenting a strong united management front is vital during a crisis period. This not only shows your employees that management is aware and taking responsibility by addressing the various issues but also shows whatever group or crisis management is facing that management are united behind every decision.
- Safety policies and protocol should be addressed to include student unrest as well as evacuation protocols for each safety scenario.
- One of the findings of the study was the fact that the Executive Management of the university was very inexperienced. That being said, the Executive Management of the affected universities have gained valuable experience in dealing with crises. Further crisis management training is needed to ensure that any mistakes that were made during the #FMF crisis are learned from and that corrective measures be put in place.

#### **5.4.2.2 External Recommendations**

- The #FMF crisis was not bound by geographical boundaries and affected all the HEI within South Africa. Setting up contingency plans, scenario-planning and making use of crisis management teams to plan for any and all crisis would be beneficial to any and all HEI.
- The leadership of HEI's should set a united front on any national movement that may affect the functioning of these institution, such as the #FMF.

- Set up crisis management workshops presented and attended by members from various institutions to prepare/assess and analyse various scenarios and plan accordingly for those scenarios.





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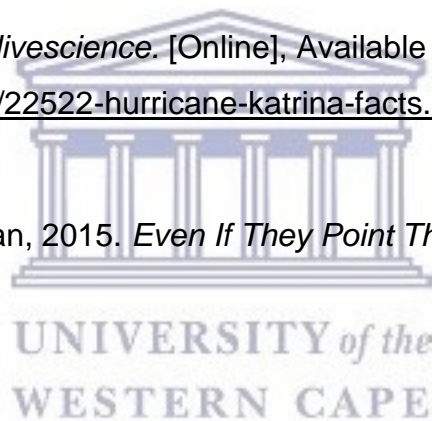
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29 June 2017

Mr CD Pharoah  
School of Business and Finance  
**Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences**

**Ethics Reference Number:** HS17/4/22

**Project Title:** An investigation into what the management competencies are during a time of crisis: A university stakeholder perspective.

**Approval Period:** 29 June 2017 – 29 June 2018

I hereby certify that the Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape approved the methodology and ethics of the above mentioned research project.

Any amendments, extension or other modifications to the protocol must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for approval. Please remember to submit a progress report in good time for annual renewal.

The Committee must be informed of any serious adverse event and/or termination of the study.

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads 'Josias'.

*Ms Patricia Josias  
Research Ethics Committee Officer  
University of the Western Cape*

**PROVISIONAL REC NUMBER - 130416-049**



30 June 2017

**RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE**

**Name of Researcher** : Courtley Pharaoh  
**Research Topic** : An investigation into what the management competencies are during a time of crisis. A University stakeholder perspective  
**Date of issue** : 30/06/2017  
**Reference number** : UWCRP30617CP

As per your request, we acknowledge that you have obtained the necessary permissions and ethics clearances and are welcome to conduct your research as outlined in your proposal and communication with us.

Please note that while we give permission to conduct such research (i.e. interviews and surveys) staff and students at this University are not compelled to participate and may decline to participate should they wish to.

Should you wish to make use of or reference to the University's name, spaces, identity, etc. in any publication/s, you must first furnish the University with a copy of the proposed publication/s so that the University can verify and grant permission for such publication/s to be made publicly available.

Should you require any assistance in conducting your research in regards to access to student contact information please do let us know so that we can facilitate where possible.

Yours sincerely



DR AHMED SHAIKJEE  
DEPUTY REGISTRAR: ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATION  
OFFICE OF THE REGISTRAR

## Management Competency Questionnaire

1. By answering Yes, you confirmed that you have read the consent form and information sheet emailed to you and thus consent to participate in this research study.

- Yes  
 No

### A. Biographical Information

2. Your gender?

- Male  
 Female  
 Other

3. Which race group do you belong to?

- African  
 Asian  
 Coloured  
 White  
 Foreigner  
 Other, if other please state: \_\_\_\_\_

4. Which age group do you fit into?

- 20 and younger  
 21-30  
 31-40  
 41-50  
 51-60  
 61 and older

5. What is your highest qualification?

- Grade 11 and below  
 Grade 12  
 National Certificate (e.g two-year broadly based higher education qualification in a technology discipline offered by an University of Technology, FET College, etc.)  
 National Diploma (e.g standard academic qualification, offered by most further education colleges and universities)  
 Bachelor's Degree (is an undergraduate academic degree awarded by colleges and universities upon completion of a course of study)  
 Honours Degree  
 Masters Degree  
 Doctoral Degree  
 Professional Qualification (CA, CFA etc)  
 Other, if other please state: \_\_\_\_\_



6. How long have you been employed at UWC?

- 1 year to 5 years
- 6 years to 9 years
- 10 years to 14 years
- 15 years to 19 years
- 20 years to 24 years
- 25 years to 29 years
- 30 years and above

7. What is your employment status?

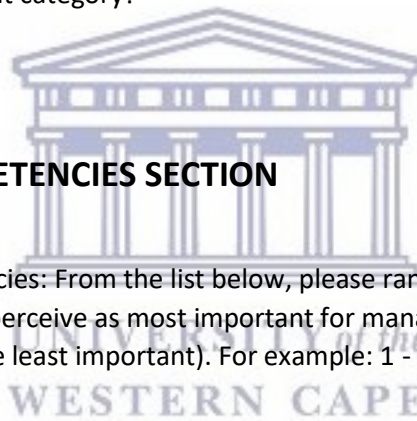
- Permanent
- Contract

8. Which category staff membership do you hold?

- Academic Staff (e.g. Associate lecturer, senior lecturer, Professor, Researcher)
- Administrative Staff ( Secretary, Manager, Administrator, Committee Officer)
- Support Staff (e.g Technical staff, ICS)

9. What is your employment category?

- Fulltime
- Part-time



## B: MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES SECTION

10. Management Competencies: From the list below, please rank any 10 Management Competencies that you perceive as most important for managers to have (With 1 being the most important to 10 the least important). For example: 1 - Purposeful, 2 - Innovative, 3 - Time manager....

The following question relates to conditions of normality e.g. according to plan, or when all systems are working optimally. Management Competencies (in alphabetical order):

- |                          |                       |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| • Business expertise     | • Problem solver      |
| • Customer focus         | • Purposeful          |
| • Dependable/trustworthy | • Quality focused     |
| • Flexible/adaptable     | • Results oriented    |
| • Good communicator      | • Risk taker          |
| • Hard worker            | • Safety conscious    |
| • Innovative             | • Staff developer     |
| • Integrity              | • Team worker         |
| • Interpersonal skills   | • Technical expertise |
| • Leadership skills      | • Time manager        |

1 - \_\_\_\_\_  
2 - \_\_\_\_\_  
3 - \_\_\_\_\_  
4 - \_\_\_\_\_  
5 - \_\_\_\_\_

6 - \_\_\_\_\_  
7 - \_\_\_\_\_  
8 - \_\_\_\_\_  
9 - \_\_\_\_\_  
10 - \_\_\_\_\_

11. For each of the Management Competencies you selected in Question 10 above, kindly provide a brief reason for each selection. For example: 1 - Purposeful: Management must work towards a common purpose or goal, 2 - Innovative: Management must incorporate innovative ideas to increase profits.....

1 \_\_\_\_\_  
 2 \_\_\_\_\_  
 3 \_\_\_\_\_  
 4 \_\_\_\_\_  
 5 \_\_\_\_\_  
 6 \_\_\_\_\_  
 7 \_\_\_\_\_  
 8 \_\_\_\_\_  
 9 \_\_\_\_\_  
 10 \_\_\_\_\_

12. Crisis Management Competencies: From the list below, please rank any 10 Management Competencies that you perceive as most important for managers to portray during TIMES OF CRISES (e.g. #FMF crisis) (With 1 being the most important to 10 the least important). For example: 1 - Problem solver, 2 - Risk taker, 3 - Safety conscious....

The following question relates to conditions of crisis e.g. financial crisis, natural crisis and student protests actions. Crisis Management Competencies (in alphabetical order):

- Business expertise
- Customer focus
- Dependable/trustworthy
- Flexible/adaptable
- Good communicator
- Hard worker
- Innovative
- Integrity
- Interpersonal skills
- Leadership skills
- Problem solver
- Purposeful
- Quality focused
- Results oriented
- Risk taker
- Safety conscious
- Staff developer
- Team worker
- Technical expertise
- Time manager

1 - \_\_\_\_\_ 6 - \_\_\_\_\_  
 2 - \_\_\_\_\_ 7 - \_\_\_\_\_  
 3 - \_\_\_\_\_ 8 - \_\_\_\_\_  
 4 - \_\_\_\_\_ 9 - \_\_\_\_\_  
 5 - \_\_\_\_\_ 10 - \_\_\_\_\_

13. For each of the Crisis Management Competencies you selected in Question 12 above, kindly provide a brief reason for each selection. For example: 1 - Problem solver: Management must actively work towards solving problems that my impact the organisation negatively, 2 - Risk taker: Management must be able to calculated risk to increase competitive advantage.....

1 \_\_\_\_\_  
 2 \_\_\_\_\_  
 3 \_\_\_\_\_  
 4 \_\_\_\_\_

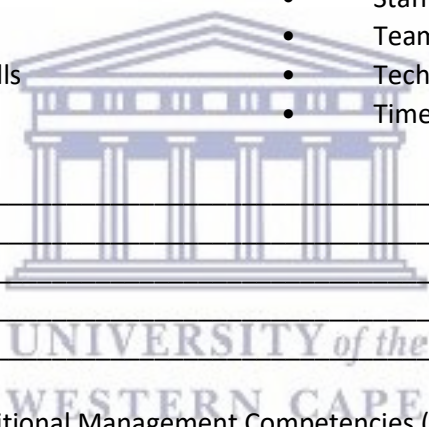
5 \_\_\_\_\_  
6 \_\_\_\_\_  
7 \_\_\_\_\_  
8 \_\_\_\_\_  
9 \_\_\_\_\_  
10 \_\_\_\_\_

14. Crisis Management Competencies. In Question 10 and Question 12 you selected competencies for organisations performing under conditions of normality and crisis, respectively. From the list below, please select any 5 competencies you think Management DID NOT PORTRAY during a crisis situation (e.g. #FMF)?

Crisis Management Competencies (in alphabetical order):

- Business expertise
- Customer focus
- Dependable/trustworthy
- Flexible/adaptable
- Good communicator
- Hard worker
- Innovative
- Integrity
- Interpersonal skills
- Leadership skills
- Problem solver
- Purposeful
- Quality focused
- Results oriented
- Risk taker
- Safety conscious
- Staff developer
- Team worker
- Technical expertise
- Time manager

1 \_\_\_\_\_  
2 \_\_\_\_\_  
3 \_\_\_\_\_  
4 \_\_\_\_\_  
5 \_\_\_\_\_



15. Can you identify any additional Management Competencies (not listed above) that Management did not portray during a time of crisis (e.g. #FMF)? Kindly provide a reason for each selection.

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

16. In your opinion, why were these competencies absent from the Management of the University during the #FMF crisis?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE



**Consent Form for questionnaire for staff**

University of the Western Cape

**Title:** An investigation into what the management competencies are during a time of crisis. A University stakeholder perspective.

**Researcher: Courtley Pharaoh: 3318099**

**Please initial box**

- 1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet explaining the above research project and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project.
- 2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline. (If I wish to withdraw I may contact the lead researcher at any time)
- 3. I understand my responses and personal data will be kept strictly confidential. I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my anonymised responses. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in the reports or publications that result for the research.
- 4. I agree for the data collected from me to be used in future research.
- 5. I agree for to take part in the above research project.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name of Participant  
(or legal representative)

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name of person taking consent  
(If different from lead researcher)

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Lead Researcher

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

*(To be signed and dated in presence of the participant)*

*Copies: All participants will receive a copy of the signed and dated version of the consent form and information sheet for themselves. A copy of this will be filed and kept in a secure location for research purposes only.*

**Researcher:**

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## School of Business and Finance

### INFORMATION SHEET FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS - STUDENT

Dear participant

**Courtley Pharaoh – 3318099 – MCom**

The title of my thesis is:

**An investigation into what the management competencies are during a time of crisis. A University stakeholder perspective.**

Please take time to read through this information sheet carefully in order for you to be knowledgeable about what is required of you as a research participant in this study.

As a participant who gave consent of your participation in this study, you will be required to, for example:

- 1. Complete a questionnaire in which you will be asked different questions with the aim of reflecting on your own experiences and views as a student what the management competencies exhibited by the management of the university were during the FMF crisis.*

Your participation in this research project is voluntary and your responses will be treated as confidential. It will assist me to achieve the objective of the study which is to identify what are the management competencies needed during the time of crisis at a university and whether the universities' management through their handling of the FMF crisis demonstrated the management competencies to their stakeholders.

Should you have any questions regarding this study or wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact me at: [3318099@myuwc.ac.za](mailto:3318099@myuwc.ac.za), or telephonically on 021 959 9556, or my supervisor, Prof K Visser at [kvisser@uwc.ac.za](mailto:kvisser@uwc.ac.za) contact number 021 959 4139.

*I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.*

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**Name of Participant**

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**Date**

Thank you for participating in my study.