Deans in Kenyan Universities

Their Leadership Styles
and Impacts on Staff Commitment

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# DEANS IN KENYAN UNIVERSITIES:

THEIR LEADERSHIP STYLES AND IMPACTS

ON STAFF COMMITMENT

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To my beloved daughters Celine, Marlies and Monica.

Preface

Leadership is an everyday activity on which almost everyone has an opinion and has experienced in some way. This makes it seem so commonplace yet it is quite a complex subject and with many new frontiers to be explored. This study on leadership styles of deans in Kenyan universities and its impacts on staff commitment has taken me through a journey into some of these new frontiers. It led to many new questions and issues which present me with the opportunity to further my exploration of this area even in the future. While the study has taken me quite some considerable amount of time to complete, it gave me important lessons in life through the low and high moments of the journey, moments that even leaders at times go through. At last now it has come to a close. What an important sojourn in personal growth! I now adhere to the truth that has been elusive to me during this journey, that there is no long night that does not succumb to the light of day. However, as Nelson Mandela once opined, you might have such a long walk, cross many valleys and mountains, take some rest to rejuvenate only to realise that there are still quite many hills to be climbed. While it has been long and winding, a new journey now begins.

So many people contributed in different ways towards making this study a reality. It is impossible to thank all of them individually. I am heavily indebted to all of them. As my people say, *erokamano ahinya* (thank you so much). I wish to however single out a few individuals. I express sincere gratitude to my promoter Prof.dr. Bas Denters for accepting to take up this role and for the useful and invaluable new insights he gave to this work. I am inestimably indebted to my supervisor Dr. Harry de Boer. His unwavering support, perseverance, guidance, knowledge, insights and the many long and fruitful discussions we had were pivotal for the success of this work. He supported me to keep on especially at times when all seemed to be slipping way. I will always remain grateful. My thanks also go to Prof. Jürgen Enders for his inputs which helped shape the early parts of this study. My appreciation also goes to Prof. Leo Goedegebuure and Prof. Lynn Meek both of the University of Melbourne, Australia for their useful contributions during our

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Combining work and study has been daunting noting the demands of both. I am indebted to Prof Richard Mibey, Vice Chancellor, Moi University for having been inestimably gracious in granting me time to travel for my many visits to Netherlands for this program. I also valued his consistent concern and keenness on my progress. In the same vein I thank Prof Peter Barasa and Prof Jonah Kindiki who served as Deans of Faculty of Education during my study period for all the kindness and support they gave me. My heads of department during this time Prof. Emmy Kipsoi and Prof. J.K. Changach showed utmost support. My colleagues Mr. Arthur Nzau and Dr. Felicity Githinji took up most of my teaching and departmental responsibilities when I was away. I also sincerely thank my colleagues at the African Network for Internationalization of Education (ANIE) office for the able way in which they run the activities of the organization during my times away.

My family has felt much of the brunt of this journey and must be relieved now that it is completed. My daughters Celine, Marlies, Monica and my niece Dorothy, I cherish you so much and thanks for bearing with my many and at times long absences from home for this study. My regular travels have made my daughter Marlies to have the aspiration of being a pilot so that she can take me to these many journeys to enable her have time with me. I deeply thank my wife Verah Owiti for her enormous understanding, deep faith and inestimable support to me all through and for her unending prayers. My mother Salina Akeyo Jowi has never ceased to pray for me for safe travels to wherever it is that I have been going even though she

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List of abbreviations

AAU	Association of African Universities
AC	Affective Commitment
ANIE	African Network for Internationalization of Education
AU	African Union
CC	Continuance Commitment
CHE	Commission for Higher Education
CHEPS	Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
CUE	Commission for University Education
CUEA	Catholic University of Eastern Africa
CVF	Competing Values Framework
EAC	East African Community
EFA	Education for All
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
HELB	Higher Education Loans Board
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IUCEA	Inter- University Council for East Africa
IGAD	Inter-Governmental Authority on Development
IGU	Income Generation Unit
ISO	International Organization of Standardization

JAB	Joint Admission Board
KASNEB	Kenya Accountants and Secretaries National Examinations Board
KCPE	Kenya Certificate of Primary Education
KCSE	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
KICD	Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development
KNEC	Kenya National Examination Council
KU	Kenyatta University
KUCCPS	Kenya Universities and Colleges Central Placement Service
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MMUST	Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology
MOHEST	Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology
NACOSTI	National Commission for Science Technology and Innovation
NC	Normative Commitment
NCST	National Council for Science and Technology
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Non- Governmental Organization
OC	Organizational Commitment
OCAI	Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument
ODL	Open and Distance Learning
PBC	Perceived Behavioural Control
PSSP	Privately Sponsored Students Program
RBM	Responsibility Based Management
SAPs	Structural Adjustment Programs

SPSS	Statistical Package for SocialSciences
STI	Science, Technology and Innovation
TCM	Three Component Model
TIVET	Technical Industrial Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
UN	United Nations
USIU	United States International University
WECO	Western College

1 Introduction

This chapter sets out the contextual background for the study. Within this background it presents the objectives and rationale for the study, the problem statement and the research questions. It also briefly highlights the methods and theoretical approach used in this study. Finally, it concludes by presenting the structure of the different sections of the dissertation.

1.1 Background to the study

This study analyses how deans in Kenyan universities lead and manage their faculties and the impacts of their leadership styles on staff commitment in their faculties. It analyses the leadership styles of the deans and explains why they adopt these styles in managing their faculties and the effects of their leadership styles on staff commitment. It is our assumption that staff commitment is an important ingredient for organizational performance and in this case, for the performance of the faculties. Several studies have recognized leadership as an important aspect of organizational life and as important for organizational success and performance (e.g. Ingraham, Sowa & Moynnihan, 2002; Goleman, 2000; Lumby, 2012; Thompson, 2000). Some other studies have documented how leadership has grown in complexity over the years as organizational contexts and organizations themselves become complex with change and transformations as constants (Middlehurst, 1993; Bush, 1986). Research into leadership in general, into what makes effective leaders and the relationship between leadership and organizational performance has also been perennial (see Bolden, 2004; Bass, 1994; Kotter, 1999; Madsen, 2001). Most of these studies underscore the essence of leadership especially with increasing organizational challenges and changing societal requirements. As Cameron and Quinn (2006) affirm, no organization in the twenty first century would boast about its constancy, sameness, or status quo making leadership to be seen as crucial in coping with change in organizations.

Just like in other organizations, leadership is crucial in universities and has in many ways become a self-justified activity (Maassen, 2003:45). Higher education in Kenya, as in most African countries is a comparatively recent phenomenon dating just a few decades (Owino, Oanda & Olel, 2011; Assie-Lumumba, 1996) but which has undergone tremendous developments, challenges and even drawbacks putting institutional leadership and management into sharp focus (Mwiria, Ngethe, Ngome, Ouma-Odero, Wawire & Wesonga, 2007). In recent years, the higher education sector in Kenya has experienced significant transformations arising from rapid expansion of the sector, increasing societal demands, changes in role of government especially in funding and governance, and policy reforms, among others.

Amid this growth, the sector continues to face emergent challenges including funding constraints, weak institutional capacities in different fields, growing quality concerns, escalating student numbers amid dwindling resources, brain drain, weak institutional autonomy, students strife and of course challenges of institutional leadership among others (Ouma, 2007; Jowi, 2009). While these challenges demand more from institutional leadership, leadership itself has been a serious challenge in Kenyan universities (Mwiria, Ngethe, Ngome, Ouma-Odero, Wawire & Wesonga, 2007; Republic of Kenya, 2007; Oanda, 2013). The few studies that have addressed this topic identified the challenges to leadership and the several efforts to address this challenge within the higher education sector (Mwiria, 2007).

The understanding of leadership in universities and whether it is anything specific, special or different has continually been contested (Cloete & Maassen, 2002:26; Middlehurst, 1993). Mintzberg (1979) classifies five types of organizations of which the *professional bureaucracy* most resembles the university. Such organizations are based on the standardization of skills, are composed of *experts* who have control of their work and their standards and emphasize authority of expertise (Mintzberg, 1983; Mintzberg & Quinn, 1988). Due to their nature, they are sometimes referred to as "collegial organizations". They are seen as inverted pyramids with the

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professional operators at the top and the administrators down below to serve them. The university is often characterized as a dysfunctional and fragmented, ambiguous, anarchical (Birnbaum, 1986; Cohen & March, 1986), loosely coupled (Birnbaum, 1986; Wieck, 1976; Mintzberg, 1979) organization typified by the collegiate of academics based on their specialist knowledge and autonomy (Johnson, 1972; Middlehurst, 1993; Harman, 1990:33). This autonomy, collegiality and professionalism is highly prized in the university especially by the academic staff and often leads to difficulties in decision- making, especially on academic matters (Mintzberg, 1979; Clark, 1983; File, 2000; Baldridge, 1983; Mintzberg, 1983) bringing even more challenges to leadership.

In addition, universities have been viewed as having a dual organizational structure composed of the conventional administrative hierarchy and the academic decision making structures which create tensions between academics and administrators leading to even more contestations in leadership and decision making (Maassen & van Vught, 1994: File, 2000). They usually have a large number of units pursuing ambiguous and distinctive self-interests (Clark, 1983: 266) and operating at blurred levels compounding the challenges to leadership (File, 2000; Cohen & March, 1974: 195; Glassman, 1973; March and Olsen, 1976; Clark, 1983; Van Vught, 1989:51-55; Balderston, 1995:78; Weick, 1976). These characteristics make leadership in universities to be viewed as distinctive in a way from leadership in other organizations (Dill, 1992; Baldridge, 1983; Mintzberg, 1983) and makes it also difficult to transfer good practice from other sectors and apply them in universities (File, 2000). The paradoxical resilience, permanence and adaptive nature of universities has to do with some of these characteristics (Kerr, 1982:152; Maassen & van Vught, 1994; Bargh, 2000; Clark, 1983:12). These characteristics also generally underscore the complexity and even contradictory nature of the university and thus their leadership requirements. There are also new and plural interpretations that make the traditional conceptualization of the university and its core tasks even more complicated and contested. These new developments make leadership even more critical in universities (Birnbaum, 1992; Enders, 2002).

Whether leadership is a significant requirement for the effective running of universities has also been contentious and even led to myths and paradoxes of academic life (Ramsden, 1998). In general, there is literature that suggest that good leadership is necessary for the good performance of universities (Gumport, 2000; Duke, 2002; Middlehurst, 1993; Maassen & van Vught, 1994; File, 2000) and in enabling them to achieve their missions (Bolman & Deal, 1992; Tucker, et.al, 1992; Amaraal & Magalhaes, 2002). On the other hand, there is also literature that doubts this relationship (Birnbaum, 1992; Birnbaum, 1986) implying that there is little or even no relationship between leadership and institutional performance or success. This could imply that leadership is not fundamental for the success of universities and that some specific leader behaviours could be best for universities (Ehrle & Bennett, 1988). It might therefore not be clear whether there is a relationship between leadership and performance in universities. Further, if there is a relationship then what exactly is its nature?

Irrespective of these and based on the literature supporting the link between leadership and organizational performance, we take as a point of departure in this study that it is reasonable to expect that leadership should have an effect on the performance of a university. This is based on the assumption that leadership affects the behaviour and activities of staff. Moreover, we expect leadership to have an effect on commitment of staff and that such commitment is one of the factors related to organizational performance. Our logic is that leadership is effective if it has a positive effect on staff commitment, which in turn is expected to have a positive impact on performance. Thus, the effectiveness of leadership is in our reasoning related to the contribution of leadership on staff commitment. Though there are several antecedents to organizational performance, we consider organizational commitment as one of those important ingredients for organizational performance (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979:8). Thus, a core task of leadership is to exhibit styles that inspire commitment of staff so as to enhance performance in their organizations. This study will look into how the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans impact on staff commitment in their faculties.

1.2 Leading from the middle

Organizations are usually composed of different parts occupied by different people undertaking different roles. For most organizations, these parts mainly include the strategic apex (top management), the middle line (middle management), the operating core (operation processes), the technostructure (analysts who design the system), and the support staff (Mintzberg, 1983). Others mention three main parts composed of top management, the middle and the workers (Floyd &Wooldridge, 1996; Mintzberg, 1983; Giangreco & Peccei, 2005). In looking at the different levels, the top management (strategic apex) has the responsibility of shaping the entire operation, managing the system's overall form by identifying the dangers and untapped opportunities, reshaping the organization and ensuring the organization serves its mission. The workers (operating core), on the other hand, produce the organization's products, render services and enhance the organization's capacity to cope. They operate in an environment that is more threatening and are more individually vulnerable, at times lowest in pay and benefits, and always expendable in hard times (Mintzberg,1983; Floyd & Wooldridge, 1996).

This study is focused on middle management, usually located between the strategic apex and the operating core in most organizations. Its role has however been typically downplayed in comparison to that of top management (Huy, 2001; Balogun & Johnson, 2004). It is a position uniquely at the center of the organization and at the interface between the organization and its external environment. It services and manages the different parts of the system and has a good position of integrating the organization. The position is also more diffusing than both the operating core and the top management. It is usually pulled back and forth between these different levels (Floyd & Wooldridge, 1996).Though different organizations prefer different roles for the middle management, their strategic roles include championing, synthesizing, facilitating and implementing organizational strategies and innovations (Floyd & Lane, 2000; Currie & Procter, 2005; Nonaka, 1988; Floyd & Wooldridge, 1997: 472; Floyd &Wooldridge, 1996; Bower, 1970; Burgelman, 1983).

Middle managers also have a central role in the inward and outward flows of function that affect good decisions and actions (Floyd & Wooldridge, 1996).

The "middleness" of middle managers places them in a strategic organizational position which is also at the same time a precarious position, often with a flux of paradoxes. They are responsible for managing the work of the organization units while at the same time caught up between the top management and workers. In this push and pull, there are attempts by either the top or the workers to enlist the support of the middles, use middles as extension of themselves, as a buffer from confrontations or intrusions or even draw the middles to their own positions. They are thus in a confusion whether to adhere to the operating core or the apex (Oshry, 2003). These are tough conditions for anyone to operate in and still find organizational meaning. The middle is a difficult place to be, especially when initiatives from the top have great impacts on life at the bottom as well as the other way round. In organizations where the operating core is more autonomous, such as in universities, influencing and providing leadership becomes a challenge of the middles.

As a result, middle management is often seen by others in the system as well-meaning and hardworking but also as agents of the executives or the workers and as weak and powerless on their own (Oshry, 2003). Their middle position, multiplicity of roles and demands often leads to confusion mainly as a result of the multiple upward and downward demands which may leave them in ambivalent positions. As such in some cases, middles are isolated, or at least have that feeling, accepted by neither the top nor the operating core. This makes novel initiations or independent thought and action seldom the province of middles. These paradoxes can however at times be converted into positions of organizational power (Floyd & Woolridge, 1997).

Irrespective of the paradoxes and contradictions, there are numerous studies that claim that middle managers are central players in organizations (Currie & Proctor, 2005; Floyd & Woolridge, 1997; Peters, 2001). There is literature that suggests that organizational performance is to an extent influenced by what happens in the middle of organizations (Currie & Procter, 2005) setting the stage for the rise of middle management. Since we consider organizational commitment as an important factor in organizational performance, the middle manager would thus play an important role in enhancing the commitment of their staff for sustained or growth in performance. Even though all the organizational parts are important, it is the middle management that is the interest of this study. The succeeding parts of this chapter will therefore deliberately focus on this level of organizational leadership and management with a focus on the leadership roles and styles of deans in Kenyan universities.

1.3   Deanship in universities

Leadership in universities can be executed at different levels such as at the project, departmental, faculty and even at the executive levels, amongst others. Most research on university leadership has focused on the executive level which was viewed as most important in providing organizational leadership. There is however growing recognition that executives can neither provide all the direction an organization needs nor can they entirely solve all organizational challenges (Floyd & Wooldridge, 1996; Currie & Procter, 2005; Mintzberg, 1983). Leadership, especially in complex and collegial organizations such as universities, transcends the roles of executives and operates at other levels too. Universities, just like most other organizations, are made up of different management levels, including middle management, all of which work to give the organization its entity. These other levels are also grounds of leadership and contribute to the overall performance of the university.

One of the levels of leadership in the university is the faculty or school level which in most cases is led by the dean. This position is the focus of this study. In many contexts this position is viewed as part of middle management because deans operate between the executives and the other layers of the university. There is literature that concedes that those who "lead from the middle" such as deans, play a vital role in leadership, strategy formulation and execution, and in the implementation of successful change in organizations (Currie & Procter, 2005). They have a key and paradoxical role in process of organizational change as they are often simultaneously both the 'victims' (targets) and 'carriers' (agents) of change (Nonaka, 1988).

Research interest in deanship and middle management in universities has increased in recent years as universities continually face growing pressures both internal and external (Kotter & Schelesinger, 1997; De Boer & Goedegebuure, 2009; De Boer, Enders & Leisyte, 2007; Meek, Goedegebuure, Santiago & Carvalho, 2010). These pressures are continually being passed from the executives to other levels of management such as that of deans (Waugh, 2003). Due to the centrality of their position, deans are significant in overall university management and governance providing the link between the executive management, the core units and even the external environment. Deans are thus caught between implementing the edicts of the executive managers and protecting the interests of their academic colleagues (Amaral & Maassen, 2010). Their position enables universities to execute their core mandates of teaching, research and service. It is against these tasks that the success or failure of universities is pegged, making deans very central to the overall performance or effectiveness of universities (Meek, Goedegebuure & De Boer, 2010; Kallenberg, 2007).

Though the traditional role of the dean was mainly academic, focusing on overseeing the teaching and research portfolios of their faculties, recent studies indicate that deans occupy well defined positions with well-defined roles and

considerable amounts of power at their jurisdiction (Boyco and Jones, 2010). They are widely being recognized as playing a central role in organizational processes including organizational performance and success (Kallenberg, 2007; Flyod & Wooldridge, 1994; Kanter, 1983). There can be little argument against the fact that in recent years, more management responsibilities in universities fall in the purview of deans than ever before (De Boer, Goedegebuure & Meek, 2010). Most universities have devolved many academic and financial responsibilities to faculties placing deans in a pivotal leadership and management role. Enhanced expectations and greater role definition of deans as manager-academics are in clear contrast to earlier times when the position was perhaps considered a 'good citizen' chore.

In Kenya, due to recent transformations in the higher education sector, the mandates of deans have expanded giving them more responsibilities. In the formative years, the universities were more centralised with the executives having more managerial responsibilities. In the past ten years, most Kenyan universities have decentralised several responsibilities to the deans. This has expanded the leadership roles of deans which has also been compounded by the changing role of government especially in governance and funding as a result of the rapid expansion of the sector. Some universities have developed training programs for deans to prepare them for these new mandates (Ngethe & Mwiria, 2003; Wangenge-Ouma, 2012). For instance, due to funding constraints the government requires universities to generate extra funding from other sources to augment funding from the government. The deans are required to innovate new ways of generating alternative income (Wangenge-Ouma, 2012). Compared to the previous years, there is also demand for more accountability and enhanced performance from both internal and external stakeholders requiring university leaders to work towards predetermined objectives, outputs and results (Letangule & Letting, 2012).

The decentralization of most activities and responsibilities from central university management to the levels of the deans also meant the transfer of some decision

making authority to the deans (Dinku & Shitemi, 2011; Kamaara, 2011). In fact Dinku and Shitemi (2011:12) expound on how the role of the Kenyan dean has changed, the challenges deans encounter in managing their faculties and the essence of leadership development amongst deans. They point out the shift of the universities from being ivory towers to open and collaborating institutions where entrepreneurship is a basic goal in addition to appreciation of bench marks and shared experiences. These transformations in deanship in Kenyan universities make it even more necessary to understand how they manage their faculties and the impacts of their leadership on the performance of their universities. This is particularly within our working assumption that leadership impacts on staff commitment which in turn impacts on performance.

1.4   Objectives and rationale of the study

While deans in Kenyan universities are assumed to be important and have key leadership roles in their faculties and in the university, not so much is known about how they lead their faculties, why they lead in that way and the impacts of their leadership. While there has been considerable research (Sifuna, 1998; Amutabi, 2003; Mwiria, 2003) on executive leadership in Kenyan universities, not much is known about deanship in these universities. This is despite their significant and strategic roles in the universities. Due to the transformations taking place in Kenyan universities, it is likely that deanship in Kenyan universities has also changed but we do not know how and with what impacts on their faculties. The transformations in university management in Kenya are intriguing thus stimulating a need for a better understanding of their impacts on university leadership at different levels including that of deans. This study aims at providing an understanding of how Kenyan deans manage their faculties, why they adopt those leadership styles and the impacts of these styles on commitment of staff in their faculties. This is intended to provide more understanding into middle management in Kenyan universities.

This study is focused on the Kenyan higher education sector where leadership and management have been identified as a perennial challenges (Sifuna, 1997; Mwiria,

2007; Republic of Kenya, 2007; Sifuna & Sawamura, 2009) and is an identified area for reforms (Republic of Kenya, 2012). Most of the core of the universities activities are undertaken at the faculties, which are the domains of the deans. Deans therefore have to demonstrate leadership behaviours that would enable faculties attain their goals. Commitment is likely to be one of the main factors in effecting faculty performance. Ideally, the managerial leadership styles of the Kenyan deans should facilitate faculty commitment for enhanced performance of the faculties.

1.5   Problem statement and research questions

This study is premised on the assumption that leadership is important for organizational performance and success, including within universities. While organizational performance can be attributed to several factors, the study takes staff commitment as one of the factors that could determine performance in universities. While leadership can be executed at different levels, the study focuses on the position of the deans in the Kenyan universities, as deans play a crucial role in the leadership and management of faculties. Leading from the middle, the position of deans, is demanding and involves several functions such as planning, management, acquiring resources, faculty development, development and review of academic programs, motivating and aligning others, research management, students' management, internationalization activities and at the same time be the morale officer, principal steward, lead mentor, and master of ceremonies (De Boer, Goedegebuure & Meek, 2010; Krahenbuhl, 2004; Tucker & Bryan, 1988). These can be daunting tasks and even more so in situations where the institution itself faces myriad challenges as in the Kenyan case. They have the demanding task of managing the requirements of their positions and the challenges of their contexts. How then do Kenyan deans execute these roles in their challenging contexts and how does their leadership impact on the commitment of their staff?

This study therefore analyses how deans in Kenyan universities manage their faculties. This is intended to reveal the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans in

managing their faculties. Linked to this, the study seeks to explain why the deans adopt these leadership styles and the potential effects or impacts of these leadership styles on staff commitment. The study addresses the research problem using three main questions which will contribute to a complete analysis of the problem.

i) *What are the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans?*

Our first research question is intended to provide a description of the leadership styles that Kenyan deans deploy in managing their faculties. We base this on the extent to which they execute particular leadership roles derived from the Competing Values Framework (CVF), which is presented in section 3.2.

ii) *Why do Kenyan deans adopt these leadership styles in managing their faculties?*

The second question is to enable us explain why Kenyan deans manage their faculties in the way they do. We rely on the dominant leadership styles of Kenyan deans described through question one. The leadership styles are derived from leadership roles and quadrants of the CVF model. We explained the leadership styles of the deans by relying on the components of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). The main tenets and applications of this theory are elaborated in Chapter 2.

iii) *What are the effects of the leadership styles of Kenyan deans on staff commitment in their faculties?*

The last question analyses the possible impact of the leadership styles of the deans on staff commitment in their faculties. We use the *Three Components Model of Commitment* (see section 2.4.2) to analyze how the different leadership styles impact on staff commitment at the faculty. Different leadership styles are expected to impact differently on staff commitment. This question enables us to assess the

consequences of the leadership styles of the deans on staff commitment in their faculties.

1.6   Theoretical approach

The theoretical framework for this study consists of two parts. The first part relates to the explanation of the leadership styles of the deans and is based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) which provides a plausible and widely used approach to explain leadership behaviour (styles) by focusing on *intentions*, *attitudes, subjective norms* and *perceived behavioural control*. The model views leadership behaviour as based on one's intention to perform or not to perform that behaviour and explains intentions by relying on attitudes, subjective norms (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980:62) and perceived behavioural controls (Ajzen, 1991). It assumes that attitudes are derived from beliefs and the consequences of performing the behaviour while subjective norms are derived from the expectations of the significant referents and the motivation to comply with their expectations. Both attitudes and subjective norms are traced by this model back to the person's beliefs. The Competing Values Framework (CVF) is used to specify our theoretical model i.e. mainly because the CVF specifies the leadership role orientations (and underlying values) regarding the behaviour. These are the role orientations that organizational leaders can perform and against which we were to evaluate the leadership styles of the deans. These roles are useful in this study for determining the leadership styles of the deans.

The second part of the theoretical model relates to the effects of the leadership styles of the deans on the commitment of staff in their faculties (our third research question). Here we used the Three Component Model (TCM) of organizational commitment which views organizational commitment as based on three aspects i.e. *affective commitment*, *normative commitment* and *continuance commitment* (Meyer & Allen, 1984), all of which are important in evaluating overall commitment. An evaluation of the impacts of the leadership styles of the deans on these components

of organizational commitment should enable us to establish the relationship between the leadership styles and commitment. The presumption is that effective leadership styles should result into high levels of staff commitment which should in turn lead to enhanced organizational performance. The deans' leadership styles could thus excite different levels of commitment. Our complete theoretical framework therefore postulates that attitudes, social norms and behavioural control determine leadership style, and that leadership style affects staff commitment.

1.7   Methodological considerations

In answering the three research questions, the study adopted a mixed method approach due to the nature of the research questions to be addressed. The data collection methods relate to the different parts of the study. In fact, this study consists of two parts. The first part focuses on the explanation of leadership styles. How do Kenyan deans run their universities and why do they run them in particular styles? For this part we used a questionnaire survey which was administered to the deans and modelled in accordance with the constructs of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (see Chapter 2 for details) and the leadership roles and quadrants of the Competing Values Framework (see Chapter 3 for details). The questionnaire was to enable us obtain information on the behaviours, attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and some background factors of the deans. We derived leadership role orientations (and underlying values) of deans from the Competing Values Framework (CVF) which clarifies the complex and paradoxical nature of organizational leadership through four quadrants (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Cooper & Quinn, 1993; Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Quinn, 1988, Hooijberg, 1996). See chapter 3 for an elaborate presentation of the CVF.

The second part of this study addresses the effects of the leaderships styles, found in part one, on staff commitment in the faculties led by the deans. For this part of the study, we selected a number of case studies (faculties), based on the outcomes of part one of our study, to investigate the impacts of the leadership styles of the deans

on the commitment of staff in their faculties. In fact, we selected faculties of deans who demonstrated different leadership styles (as the outcome of part one of the study) and analysed the impacts of these styles on commitment of staff in their respective faculties. The data for this part of the study was collected by interviews with faculty staff members. Based on a semi-structured interview protocol faculty staff were interviewed regarding their faculty commitment. The interview protocol was based on the widely-used Three Components Model of Commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1997) which is presented in section 2.4.2. Additional information was from institutional documents, government policy documents and websites of Kenyan universities to give additional information about the institutions and their contexts.

1.8   Organization of the dissertation

This dissertation is organised as follows. Chapter Two presents the theoretical framework for this study. It discusses the main tenets and applications of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) including its extended version, Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). These are essential in providing a framework for explaining the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans. It proceeds to discuss Organizational Commitment (OC) mainly based on the Three Components Model (TCM) of organizational commitment which is helpful in explaining the impacts of the leadership styles of the deans on the commitment of staff in their faculties. Chapter Three discusses different aspects of organizational leadership so as to provide a context for this study. It begins by attempting a common understanding of leadership and management and proceeds to discuss leadership theories, styles, organization types and the effects of different leadership styles on organizational commitment. It then discusses the Competing Values Framework (CVF) and its applications to leadership and organizational commitment. The chapter concludes with a discussion of leadership and management in universities including middle management which is the core of this study. In essence this chapter presents the literature review for this study.

Chapter Four presents the research design, methodology and operationalization of the research design of the study and the methods of data analysis. The first part discusses the design of the study including the approaches used in data collection while the second part operationalizes the design and methodology. The third part discusses the procedures used in data analysis for the study. Chapter Five presents the higher education context in Kenya including the history, structure and contemporary developments in the system and how they impact on the leadership and management of Kenyan universities. In general, it provides insights into the context in which Kenyan deans operate, which is important for contextualizing this study.

Chapter Six discusses the leadership styles of Kenyan deans which answers our first two questions on how Kenyan deans manage their faculties. Chapter Seven extends the discussion with an analysis of the effects of these leadership styles on staff commitment in the faculties, which responds to our third research question. Chapter Eight finally summarizes main outcomes of the study and also presents the conclusion. It also discusses some of the challenges faced in the study and aspects that some reflections that could still be considered for further research.

2   Theoretical Framework for the Study

In this chapter the theoretical framework for this study is presented. It begins with a presentation and discussion of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), its main tenets, applicability to this study and some of its criticisms. The chapter proceeds to discuss the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) which is an extension of TRA, its contribution to our theoretical model and to the explanation of the leadership behaviours (styles) of the deans. The next part discusses the Three Component Model (TCM) of Organizational Commitment (OC) which is used in explaining how the leadership styles of the deans impact on staff commitment in their faculties. The last part summarises the chapter.

2.1   Introduction

The theoretical framework for this study has two parts. The first part focuses on a model for the explanation of the leadership behaviours (leadership styles) of the deans. It is based on the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and its extended version, the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). It views leadership behaviour as based on one's *intentions* to perform or not to perform a behaviour and explains intentions by relying on *attitudes*, *subjective norms* (Ajzen & Fishbein 1980:62) and *perceived behavioural controls* (Ajzen, 1991). The second part of the theoretical framework deals with a model for explaining the effects of the leadership styles of the deans on staff commitment at the faculties. Based on various studies (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Stum, 1999; Kinnie & Swart, 2012), the assumption is that leadership styles have an impact on organizational commitment which could in turn have an effect on organisational performance (organizational performance is however not the interest of this study). It discusses the Three Component Model (TCM) of Organizational Commitment and its three components i.e. *Affective Commitment* (AC), *Normative Commitment* (NC) and *Continuance Commitment* (CC) (Meyer & Allen, 1984), all of which are important in evaluating a person's overall commitment. In addressing the question 'does

leadership matter' we assume that leadership styles excite different levels of staff commitment.

2.2   Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA)

Human behaviour is quite a complex phenomenon to explain (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Over the years, several theoretical approaches have been proposed to account for why people behave the way they do (Sherman & Fazio, 1983). While different approaches have been used to explain behaviour, this study adapted the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) which has been considered as one of the most versatile approaches to understanding human behaviour. TRA relies on *intentions*, *attitudes* and *subjective norms* as predictors of behavior. It traces both *attitudes* and *subjective norms* back to a person's most important or *salient beliefs*. Each successive step in this sequence from behaviour to beliefs provides a comprehensive account of the causes underlying behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980: 62).

The basic assumption of TRA is that humans are usually rational and make systematic use of information available to them to consider the implications of their actions before they decide to engage in them. It sees behaviour as determined by the actors' attitudes towards the outcomes of a behaviour and by the expectations of their social environment. As a result of the growing urge for a better understanding of behaviour, the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) was introduced in 1967, based on the argument that attitude and beliefs were the main determinants of behaviour and could thus help explain human behaviour (Fishbein, 1967). In the 1970s, the theory was revised and expanded (Fishbein & Ajzen , 1975) and by the 1980s, it was used not only to study human behaviour but also to develop appropriate behavioural interventions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980:13).

TRA assumes that most actions of social relevance are under volitional control (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) i.e. a person's *behaviour* is determined by their *intention* to

perform or not to perform that behaviour. Thus, if one intends to perform a behaviour then it is likely that one will do it. This proposition makes *intentions* the best predictors or immediate antecedents of *behaviour*. Though we can explain *behaviour* by reliance on *intentions*, this alone is not very informative. It is more informative when other variables are added that explain why people have certain intentions. To this end, *attitude* towards that behaviour and *subjective norm* are added as determinants of intentions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980: 62).*Attitude* consists of beliefs and the perceived consequences of performing the behaviour while *subjective norm* is a combination of the expectations of the significant group plus the motivation to comply with these expectations. Figure 2.1 below illustrates how behaviour can be explained from the above constructs.

Figure 2.1 The TRA Model (Adapted from Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980)

19
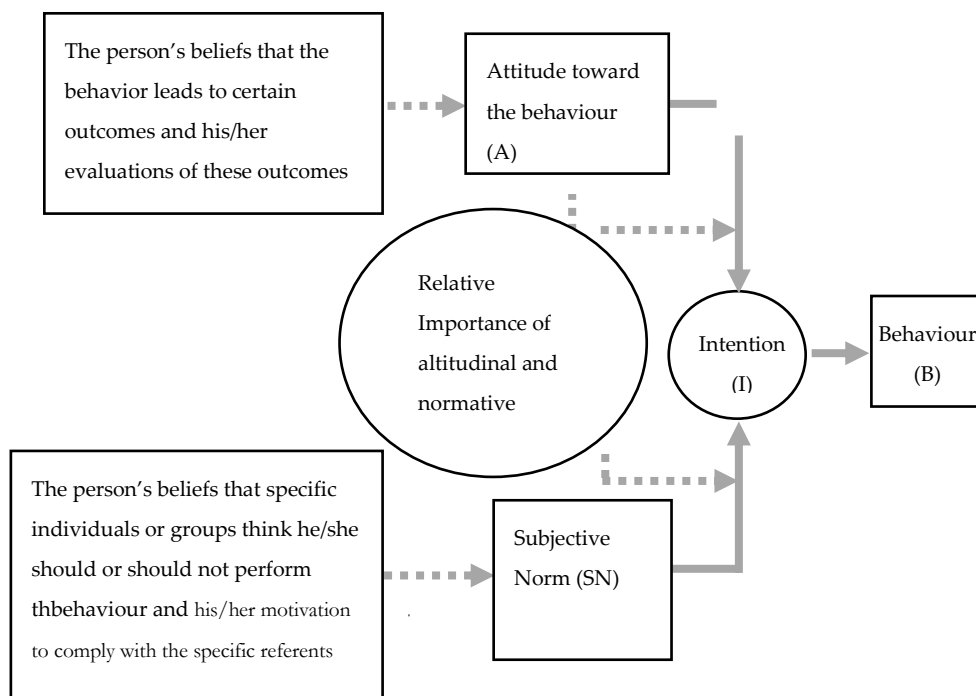
By using a series of intervening constructs, this model traces the causes of volitional behaviour back to a person's beliefs. Thus, *beliefs*, *attitudes*, *subjective norms*, *intentions* and *behaviour* are key in TRA. Though the beliefs that people have are likely to be influenced by background factors, Ajzen & Fishbein (1980) argue that background factors may only influence attitudes and social norms indirectly, namely through people's beliefs. Each successive step in this sequence from beliefs to behaviours provides a more comprehensive account of the causes underlying behaviour. In the next sections, we take a look into these determinants of behaviour in closer detail.

2.2.1   *Behaviour*

The first part of this study is interested in understanding the leadership behaviours (styles) of Kenyan deans. This requires us to explain the behaviours of the deans. What then is behaviuor? Fishbein & Ajzen (2010:29) define behaviour as *observable events which take place in a certain place within a given context, at a given time and directed at some target*. Behaviour thus has four main elements: the *action* performed, the *target* at which the action is directed, the *context* in which it is performed and the *time* at which it is performed. However, how behaviour is parsed into action, target, context and time elements is to some extent arbitrary. It is up to the investigators to define the behavioural criterion as it best suits their research purpose. A change in any of the elements implies a change in the behaviour under consideration (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010).

Each of the four elements of behaviour can be defined at various levels of generality or specificity. The most specific level is a single action, directed at a specific target, performed in a given context and at a specified point in time. Such single actions can be directly observed. When a single action is directly observed on a particular occasion, the measure of behaviour obtained is very specific in all its elements and therefore of limited utility (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010:32). The other level is that of behavioural categories. Behavioural categories differ from single actions as they are composed of several actions which are usually not directly observable. The discrete

actions that make up a category constitute different behaviours. A behavioural category such as 'studying' could contain several activities such as attending classes, reading assigned books, searching the web, taking notes, and memorizing materials (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010:36). Each of these categories is a behavior in its own right and can be assessed in terms of specific, discrete quantities or in terms of continuous frequencies and magnitudes. In our study leadership style will be treated as a behavioral category. A style is the result of several (repeated) actions.

Once the behaviour of interest is identified and defined (we do so through the leadership roles of CVF) then its determinants can be examined. Irrespective of how precisely or broadly the behaviour is defined, the most crucial aspect is to explain why people perform or do not perform the behaviour in question. It is important however to distinguish behaviours from occurrences that could be outcomes of those behaviours. For example, passing an exam may not be a behavior but an occurrence that can be achieved by performing other behaviours (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). For our case for instance, high levels of commitment may not be a behavior but an outcome of certain behaviours. Below we discuss these antecedents of behaviour in detail.

2.2.2   *Intentions and behaviour*

TRA holds that behaviour is a manifestation of *intentions* or the transmission of intentions into action. It sees *intention* as the proximal determinant of behaviour making *intention* the most important, immediate and best single predictor of behaviour. Intentions are indications of a person's readiness to perform a behaviour or a plan or likelihood that they will behave in a particular way in particular situations, whether or not they actually do so (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010:39). It is one's subjective probability of performing a behaviour and is therefore the best predictor of whether or not he will engage in that behaviour. TRA assumes that people perform behaviours because they intend to do so.

It follows therefore that strong intentions to perform a particular behaviour would most likely lead to more successful outcomes and vice versa (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). It is important in understanding the likelihood or perceived probability of one performing a given behaviour. The higher the subjective probability, the more likely the behaviour will in fact be performed. To ssuccessfully use intentions to predict behaviour requires strong correspondence between *intentions* and *behaviour* and also the stability of those intentions. This correspondence has to be in specificity with *action*, *target*, *context* and *tim*e and also on the fact that intention and behaviour do not change in the interval between the assessment of the intentions and the assessment of behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Following from this therefore, if a measure of intention were found to be unrelated to the behavioral criterion, it would be unnecessary to use the intention and its determinants to understand the behaviour.

By viewing behaviour as the transmission of intention into action, TRA mainly looks at *behavioural intentions* and argues that people consider the implications of their actions before they decide to engage or not to engage in them, thus its reference as "theory of reasoned action" (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). To predict behaviour from intentions, we need to ask participants whether they intend to perform the behaviour in question. A more sensitive measure would be obtained by asking them how strongly they intend to perform the behaviour or how likely they were to do so (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980:43). To the extent that the indicators used to assess intention and behaviour comply with the principle of compatibility, it is possible to use intentions to predict behaviour. Many studies have substantiated the predictive validity of behavioural intentions (Quine & Rubin, 1997; Stone, Jowahar & Kisamore, 2010).

The intention – behaviour relationship has been widely investigated. There is an accumulation of evidence supporting the strong relation between behaviour and intention (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1973; Sheppard, Hartwick & Warsaw, 1988). Even

though there might not always be direct correspondence between intention and behaviour, TRA assumes that an actor will always act according to his or her intention. Other studies have however challenged the existence of a strong relationship between intentions and behaviour. They claim that if any relationship exists, then it is only a weak one (McQuarrie & Langmeyer, 1987; Gooding 1994). Moreover, time may play a role here. The shorter the time period between the intention and the actual behaviour, the more likely it is that intention will predict behaviour correctly. The longer the time lag, the more opportunity for unforeseen events to affect the relationship between intention and behaviour.

None the less, relying on intentions alone to predict behaviour does not provide much information about the reasons for the behaviour but merely helps to predict it (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980:62). A better understanding of behaviour requires an understanding of the determinants of intentions. TRA outlines an actor's *attitude* (A) towards a behaviour and *subjective norms* (SN) as the main determinants of intentions.

2.2.3 *Attitudes towards behaviour*

Attitude is seen as a person's total evaluation of a behaviour or his judgment that performing a behaviour is good or bad (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980:56). It is the individuals' positive or negative belief about performing a behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). It is seen as a latent disposition or tendency to respond with some degree of favourableness or unfavourableness to a psychological object. Attitudes are evaluative in nature and ascribe to individuals a position on a unitary evaluative dimension with respect to an object, a dimension that ranges from negative to positive through a neutral point (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010:76). This bipolar evaluative characteristic is essential in attitude research (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2005) especially in measuring attitudes.

Attitude has for quite a long time been related to human behaviour. As early as 1862, social psychologists had begun developing theories that could help explain the relationship between *attitude* and *behaviour* to provide better understanding on how and why attitude impacted on behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2005). In addition, they sought to explain how and why people's beliefs change the way they act. TRA assumes that individuals will always tend to have positive attitudes towards behaviours whose performance they believe will lead to positive outcomes. Understanding and explaining attitudes is one way of arriving at ones likelihood of performing or not to performing a behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980:7).

A person's attitude toward a behaviour is based on the beliefs a person holds about performing that behaviour and the importance attached to such beliefs. In fact, it is composed of two components: i) the strength of *behavioural beliefs (b)* towards performing the behaviour which should lead to a particular outcome (consequences, costs or other attributes) and ii) the *evaluation of the outcomes (e)* which refers to how favourable the consequences or outcomes are to the person performing the behaviour. In other words, what are the outcomes a person attaches to a behaviour and how important are these outcomes to him? So to determine an attitude, we should multiply behavioural beliefs (expected outcomes) by the evaluation of these expected outcomes. Favourable consequences for highly likely outcomes of a behaviour —strong beliefs that are positively evaluated— indicate a positive attitude that increases a person's likelihood to engage in the behaviour. Attitudes are divided into *personal* and *social attitudes*. Personal attitudes towards behaviour are internally generated and are based on individuals' beliefs about the outcomes of the behaviour. Social attitudes on the other hand are closely related to subjective norms (Ajzen, 1988) which we will discuss in the next section.

Attitudes are made up of the beliefs that a person accumulates over a lifetime, of which only a few (i.e. salient beliefs) actually work to influence attitude and are therefore the immediate determinants of attitude. In this sense, attitude is a person's salient beliefs about whether the outcome of his action will be positive or negative. Other factors such as demographic variables and personality traits may affect beliefs

and consequently attitude and ultimately behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980:63). The theory argues that there is no direct relation between any given external variable and behaviour. However, the efficacy of TRA in this regard is that it is also able to identify a small set of concepts which are assumed to account for the relations (or lack of relations) between any external variable and any kind of behaviour that is under individual's volitional control (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980:9).

Using attitudes to predict intention requires measuring of the attitude component and establishing its correspondence with behaviour. As studies on the relationship between attitude and (intentional) behaviour gained ground, techniques to measure attitude were also developing which led to a number of scaling techniques for measuring attitudes. Generally attitude is measured by ascertaining person's beliefs toward a behaviour to be performed and weighting them to determine the strength of the belief (Thurstone, 1931; Doob, 1947; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ryan & Bonfield, 1975; Kim & Hunter, 1993).

It is the weighted strength of the attitude factor that determines its value in the relationship between a particular intention and behaviour. It has to be noted that for some intentions, attitudinal considerations may be important while for others they may not be. Their relative weights may vary from one person to another and from one circumstance or context to the other. The assignment of relative weights to attitudes and subsequently to subjective norms (as will be discussed in the next section) as determinants of intention greatly increases the explanatory value of this theory. There is however agreement that attitude, no matter how assessed, is just one of the predictors of the intention to perform a behaviour. Thus in order to predict intention accurately, additional variables have to be taken into consideration, either as independent contributors to intention or as moderators of the attitude – intention relationships.

2.2.4 *Subjective norms and intentional behaviour*

The other predictor of intentio*n* is the *subjective norm*. It refers to the individual's beliefs about the extent to which other people who are important to a person and with whom the person is motivated to comply, think they should or should not perform particular behaviours. It is assumed to be a function of beliefs that specific individuals or groups of individuals who are significant approve or disapprove of performing the behaviour and that the actor has the motivation to comply with these referents. It is a person's perception of what others think about the behaviour (normative belief) and the degree to which this influences whether the behaviour is carried out (motivation to comply) or not (Fishbein, Ajzen & McArdle, 1980).

The assumption is that, if significant others view performing of a behaviour as positive and the individual is motivated to meet their expectations, then a positive subjective norm is expected, which will have a positive effect on the intention to execute a behaviour. Conversely, a person who believes that these referents think he should not perform the behaviour will have a subjective norm that puts pressure on him to avoid performing the behaviour. Thus, subjective norms may exert pressure to perform or not to perform a given behaviour, independent of the person's own attitude toward the intentional behaviour in question (Fishbein, Ajzen, & McArdle, 1980).

Subjective or social norms are therefore seen as the perceived social pressure an individual faces when deciding whether to behave in a certain way. They are social as they are based on information external to the actor and the actors' social pressure to engage in the behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1972; Fishbein, Ajzen, & McArdle, 1980). The social environment can exert strong influence on one's intentions and actions. Social norms also refer to what is acceptable or permissible behaviour in a group or society. It is rational for people to conform to social norms because violations can be punished, scorned upon or not tolerated. Social norms therefore structure people's behaviours and can influence their intention to perform the behaviour. People intend to behave in ways that allow them to obtain favorable outcomes and meet the expectations of others (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Subjective norms are determined by *normative beliefs* (n) and the *motivation to comply* (m). As such, to determine one's subjective norm towards a behaviour, normative beliefs and motivation to comply are multiplied. In other words, they are a function of normative beliefs about the social expectations of significant others and an individual's motivation to comply with those significant others. The motivation to comply helps to establish how much individuals wish to behave consistently with the prescriptions of important others. The normative belief (n) about a significant other is multiplied by the actors motivation to comply (m) with the significant other and the product is summed across all of the actors' significant others to result in a general measure that predicts subjective norms. Apart from being used to predict subjective norms, normative beliefs have also been useful in providing information on where intervention efforts should be focused. Using subjective norms to explain intentional behaviour requires obtaining a measure of the subjective norms, assigning them weights and establishing if the weights are of any significance to the intention.

2.2.5 Applicability and criticisms of TRA

Since its introduction, TRA has been extensively used in several empirical studies to explain behaviour (Prestholdt, Lane & Mathews, 1987; Fredricks & Dosset, 1983; Ngo, 2013). There has also been empirical credence reported on the strong relation between attitudes, subjective norms and behaviour (Sheppard, Hartwick & Warshaw, 1988; Quine & Rubin, 1997; Stone, Jawahar & Kisamore, 2010). In many cases, a person's attitude and subjective norms toward a behaviour have been presented as sufficient determinants of their performance of the behaviour (Bowman & Fishbein, 1978).

Positive attitude and social norm indicate a strong likelihood of performing the behaviour (Glanz, Lewis & Rimer, 1997). Several other analyses have shown that TRA is a useful model to predict behaviour (Robinson & Doverspike, 2006). This is

also strengthened by the assumptions and methodological approaches of TRA which have been viewed as more constrained and present a less flawed approach to explaining behaviour. This led to the conclusion that "the model yields stable predictions" of behaviour (Ryan & Bonfield, 1975: 125; Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988; Kim & Hunter, 1993).

Despite its credence and success in empirical applications, TRA has also faced criticism focused on some of its main tenets and the completeness of its components. While several studies have reported significant relationships between attitude, subjective norm and behaviour (Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988; Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1992; Albarracin, Johnson & Fishbein, 2001; De Boer, 2003), there are other studies that challenge the validity of these relationships (Wicker, 1969; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). There have been suggestions that more constructs need to be added to strengthen the explanatory power of TRA (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). One of the criticisms has been on the relationship between intentions and behaviour, a key tenet of TRA. While there have been many studies supporting the existence of a strong relationship between intentions and behaviour (Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988; De Boer, 2003; Fishbein & Stasson, 1990), others have suggested that the relationship between intentions and behaviour is rather weak (McQuarrie & Langmeyer, 1987) and may not sufficiently explain behaviour. Attitudes and subjective norms are also shown to be related to intentions and to behaviour but the exact nature and strength of these relations are still uncertain (Gooding, 1994).

It has also been argued that in explaining behaviour, TRA sees a person through his rationality and not his humanity (Heap et.al, 1992). This assumption that human beings are rational, systematically utilizing and processing information when deciding what action to take has been criticized as ignoring human limitations on information processing and handling that would make them rational. Though TRA assumes that people can cope with much information, there have been arguments

that there are limits to how much information one can handle. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) concurred with this but argued that it does not undermine the logic of TRA.

There have been other arguments that though TRA views human beings as rational, this is only to some extent: their rationality is bounded. From systematic observation in organizations, scant evidence of behaviour based on rationality emerges (Jones 1985). This was also based on the notion that TRA ignores the fact that intentions, ends and preferences, which are core in rational behaviour, are neither givens nor stable and as such, may change (Elster, 1987). Further, for it to hold, it requires complete knowledge and anticipation of the consequences of behaviours which is always hard to attain. In view of these, Simon (1982) argued for 'bounded rationality': individuals behave rationally, but within some bounds which compel them to settle for satisficing rather than optimizing (Heap et al. 1992) their preferences or outcomes of their behaviours. Bounded rationality thus argues that though humans are rational, goal oriented and adaptive, they sometimes fail in making decisions due to their cognitive and emotional architecture. Because perfect knowledge never exists, it means that all choices imply risk. Human behaviour is quite complex to be understood from this perspective alone. However, Fishbein & Ajzen (2010: 24) explain that the term *reasoned action* does not mean that they consider actors to be rational and to deliberate at length before engaging in any behaviour. According to them, the theoretical framework does not assume rationality but encompass both deliberate and spontaneous decision making.

Related to the above, the other challenge with the theory has come from its reliance on cognitive structures to explain behaviour. Such reliance would mean that the theory does not recognise connections between individuals within the social contexts in which they act. It argues that though the theory recognises social norms, their measurement is confined to a limited consideration of individual perceptions of these social phenomena and thus making it difficult to predict how individuals are likely to behave (Vallerand, Deshaies,Cuerrier, Pelletier, & Mongeau, 1992). A

further criticism has been that TRA assumes that when one forms the intention to act, they will act without any limitation. This might at times not hold. Even if attitudes and subjective norms are positive, other constraints can prevent behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:64; Cheng & Ho, 2001). TRA can adequately predict behaviours that are relatively straight forward and under volitional control within circumstances where there are no other constraints to action. But not all behaviours are under volitional control. At times constraints, both personal and environmental could constrain execution of behaviour even if one has positive intentions towards the behaviour (Cheng & Ho, 2001; Hungerford & Volk, 1990).

These criticisms have led to the need for extension of TRA to add more predictors of behaviour, especially for non-volitional behaviours instead of just relying on attitudes and social norms which could mainly apply in explaining volitional behaviours where individuals have complete control. There are additional variables to further constrain the model to strengthen its power to explain behaviour. The next section discusses such an 'extended TRA model': the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB).

2.3   Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) was developed by Ajzen in 1988 to address some limitations of TRA. While TRA best explains volitional behaviour, TPB explains behaviours in which individuals did not have complete volitional control (Godin & Kok, 1996). Unlike TRA, it recognises that not all behaviour is completely voluntary and under one's control. TPB is one of the most widely endorsed models of understanding human behaviour (Ajzen, 2011: 113) as it sees behaviour as being on a continuum from one of total control to one of complete lack of control. One may have a strong intention to perform a behaviour but be inhibited from performing that behaviour by particular conditions. Attitudes and subjective norms on their own could not explain intentions to perform a behaviour in cases where the actor does not have complete control to perform the behaviour. The lack of actual

control may prevent intention to lead to the expected behaviour. For example, sickness can prevent someone from voting on election day, although one has a strong intention to vote. Moreover, in anticipating the possible consequences of conditions that may constrain or facilitate behaviour, the perception of such condition could affect the intention to perform a behaviour. Thus, behavioural control -actual or perceived- can affect the intention or the relationship between intention and behaviour.

2.3.1   Perceived Behavioural Control

The introduction of *Perceived Behavioural Control* (PBC) as the third determinant of behaviour, in addition to *attitude* and *subjective norm*, is a key component of TPB (Ajzen, 1991; 1985). It helps to understand and explain non-volitional elements of behaviour. PBC refers to the degree to which an individual feels that the performance of the behaviour in question is or is not under his or her volitional control. It is concerned with the actor's perception of his ability or of potential constraints to perform the behaviour (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Fishbein & Ajzen 2010:64).Thus a high level of PBC should intensify the individual's possibility to perform the behaviour and a low level of PBC is likely to affect an intention negatively. Generally, the more favourable the attitude and subjective norm and the greater the perceived behavioural control, the stronger a person's intention and possibility to perform a behaviour. Figure 2.2 below illustrates how perceived behavioural control (PBC) explains behaviour in cases where the actor does not have volitional control.

Figure 2.2: The TPB Model (adapted from Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010:22)

Background Factors
Individual
Personality
Mood,
EmotionValues,
Stereotypes
General Attitudes
Perceived risk
Past behavior

Social
Education
Age, gender
Income
Religion
Race, ethnicity
Culture

Information
Knowledge
Media
Intervention

Behavioral Beliefs

Normative Beliefs

Control Beliefs

Attitude Toward the Behavior (A)

Subjective Norm (SN)

Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC)

Intention

Behaviour

Based on our framework depicted in Figure 2.2, behavioural control can influence intention to perform behaviour and behaviour in two different ways. The first is the PBC-intention relationship. The magnitude of this relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention is dependent on the type of behaviour and the situation (Ajzen, 1991). The second is the effect actual behavioural control can have on the relationship between intention and behaviour.

In the first instance, perceived behavioural control takes into consideration how difficult a behaviour is perceived to be and the perception of how successfully the individual can or cannot perform the behaviour. When one believes that one has manageable obstacles to encounter (thus exhibit a high degree of perceived behavioural control), one should have confidence in the ability to perform the behaviour (Bandura, 1991:169). On the other hand if, one thinks obstacles are not manageable, then it might affect the intention to perform a behaviour.

PBC takes consideration of control factors which can be both internal and external and could inhibit or facilitate the performance of a behaviour. The presence of strong control beliefs about the existence of factors that will facilitate a behaviour makes the individual to have high perceived control over a behaviour. *Internal controls* are personal and include factors such as skills, abilities, information and even emotions. It has been argued that even with a positive attitude and subjective norm, one may not perform a behaviour if one believes not to have the skills, ability or adequate information needed to perform the behaviour (Yzer, 2012). *External controls* are situational factors or organizational dynamics which influence people's perception of the ease or difficulty of performing a behaviour and as a result of that affect intention (Ajzen, 1991; Barr & Gilg, 2007). Situationalism views people's behaviors as more influenced by situational or external factors than by internal traits. It sees behaviour to be socially determined by context, influenced by circumstances, external expectations, and societal environment and by norms and values of the society in which one is born and raised (Jensen & Meckling, 1994:15).

In the second instance, actual behavioural control can have a mediating role on the relationship between intention and behaviour. The inclusion of behavioural controls strengthen the relationship between intentions and behaviours. Intentions would be expected to lead to the performance of a behaviour to the extent that the person has actual behavioural control. When actual control is high then it is much more likely that the actor will perform the behaviour (i.e. execute the intention). People's behaviours are largely seen to be dependent on the actual ability to perform that behaviour. This refers to the moderating role of actual behavioural control regarding the intention-behaviour relation such that intentions will predict behaviour worse when actual control is low (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010:65). People are less likely to perform a behaviour if they do not have control, resources, and abilities to perform the behaviour (Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1998).

It is only when there is control over behavioural performance that intentions are good predictors of behaviours (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010:65). Actual control improves the prediction of behaviour as it considers the degree to which the individual actually has control over performing the behaviour. Just like with the other constructs, perceived behavioural control has to be conceptualized and assessed in accordance with the principle of compatibility involving target, action, context, and time elements (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010:155). The TPB brings in the assumption that with greater *perceived behavioural control* in addition to a favourable *attitude* and *subjective norm,* there would be more likelihood of performing the behaviour. TPB does not negate the tenets of TRA but further strengthens it. On its own, TRA cannot fully account for behaviours where one does not have volitional control. In such cases, this weakness of TRA is addressed by adding PBC to the model, for a more comprehensive explanation of behaviour.

2.3.2   *Beliefs and background factors*

Background factors such as age, gender, ethnicity, income, education, religion, past experiences, and skills can also influence the beliefs that people hold. These factors may influence behavioural, normative and control beliefs. People who come from

different backgrounds with varying personal experiences can form different beliefs with respect to one behavior but the same or similar beliefs with respect to another. A given background would thus be associated with the performance of a behaviour only to the extent that the background factor is related to the behavioural, normative or control beliefs that serve as the determinants of the behaviour under consideration.

It has been argued that we should consider the background factors only if we have reason to believe that people who vary in terms of that factor may have been exposed to different experiences and thus may have formed different behaviour-relevant beliefs. Much research has focused on attitudinal and personality dispositions as well as on background factors to understand the likely origins of behavioural, normative and control beliefs. We would argue that the relevance of including background factors depends on the aims of the study. If one is interested in (in-depth) understanding of attitudes and beliefs systems, then background factors should play a significant role. If however the research goal is to predict or explain (intentional) behaviour, then the determination of the attitude, social norm and perceived behavioural control suffices. This study on leadership styles of Kenyan deans and the effects of these styles on staff commitment will not use background factors to explain the attitudes and subjective norms of the deans as that is not the object of this study. We are not interested in why deans hold particular beliefs about leadership styles, we are 'only' interested in explaining their leadership styles for which we have to explore the beliefs they hold and not why they hold them. We however relied on some background variables to control for in the relationship between attitudes and behaviour as this is the interest of this study.

2.3.3   *Applicability of Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)*

TPB has been applied successfully in several studies (Ajzen & Madden, 1986; Hrubes & Ajzen, 2001). The addition of perceived behavioural control to attitude and subjective norms as determinants of intention strengthens the capacity of the model and makes it more robust to explain and predict behaviour. Many studies (Ajzen & Madden, 1986; Kraft, Rise & Sutton, 2005; Hrubes, Ajzen & Daigle, 2001) have indicated significant relationships between intention and perceived

behavioural control making the TPB model a more enhanced approach for explaining behaviour.

There remain however some criticisms of TPB with claims that it does not explain human behaviour adequately (Wegner & Wheatley, 2009:408). Yzer (2012:103) has also argued that the empirical support against the moderation effects of PBC on behaviour is not strong enough to justify that PBC can affect behaviour directly. It has further been claimed that even the addition of perceived behavioural control does not say much about actual control of behaviour. It has also been claimed that the theory does not consider other factors such as fear, threat, mood or past experiences that could influence a person's behaviour. The TPB also does not address the time frame between intention and behaviour, a factor that can actually impact on behaviour.

Despite all these, TPB remains quite a plausible approach to explain behaviour mainly due to precise operationalization of theoretical constructs and the causal processes through which they affect behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Taylor & Todd, 1997). According to Ajzen (1991) and Fishbein and Ajzen (2010), TPB is a general theory that can be used to explain all kinds of intentional social behaviour. It assumes that when people are confronted with the need to decide on a course of action, they consider the likely consequences of available options (behavioural beliefs), weigh the normative expectations of their significant referents (normative beliefs), and consider the required resources and potential impediments or obstacles (control beliefs) (Bamberg, Ajzen & Schmidt, 2003: 5).

2.4.   Leadership and commitment

2.4.1   *The effects of leadership*

The TPB model, presented in the previous section was applied to answer the second research question of this study, focusing on the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans. For the second part of this study, addressing the third research question concerning the effects of the leadership styles of the deans on staff commitment in the faculties, another theoretical approach has been used. The next chapter addresses leadership and the way it has been approached in this study in greater detail. In this section, we present the theory for explaining the relationship between the leadership styles and commitment.

Our point of departure for this second part of this study is that leadership, generally understood to be a means of using power and interpersonal influence to make people follow, hold together and work towards organizational goals (Roberts, 1989; Stogdill, 1974), should have an effect on staff commitment. 'Bad' leadership is assumed to harm staff commitment, while the consequence of 'good' leadership would be more commitment and hence better performance of the organization (Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993; Benkhoff, 1997). Enhancing organizational commitment and performance is in other words one of the main goals of leadership (Bass, 1985; Goleman 2000:4; Lumby, 2012; Thompson, 2000; Hasbullah, 2008; Sheldon, 1971).

In this study, we take the position that it is one of the tasks of leadership to ensure and enhance organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Lambert & Hogan, 2009; Mowday, 1979:8; Stum, 1999). Organizational commitment is the result of various factors such as personal traits, job characteristics, and organizational features, including the exercise of leadership (Benkhoff, 1997; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993). Leaders could be more effective and successful in achieving organizational goals by impacting on the commitment of their staff and followers (Lumby, 2012) to perform beyond expectation (Avolio, 1999; Conger & Kanungo, 1998). It is therefore not surprising that the effects of

leadership on organizational commitment has been a subject of several studies (Griffin & Bateman, 1986; Gong, Law, Chang & Xin, 2009; Conway & Monks, 2009; Goleman, 2001; Hasbullah, 2008).

These and other studies indicate that leadership styles impact on commitment of staff in different ways (Nyengane, 2007; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986; Bass, 1985; Sahin, Akyurek & Yavuz, 2014; Li, Sanders, & Frenkel, 2012; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang & Lawler, 2005; Sahin, Akyurek & Yavuz, 2014). It has been argued for instance that the effect of an authentic, caring and ethical leadership style is more trust and engagement among the followers (Hannah, Avolio and Walumbwa, 2011), whereas others argue that leadership styles characterized as being inspiring, motivating, visionary, and creative lead to more commitment (Burns, 1978; Li, Sanders, & Frenkel, 2012; Kent & Challedurai, 2001; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993; Yeh & Hong, 2012; Matteson & Irving, 2006; Drury, 2004). Servant leadership (Klegg, Kornberger & Rhodes, 2007), which is viewed to be quite close to transformational leadership has also been considered as eliciting more follower or employee commitment especially due to its focus on the interests of the followers including for their personal and professional growth (Matteson & Irving, 2006; Drury, 2004). Such perceived organizational support to employees has the strongest positive relationship to commitment and is consistent with the findings of Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986) which suggest that supportive work environments enhance employee commitment. As such, they argue that managers interested in fostering commitment amongst their staff could find it useful to invest in organizational support to employees. Transactional leadership on the other hand gains commitment of staff by exchange of rewards and appealing to their self-interests (Bass, 1985).

This body of research indicates that leadership styles impact on commitment of staff in different ways. In evaluating how the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans impact on the commitment of their staff, we discuss below our model of organizational commitment that we will then relate to the leadership styles of the deans.

2.4.2   Organizational commitment: The Three Component Model (TCM)

Commitment is still one of the most challenging concepts in the field of organizational behaviour and management (Cohen, 2007; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Kinnine &Swart, 2012). It has been understood to refer to the willingness of employees to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organization, as a strong desire by employees to stay in the organization and an acceptance by employees of the major goals and values of the organization (Porter, Crampon & Smith, 1976; Sheldon, 1971). It is therefore the willingness of staff to give their energy, loyalty and some level of belongingness to the organization (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982: 27). This willingness of staff is an important force in binding individuals to actions targeting organizational goals (Meyer & Herscovirtch, 2001). In this view, employee commitment aligns individual goals with those of the organization making employees willing to work harder to achieve the goals of the organization. With higher levels of commitment, employees become members of the organization who put in effort that go beyond normal expectations (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995; Steyrer, Schiffinger & Lang, 2008:366; Abdul-Rashid, Sambasivan & Johari, 2003).

One of the most well-known conceptualisations of commitment is the Three Component Model (TCM). This model of commitment arose after several attempts towards a model for better understanding, measurement and evaluation of organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). It views commitment as a psychological state that has three components that reflect a *desire*, a *need* and an *obligation* to maintain membership with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991:61). It is now widely accepted that commitment is a multidimensional construct, whose components and consequences vary across its dimensions (Mayer & Allen, 1991). As a multidimensional construct TCM distinguishes three components of commitment: the *affective*, *normative* and *continuance* component. The three components are important in understanding the impacts of commitment on employee retention, on-the-job behaviour and job performance (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Allen & Meyer, 1997).

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Affective Commitment (AC) reflects emotional ties one attaches to an organization, involvement with the organization, its goals and their work in the organization, making them to want to stay in the organization (Rosseau, 1989; Allen & Meyer, 1997:45). Employees with strong affective commitment are supportive and strongly attached to the organization because they *want* to do so. Affective commitment is important for dedication and strong involvement with the organization (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001; Beck & Wilson, 2000).

Normative Commitment (NC) is based on obligations, loyalty and sense of duty that one feels for the organization (Bolon, 1993; Wiener & Vardi, 1980:86) and is close to a moral obligation as they feel it is the proper thing to do, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the organization gives them (Wierner & Vardi, 1980). It is influenced by accepted rules about reciprocal obligations between the organization and its members (Suliman & Iles, 2000). It is the feeling or perception that they have to be committed to the organization; they should be committed as it is expected from them.

The last component is *Continuance Commitment* (CC), which is based on the perceived social and economic costs related to leaving the organization. Employees may want to stay in an organization because the costs of leaving are greater than its benefits. This is well explained by the side-bet theory of commitment (Becker, 1960), which views commitment as the accumulation of investments valued by an individual that would be lost if one decided to leave the organization. Employees whose commitment is based on continuance would stay with the organization because they *need* to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1984; Cohen & Lowenberg, 1990). This type of commitment is instrumental and calculative in nature because employees have to weigh the costs and risks associated with leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997:11). Since we are interested in commitment, not turnover, but staying with the organization, we will assume that people who do not want to leave an organization are more committed than those who want to leave. Similarly, those

who want to leave but have difficulties to leave because of the associated costs of leaving are also supposed to be less committed than those who do not want to leave due to their own volition.

Thus, in contrast to many studies that use the TCM to investigate organizational turnover, in our study we are not directly interested in the question whether and why members want to stay or leave the organization. Nevertheless, as we are interested in commitment, engagement and involvement, the continuance component is useful. We would argue that some staff members – those who do not consider leaving because they have a desire to stay) -- are highly committed to the organisation. But others – those who (desperately) want to but cannot leave (as the costs are too high or when there are no opportunities available) -- are likely to be less committed. Thus, in our study the continuance component may be either positively or negatively related to organisational commitment. Likewise, Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolynytsky (2001) ascertained that affective commitment has the strongest and most favourable correlation with attendance, performance and organization citizenship behaviour. Moreover, they argue that continuance commitment was unrelated or related negatively to organizational outcomes. Affective commitment is therefore expected to have the strongest positive relation to commitment, followed by normative commitment, while the effect of continuance commitment is expected to be more ambiguous.

2.4.3 Applicability of the TCM-model

TCM ties together three separate streams of earlier commitment research (Allen & Meyer, 1990) and is regarded as the most dominant model in organizational commitment research (Cohen, 2007). It has been widely used to understand commitment, performance and job satisfaction in organizations (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Allen & Meyer 1996; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Cullen & Parboteeah, 2003; Brammer, Millington & Rayton, 2007). The TCM-model has however faced

some controversies. These controversies mainly concern the number of components and the interrelatedness of the three components.

According to Cohen (2007), the model also suffers from conceptual ambiguity of continuance commitment and the concept redundancy between normative and affective commitment. Based on these limitations he proposed a new approach to commitment based on two dimensions of which one is instrumental while the other is affective in nature. The TCM model is illustrated in Figure 2.3 below.

Figure 2.3:   *The Three Components Model (TCM) of commitment*
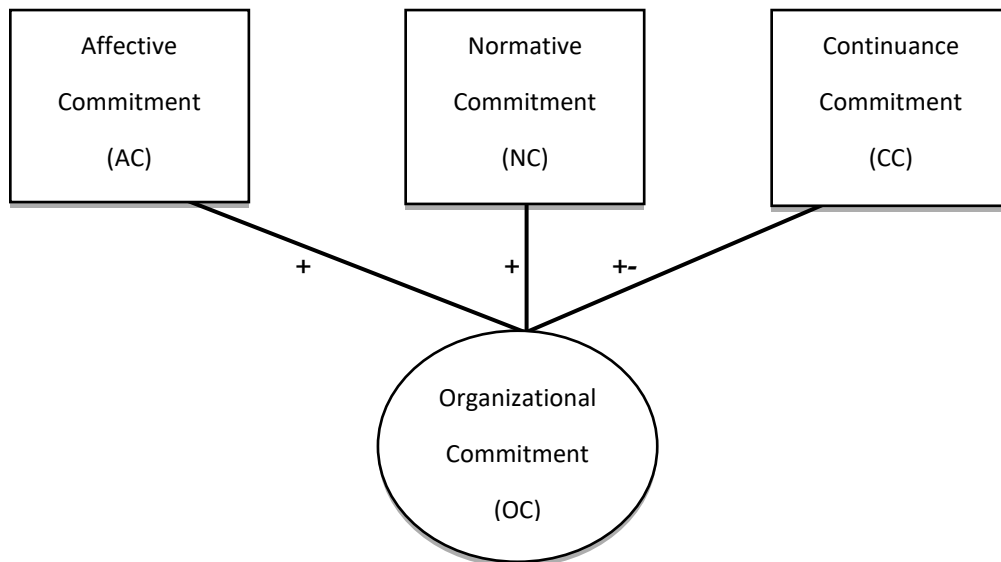
We take notice of these controversies as regards the TCM, especially concerning the continuance component, but we will follow the model as such, although our assumptions regarding the continuance commitment are slightly different than in most other research (as mentioned, we are not interested in turnover and leaving the

organisations as such). Thus, as shown in figure 2.3, affective commitment and normative commitment should have positive (+) effect while continuance commitment could imply both positive and negative effects (+-) on staff commitment. As Allen & Meyer (1990) argue the net sum of a person's commitment to the organization has to reflect each of these separate aspects of commitment. Some employees can experience both a strong need and obligation to work for the organization, but not have an intense desire to do so. Others may feel neither desire nor strong obligation, but having a strong desire to be dedicated to their jobs.

In other words, all three components, and the relative weights attached to them, may inform us about a person's commitment. The weights have to be empirically determined. The three components of commitment can be experienced in varying degrees. If they are all experienced at higher levels by employees in an organization, then their overall commitment would be higher, leading to possibilities of more success for the organization and vice versa. Linked to leadership styles, the focus of our study, it means that different leadership styles could influence these three components of commitment differently.

2.5   Summary of the theoretical model of our study

As discussed in the previous sections, our theoretical framework is composed of two parts. The first part is the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) which enables us to explain the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans which is useful in responding to the first two research questions of this study. TPB provides one of the most robust approaches to explaining the leadership styles of the deans. As we have discussed in section 2.3.3, the theory is supported by empirical evidence that intention to perform a behaviour can be predicted with high accuracy from attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1985; 1987).

We adopted the TPB model in one important way. As discussed earlier in this chapter many argue that there is a strong relationship between intention and behaviour. Following this reasoning we only focused on categorical behaviour (the dean's leadership style) and left the intention towards a leadership style aside. In other words, we assume in our theoretical model that a deans' style of leadership will be explained by attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural controls towards a leadership style. A further implication of this simplification of the model is that we will not take into account the actual behavioural controls, but 'only' focus on perceived controls.

The second part of the model is based on the Three Component Model (TCM) of organizational commitment. Our assumption is that the leadership styles of deans, to be discovered in the first part of the study, have an impact on the three components of organizational commitment. Some leadership styles of the deans could lead to more staff commitment than others, or more on one of the three component than on others. In this second part of the study, commitment will be the dependent variable and leadership style the independent one.

The TCM perceives commitment as composed of three components i.e. affective, continuance and normative commitment. We assume that leadership styles vary in their influence on these three aspects of staff commitment. We thus explored the effects of the different leadership styles of the deans on the different aspects of commitment. The full model of our theoretical framework postulate that attitudes, social norms and perceived behavioural control determine leadership styles of the deans and that the leadership styles of the deans impacts on staff commitment in the faculties. The complete model is illustrated in figure 2.4.

Fig 2.4   *The combined TPB and TCM Model*
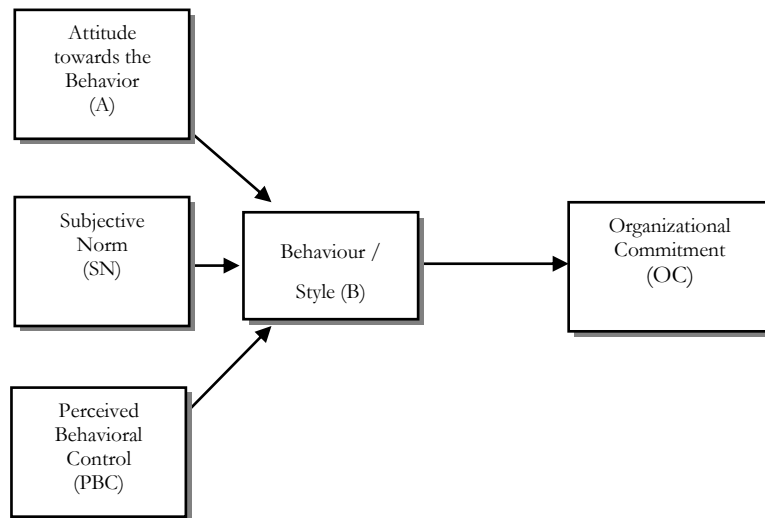
So far leadership styles have not been discussed in detail. This will be done in the next chapter. After discussing the leadership styles, we will return to our conceptual model and formulate hypotheses and expectations with respect to both parts of the study.

3 Using the Competing Values Framework (CVF) to specify the theoretical framework

This chapter discusses the Competing Values Framework (CVF) which is useful for the application of our theoretical framework. We will discuss the four quadrants of the CVF model and their respective leadership roles which are useful in our discussion and interpretation of the leadership styles of the deans in Kenyan universities. The chapter begins with a conceptualization of leadership and discusses some theories and styles of leadership and how they apply in different organization types. The second part introduces the Competing Values Framework and discusses its main tenets, implications to organizational leadership and application to this study. The third part relates the CVF to our theoretical model while the last section summarizes the chapter.

3.1 Introduction to leadership: theories and styles

Our study is about leadership, a much discussed and rather complex phenomenon to conceptualize but which has been subject to numerous definitions and interpretations (Middlehurst, 1993; Stogdil, 1974). It is also one of the most researched social phenomena (Bass, 1994; Kotter, 1999; Madsen, 2001; Barrow, 1977; Jago, 1982; Yukl, 1981; Northouse; 1997; Bolden, 2004). Never the less, the need for effective leadership has been perennial and is still perceived as a critical panacea to organizational challenges (Middlehurst, 1993; Bolden, 2004). In organizational contexts, the term leadership is derived from Latin and means "to lead", "to guide" or "to pull" (Rost, 1991). It generally means using power and interpersonal influence to make people follow, hold together and work towards organizational goals (Roberts, 1989; Stogdill, 1974). Leaders influence their followers using a variety of

methods including facilitation, coaching, mentoring, directing and delegating and use a variety of styles depending on the situation of the organization and their personal norms and skills. Leadership is seen as an important aspect of the directing component of management and is therefore one of the assets a successful manager must possess (Mintzberg, 1979).

This chapter begins with a general introduction on leadership theories and leadership styles. This introduction of leadership theories is not in any way exhaustive. It however provides a broad overview of the different views and main issues in research on leadership. The next part discusses the Competing Values Framework (CVF), a useful approach for analysing several aspects in organizations including leadership, effectiveness and performance (Yang & Melitski, 2007; Cameron, Quinn, DeGraff & Thakor, 2014). We bring in the CVF especially to specify our theoretical framework discussed in Chapter 2. The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) requires the behaviours of interest to be specified, defined and understood (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). The CVF model defines the values that underlie the different leadership behaviours and roles that organizational leaders can perform, making it useful and relevant to our study. Moreover, the specification and operationalization of the CVF has led to widely tested and accepted tools and instruments for conducting the empirical research.

3.1.1 Theoretical approaches to leadership

Our study recognises that there are several theoretical perspectives to leadership. These approaches range from personality traits and behaviour of the leader, the power and influence relation between the leader and followers and even to the exchange processes between leaders and organization members in general (Madsen, 2001; Kotter, 1999; Bass 1994). They present varied conceptualizations of leadership, leader behaviours, leadership styles, personal attributes and relations between leaders and followers. In a number of instances, some attributes of one theory permeate into the other.

The *trait approach* to leadership focuses on specific personality traits that differentiate leaders from non-leaders (Yukl, 1989; Rost, 1991). It originated from the 'great man' theory which assumes that leaders are born with inherited characteristics suited for leadership (Bolden, 2004) including intelligence, status, self-confidence, achievement, responsibility, emotional maturity, tolerance, knowledge, fluency in speech and at times, physical characteristics (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 1989; Bennis 1998: 3; Sadler, 1997; Thompson, 2000).

The *behaviour approach* which followed the trait approach assumes that leaders are made, not born, and that successful leadership is based on learnable behaviours (Burns, 1978). It emphasises on effective leader behaviours that could be learnt and discovered by observing leaders in action or by asking subordinates about the behaviours of leaders (Mintzberg, 1973; Rost, 1991; Bryman, Gillingwater & McGuiness, 1996; Stogdill, 1948; Madsen, 2001).

The *contingency (situational) approach* contributed much to what constitute effective leadership behaviours in different situations or contexts (Bolden, 2004; Pierce, 1995) by viewing leadership as a product of interaction between the situation, the leader and followers (Smirich & Morgani, 1982).This is extended in Fielder's *contingency theory*, in which important situational dimensions can influence a leader's effectiveness mainly based on the quality of relationships and relative power positions between the leader and followers(Fiedler, 1996).

In House's *path goal theory*, motivation is considered as central in leadership and suggests that leaders are expected to perform different leader styles to provide for general follower satisfaction, motivation and performance (House & Mitchell, 1974:141). Further to this, Bass (1994) in the *Full Range Model* of leadership divides leadership into three main styles termed *transactional*, *transformational* and *non-leadership* and argues that good leadership should exhibit the three in combination. This seems to be one of the most complete and well-tested contributions to the understanding of leadership (Madsen, 2001). It assumes that "there is a reciprocal

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relationship whereby leaders provide needed services to a group in exchange for the groups' approval and compliance with the leader's demands. It in a way moves the focus from the individual to the relationships between everyone in the organization and assumes that situations in which leaders find themselves, at times influence their behaviours. It is closer to the *power - influence approach* in which the relationship between the leader and the followers is a central point (Pierce & Newstrom, 1995; French & Raven, 1995). It deals with the role of power in influencing behaviour and goal attainment in organizations (Yukl, 1989; Madsen, 2001; Kotter, 1999; Pfeffer, 1981). Thus, to be powerful, one must have access to effective behavioural consequences and the skills to use them in an appropriately contingent manner (Goltz & Hietapelto, 2003).

Distributed leadership approach came as a result of the dissatisfaction with the existing leadership theories (Barry, 1991). It is suitable for studying self-governing teams as it views leadership as an emergent property of the group based on concerted action which is a product of conjoint activity. Where people work together, pool their expertise and initiative, the outcome is always greater than the sum of their individual actions. It sees leadership as a collection of roles and behaviours that can be split apart, shared and used sequentially or concomitantly (Barry, 1991).

In practice, however, there is no single theory that can fully explain all the circumstances of leadership. Each has its strengths and weaknesses and the choice as to which is accepted owes as much to personal beliefs and experience as to empirical evidence (Bolden, 2004). Generally from these theories we can conclude in one way that leadership is personal and could be dependent on some personal attributes or traits of the leader as demonstrated by the trait theories. The other conclusion could be that leadership can be about interactions between the leader and the followers or members of the organization as is in contingency theories. Lastly is that leadership is context bound and is thus determined by situational factors such as organizational context, organizational structure and organizational culture. Leadership is therefore about personality, interactions with others and is context dependent. This relates to our Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB),

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discussed in Chapter 2, which explains behaviour (leadership styles) based on attitude (self), subjective norms (context) and perceived behavioural control (self and context).

3.1.2 *Leadership styles*

Leadership can be executed in different ways often referred to as leadership styles. While the term *style* could seem understandable outright, it has been subject to different interpretations. Generally, it refers to a way, manner or mode of doing things within a given context (Hodder, 2013: 44-45). It at times also refers to historical, contextualized, repeated or even new and innovative ways of doing things. Hodder (2013) relates style to power that gives opportunity for control thus relating it closer to leadership. Chan (2000) sees style as repeated behaviour over time that reproduces similar forms of action, patterns or characteristics and thus has recognizable features in given contexts. From this discussion, leadership styles would generally refer to the repeated ways, patterns or manners of executing leadership roles in different contexts ('categorical behaviour', see Chapter 2). Because our study is on leadership styles, we give some insights into different leadership styles in the section below. These styles will also be important points of reference when we interpret the CVF model and finally the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans.

The way leaders manage groups of people and organizations towards fulfilling their objectives and goals (Thompson, 2000; Goleman, 2004) has led to the exploration of different styles of leadership (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Likert, 1961; Stogdill, 1974; Yukl, Wall, Lepsinger, & Clark, 1990; Yukl 1989; Ingraham, Sowa, & Moynihan, 2002). The classical thinking on leadership identifies autocratic, participative and laissez-faire as the three main leadership styles. However, other perspectives of leadership styles such as charismatic, visionary, transactional and transformational (Bolden, 2004; Yukl, 1989; Fiedler, 1996) have emerged as well.

The *authoritarian (autocratic) leadership* approach has been viewed to be characterized by absolute power and dominance of the leader who controls, gives detailed orders and makes decisions. The team is expected to be obedient to the leader who has full power in decision making. It is different from *participative (democratic) leadership* which involves subordinates in decision making with the expectation that this should lead to better decisions and more commitment to the decisions. Authority in this case is based on collegiality, specialization and expert judgment, with the leader serving at the pleasure of the group which also decides on important matters through avenues provided by the organization. This style promotes employee commitment, morale and gives them a feeling of importance and worth in the organization (Tost, Gino & Larrick, 2013).

Another leadership style is *delegative (laissez-faire) leadership* in which executives let subordinates make decisions but without losing control of the organization. The leader entrusts decision making to the followers but is still responsible for their actions (House & Aditya, 1997). *Charismatic leadership* on the other hand is based on the ability of the leader to get an intense moral commitment and a strong identification from subordinates. It calls for self-sacrifice, passion, risk taking, symbolism, loyalty, commitment, inspiration, and admiration. It gives the leader strong affection, commitment and identification from the subordinates. It falls within the trait approach to leadership where authority is based on unusual personal characteristics of the leader (House, 1989; Stogdill, 1974).

Transformational leadership motivates followers to transcend own self-interests and give commitment to organizational goals and trust the leader (Burns, 1978). It is a process of empowering employees to participate in initiating change and transforming the organization (Bass, 1994). Transformative leaders are charismatic (Weber, 1946 in Gerth & Mills, 2009) and increase subordinates awareness of the importance of their tasks, their accomplishments and their needs for personal growth (Bass, 1985).Tichy and Devana (1986) view transformational leadership as

courageous, visionary, value-driven change agents and believers in people. *Transactional leadership* on the other hand has been viewed as an exchange of rewards for compliance in which followers are motivated by appealing to their self-interests. Transactional leaders approach their followers with an aim of trading one thing for another. It is related to bureaucratic authority, which emphasizes legitimate power and respect for rules and tradition (Burns 1978). It is not necessarily mutually exclusive from transformational leadership as the same leader can use both types of processes at different times or situations (Madsen, 2001). Bennis (1998) sees transformational leadership as "doing the right thing" while transactional leadership as "doing things right". Good leaders help change their institutions, not through transformation and the articulation of new goals or values, but through transactions that emphasize selected values already in place and move the institution toward attaining them (Bass, 1985; Birnbaum, 1986).

Drawing from the above discussion, it is recognizable that many leadership styles do exist and that they vary considerably with no one style being the right one for every leader or all circumstances. Choice of a leadership style thus depends on a number of factors including the individual characteristics and attributes of the leader, the situation, the followers, task, organization type and other environmental variables. Some studies (Burman & Zeplin, 2005; King & Grace, 2006) have indicated that leaders with the best outcomes do not rely only on one leadership style but use a variety of styles seamlessly and in different measures and situations. Leadership styles are thus viewed as an array of golf clubs in a professional's bag with the professional golfer choosing his clubs based on the demands of the shot (Goleman, 2000:4). As Fiedler (1996) sums it, there is no single best way to lead and no one individual is the best leader in all circumstances. Goleman (2000) argues that the best leaders do not know just one style of leadership but are skilled in several and have the flexibility to switch between styles as their circumstances dictate. This is actually one of the main tenets of the Competing Values Framework (CVF) which is discussed in the next part of this chapter.

3. 2   The Competing Values Framework (CVF)

The Competing Values Framework (CVF) developed from a series of studies on indicators of organizational effectiveness (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). It was intended to clarify the complex and paradoxical nature of organizational leadership, effectiveness, organizational culture, values, and organizational change (Densten & Gray, 2003). Quinn (1988) demonstrated that the two axes (*control-flexibility* and *internal-external* axes) that make up the CVF were very insightful to describe organizational effectiveness and were then developed to be the two main dimensions of organization effectiveness. The basic framework consists of these two dimensions that express the tensions or "competing values" that exist in all organizations. The first dimension (internal-external focus) maps the degree to which an organization focuses inwards or outwards. It differentiates an internal focus stressing integration and unity from an external focus emphasising differentiation and competition (environment). The second dimension (control-flexibility) represents the contrast between stability and control and flexibility and change. In a nutshell, the CVF is concerned with whether an organization has a predominant internal or external focus and whether it strives for flexibility and change or stability and control (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Cooper &Quinn, 1993; Cameron & Quinn, 1999). These dimensions illustrate the underlying value orientation that characterise organizations. These are diagrammatically illustrated by Fig 3.1.

Figure 3.1The dimensions of the Competing Values Framework

F L	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
E X I B I L I T Y	Human Relations Model (Clan culture) *Focus: cohesion, team work, trust, belongingness, human resource development.*	Open Systems Model (Adhocracy culture) *Focus: adaptability, flexibility, external focus, growth, resource acquisition*
C O N T R O L	Internal Process Model (Hierarchy culture) *Focus: information management, communication, control, internal focus*	Rational Goal Model (Market culture) *Focus: competition, production, winning, planning, goal setting, external focus*

Drawing from the two axes depicted in Fig.3.1, the horizontal dimension maps the degree to which an organization focuses inward or outward. To the left, attention is mainly inwards, within the organization while to the right the focus is outwards towards external stakeholders or environment. Internal focus is important for organizations in which competition or external stakeholders are not as crucial. On the other hand, where competition and external stakeholders are key, the focus has to be external (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Cooper & Quinn, 1993). The vertical dimension on the other hand, illustrates the extent to which an organization focuses on flexibility or control. Some organizations become effective when they emphasise on flexibility and adaptability while for others it is the emphasis on stability and control that lead to organizational success (Quinn & Kimberley, 1984). Similarly, for some organizations, the key success factor is the maintenance of efficient internal processes, while for others it is important to maintain a competitive external positioning.

In other words, the CVF rejects the notion of a 'one-size-fits-all' approach. Thus, one dimension represents a continuum ranging from versatility and pliability on one end to consistency and durability on the other end. The second dimension differentiates an orientation towards a focus on internal capability and the integration and unity of processes on one hand and an orientation toward a focus on external opportunities on the other (Cameron, Quinn Degraff & Thakor, 2006:8-9). The CVF model is therefore applicable in making sense of a variety of organizational phenomena including structure, quality, leadership and management.

3. 2.1   *The competing and contradictory quadrants of the CVF*

When combined the two dimensions of the CVF are visualised as four quadrants labelled as the *human relations*, *open systems*, *rational goal* and *internal processes* respectively (see Figure 3.1). These models represent important streams in organization theory. The two upper quadrants (human relations and open system model) share an emphasis on flexibility and dynamism while the two bottom ones

(rational goal and internal process model) share an emphasis on flexibility and control. The two left hand quadrants (human relations and internal process model) focus on internal capacity while the two right hand ones (open systems and rational goal model) focus on external opportunity (Cameron, Quinn Degraff & Thakor, 2006). Together, they define the core values on which judgements about organizations are made. Each quadrant therefore represents basic assumptions, orientations and values of an organization.

The CVF received its name from the competing, contradictory and conflicting messages of its four quadrants, which require organizations to be adaptable and flexible, while at the same time being stable and controlled (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981; 83; Cameron & Quinn, 1999). While organizations are expected to maintain stability and integration by paying strong attention to their internal workings and procedures, they are at the same time expected to be responsive and adaptive by responding to the pressures coming from the external environment. They thus operate under the burden of contradictory, competing and conflicting expectations but which are contributing to organizational success and that of their leaders (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

The four quadrants represent four sets of values that guide organizational tasks and are expressed differently in the life of organizations (Quinn, 1988). The quadrants represent perceptual differentiations, though the CVF does not suggest that these oppositions cannot coexist in an organization even with some being more dominant than others (Kimberly & Quinn, 1984). According to Quinn (1988), balance among these competing values and dysfunctional objectives, determines the success of organizations. To successfully manage these contradictions and ambiguities, organizational leaders must learn to deal with them wholly, rather than choose between them (Quinn & Rohbaugh, 1983). As Cameron and Quinn (2006) argue, coping with the changing environments of the twenty-first century environments

require constant adaptability and flexibility and also predictability and reliability to produce lasting value.

The model presents the way people organize and lead others through the four quadrants and highlights the inherent tensions and contradictions that organizations and leaders face as they navigate their complex and changing environments. It presents a theory on how the various aspects of organizations function in simultaneous harmony and tension with one another and helps to identify a set of guidelines that can enable leaders to diagnose and manage the interrelationships, congruencies and contradictions among the different aspects of the organization. It therefore helps leaders to work comprehensively in improving the performance of their organizations (Cameron, Quinn, Degraff & Thakor, 2006).

3.2.2   The CVF and organizational effectiveness

Organizations are purposeful systems that exist to achieve certain goals (Chaffee, 1988) and attend to many other demands, which are assumed to be simultaneously important. Organizational effectiveness has been one of the most sought out yet elusive of research subjects since the early developments of organizational theory (Rojas, 2000). It has however been considered a critical concept in organizational theory and has been commonly defined as the extent to which organizations accomplish their goals or missions (Densten & Gray, 2003). Organizations and systems need to address three kinds of effectiveness: *goal achievement*, *resource acquisition* and *constituent satisfaction* (Chaffee, 1987) which have to be accompanied with strategy whose basic premise is that organizations and their environments are inseparable.

Chaffee (1987) identifies three main approaches to organizational strategies for effectiveness: *linear strategy, adaptive strategy* and *interpretative strategy*. Leaders who are *linear strategists* believe that effective action results from rational decision making, gathering and analyzing data, formulating alternative actions, projecting

outcomes and focusing on internal factors and giving less attention to the environment. The a*daptive strategists* align their organizations with the environment, monitor the environment for threats and opportunities, and change their organization's programs into new environmental niches. The *interpretative strategists* on the other hand are concerned with how people see, understand and feel about their organizations. They try to shape the values, symbols and emotions influencing individual behaviours by explaining and clarifying organizational purpose (Chaffee & Tierney, 1988).

The CVF developed initially from research conducted on the major indicators of effective organizations. Quinn (1988) characterised organizations as complex, dynamic and contradictory systems in which managers had to fulfil many competing expectations and adapt suitable strategies to attain organizational effectiveness. This is illustrated using the four quadrants of the CVF which indicate that different organizational values become associated with different organizational forms (Cameron & Quinn, 1999: 32). It outlines the critical management competencies that are typical of effective managers and is thus a useful diagnostic tool for effective leadership.

The CVF portrays the contradictions that face organizations and their managers or leaders within the quadrants and juxtaposes them comprehensively to arrive at the different models of organizational effectiveness. The quadrants present the four general perspectives in organizational theory literature that have traditionally been regarded as mutually exclusive schools of thought regarding what 'good' organizations are and what 'good' managers do (Quinn,1988). These are presented as the *human relations model*, the *open system model*, the *rational goal model* and the *internal process model*. They are not to be considered in isolation but as a comprehensive framework that identifies those managerial activities and environmental factors that influence effectiveness in organizations (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983).

The *Human Relations Model* on the top left quadrant emphasizes people leadership functions such as trust and belongingness with the targeted outcomes being participation, discussion, and openness as ways to improve morale and achieve organizational commitment. It encourages information sharing and participative-decision making, cooperation amongst members and a sense of belonging (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The *Open System Model* on the top right quadrant sees organizational effectiveness as based on adaptability, flexibility, external focus, readiness for growth and resource acquisition. These processes lead to innovation and creativity with people being inspired and not controlled. Leadership in this model facilitates adaptation and change and at the same time absorbs uncertainty by monitoring the environment (Cooper & Quinn, 1993; Quinn, 1988; O'Neill & Quinn, 1993; Dunk & Lysons, 1997). Complexity and dynamism are seen as the main dimensions of the environment and could contribute to uncertainty as the factors considered are always under rapid change (Duncan, 1972).

The *Rational Goal Model* presented on the bottom right quadrant emphasizes control and external focus as the key factors for organizational effectiveness. It views planning, goal setting, and efficiency as key to productivity and focuses on profits, achievement, outputs and economic goals (Cooper & Quinn, 1993). Finally, the *Internal Process Model* presented at the bottom left quadrant is based on hierarchy and management control. It emphasises on internal focus, information management, communication, stability and control (Dunk & Lysons, 1997). Maintaining organizational stability and equilibrium requires managers to monitor and coordinate the activities of their units (Cooper &Quinn, 1993) while the influence of the external environment is often ignored.

In summary, each of the quadrants has two complementary and one contrasting quadrant. The rational goal model, for example, contrasts with the human relations model, as does the open system with the internal process perspective (Quinn, 1988). Irrespective of these contrasts between the quadrants, none of them comprises the

range of perspectives on effectiveness provided by considering them wholly or comprehensively as part of one framework. The models are thus viewed as closely related, interwoven and as part of a larger construct for explaining managerial and organizational effectiveness. Taken together, they summarise the unseen values over which people, programs, policies and organizations live and die (Quinn, 1988; Quinn & Cameron, 1999). CVF utilises the integrated model that takes into consideration all the four quadrants with the assumption that successful organizations satisfy this competing and even contradictory criteria.

3.2.3   *The CVF and organization culture types*

The CVF model has also been used as an instrument for diagnosing organizational culture through the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). The CVF identifies four dominant organizational culture types (see figure 3.1) based on the core values, assumptions, interpretations, and approaches that characterize organizations. These organizational culture types are: *clan* (human relations quadrant), *adhocracy* (open systems quadrant), *market* (rational goal quadrant) *and hierarchy* (internal processes quadrant) cultures (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

Organizations with a dominant *clan culture* concentrate on internal maintenance with emphasis on flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity for customers. They have vision, staff cohesion, high levels of morale, shared goals, with focus outputs and outcomes. They often have a flat organization structure where people and teams act more autonomously with an inward focus and a sense of family driven by loyalty to one another and bound by a shared cause. Rules, although not necessarily documented, do exist and are often communicated and inculcated socially. They are more like extended families where members and clients are seen as partners in the organization. Coordination is based on the fact that all employees share the same values, goals and beliefs and leaders are facilitative, supportive and mentoring. These features are reflexive of the human relations model (Smart, 2003). The clan culture is mostly associated with organizations which are strong in the human relations quadrant.

Organizations in which *adhocracy culture* is dominant concentrate on external positioning but with a high degree of flexibility and individuality. They also have greater independence and flexibility which is necessary in a rapidly changing business climate. They go for market success with speed, adaptability, and formation of teams to face new challenges. They undertake innovations and pioneering initiatives leading to success. Their leaders are visionary, innovative entrepreneurs who take calculated risks for the success of the organization. They do not have centralized power or authority relationships as power flows from individual to individual, task to task with emphasis on individuality, risk taking and anticipation of the future. It relates closer to the open systems model (Cameron & Ettington, 1988). The adhocracy culture is mostly associated with organizations which are strong in the open systems quadrant.

In the *market culture*, organizations focus on external maintenance with a need for stability and control and are particularly driven by results and competition. While they look outwards, they are not only focused on marketing, but have all transactions, internal and external viewed in market terms. They view the external environment as hostile and competitive (Cameron, Quinn, Degraff & Thakor, 2006). Their leaders are often hard-driving competitors who seek always to deliver the goods. The market type relates closer to the rational goal model (Cameron & Quinn, 1999) with core values being competitiveness and productivity. The glue that holds the organization together is an emphasis on winning. The market culture is dominant in organizations which have an emphasis on the rational goal quadrant.

Organizations with a dominant *hierarchy culture* focus on internal maintenance with focus on stability and control arising from a strict chain of command and respect for position and power. For a long time, it was thought to be the only effective way of running organizations based on its stability, efficiency and consistency (the bureaucracy). It is still a basic element of the vast majority of organizations. These organizations have well-defined policies, processes and procedures. Leaders are

typically coordinators and organizers who keep a close eye on what is happening. Reliance on hierarchies seems to work well when tasks are well understood and time is not an important factor. This model lends closer to the internal process model (Smart, 2003).

Organizational culture has impacts on organizational effectiveness, leadership, commitment and performance (Heskett & Kotter, 1992). Culture is viewed as the collective, mutually shaping patterns of norms, values, practices, beliefs and assumptions that guide the behaviour of individuals and groups in organizations. It provides a frame of reference within which to interpret the meanings of events and actions in the organization. Organizations are seen as cultural systems in which leaders and followers construct social reality through the interpretations they make of equivocal events (Bargh, 2000). It is this organizational culture, shared values and contextual factors that form part of what hold organizations together and also play a significant role in determining the effectiveness of leadership (Bass & Stogdil, 1990; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004). Culture controls leaders more than leaders control culture, thus leaders need to align their strategies with their organization's culture rather than compete. This is mainly because organizational culture is viewed as an important determinant of leadership and management outputs (Yukl, 1989; Hooijberg, & Petrock, 1993).

3.2.4 *The CVF and organizational leadership*

The views on organizational cultures and organisational effectiveness present a wider spectrum within which the operations of organizational leadership can be interpreted or visualised. This is based on the implicit assumptions that leadership is important, that leaders make a difference and that positive group and organizational effects are effected by leaders and the leadership process (Densten & Gray, 2003). The challenge of leadership is then to ensure effectiveness of the organization within its many competing dynamics embedded in ambiguity, complexity and information overload (Hambrick, 1989; Densten & Gray, 2003). How then does leadership succeed or attain effectiveness in such environments?

The CVF organizes leadership from a perceptual perspective and illustrates the implicit, competing expectations that people and organizations have for leaders or managers. The framework builds around the four quadrants of CVF discussed in the previous section and reflects the set of key managerial skills or roles required of organizational leaders. Within each quadrant, two roles exhibit the characteristics associated with a particular theoretical model and managerial performance (Quinn, 1988) resulting into the eight categories of leader behaviour or roles as illustrated in *Figure 3.2*. These roles are then mapped on the same framework as that of organization effectiveness to enhance clarity. The resulting model of leadership represents a hypothetical rather than empirical statement about the perceptual understructure of leadership (Quinn, 1988; Hooijberg, 1996).

Figure 3.2 The leadership roles of CVF

(Human Relations Model) **Mentor role** **Facilitator role**	*(Open Systems Model)* **Innovator role** **Broker role**
(Internal Process Model) **Monitor role** **Coordinator role**	*(Rational Goal Model)* **Producer role** **Director role**

For instance, the *human relations model* is defined by flexibility and internal focus with performance criteria emphasizing human relations. Emerging from this are the *facilitator* and *mentor* leadership roles. As a group facilitator, the leader is expected to foster collective effort, build cohesion, encourage team work and manage conflict. As a mentor, he is expected to be open, approachable and to engage in the development of subordinates through a caring and empathic orientation (Quinn, 1988).

The *open system model* is based on flexibility and an external focus with performance criteria associated with boundary spanning activities. The leadership roles in this model are *innovator* and *broker*. As an innovator, the leader brings adaptation and change, absorbs uncertainty by monitoring the information in the external environment, is creative, clever and conceptualises and projects the needed change. As a broker, the leader maintains external legitimacy, liaison, is the organizations spokesperson, and acquires and controls resources. Such a leader also needs to be politically astute, persuasive, influential and powerful (O'Neill & Quinn, 1993).

The *rational goal model* emphasises control and external focus with performance being associated with the directing of activities. The two leadership roles in this quadrant are *producer* and *director*. The producer is task – oriented, work-focused, has high motivation and personal drive and presses organization members to achieve goals and increase productivity. The director on the other hand, mainly provides the structure through the process of planning and goal setting. The leader in this case has to be directive and decisive, initiates action by providing direction, defines roles, tasks, job descriptions and evaluates performance (Quinn, 1988).

The last quadrant presents the *internal processes model* which emphasises control and internal focus with the performance criteria being associated with coordinating activities. Here, the leadership roles are those of *coordinator* and *monitor*. The leader

as a coordinator is expected to maintain structure and the flow of the system and perform tasks including scheduling, organizing and coordinating staff efforts. As a monitor, the leader is expected to be expert at managing information, how the unit works and to be well informed about policies and procedures (Quinn, 1988; O'Neill & Quinn, 1993).

The underlying argument here is that more effective leaders are able to cope with multiple, contradictory and competing leadership roles or tasks and should strike a balance within them (Quinn, 1988, Hoijberg, 1996). On the other hand is the assumption that well managed organizations require a mix of leadership roles and underlying values. Organizations would thus rely on the skilled balancing-acts and performance of their leaders to solve complex and ill-defined organizational problems from both the external and internal environments. It is assumed that organizations and managers who focus on all these roles have higher levels of achievement (O'Neill & Quinn, 1993). The highest performing leaders are those who have developed capabilities and skills that allow them to succeed in all the four quadrants. They are self-contradictory leaders in the sense that they can be hard and soft, entrepreneurial and controlled (Quinn, 1988; Hooijberg, 1996). Leadership and organizational effectiveness is inherently tied to their paradoxical attributes (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). This is the aspect that other theories of leadership have ignored (Hooijberg, Hunt & Dodge, 1997). The CVF is therefore an instrument through which managers identify the key competencies they need to succeed in leadership. The two main arguments that could arise from this are that; (i) organizations require leaders who can balance all the roles and underlying values of CVF and (ii) that different organizations require leaders to emphasize of different roles and values to attain effectiveness. The CVF makes it clear that achieving valued outcomes in each of the quadrants is important for organizational effectiveness.

It however does not mean that all organizations must equally balance all the quadrants to be successful. For leaders it means that they have to develop specific skills and areas of expertise which also need to have some congruence with their organizational cultures and types. They develop mental models as well as behavioural competencies that become biased toward one or more of the quadrants. For organizations it means that they try to develop a dominant culture, a set of core competencies and strategic intent characterised by one or more of the quadrants (Cameron, Quinn, Degraff & Thakor, 2006: 32).

In summary the CVF has been found to be a useful tool for analysing these competing leadership requirements and helping organization members better understand the similarities and differences of managerial leadership roles at various levels of hierarchy (DiPadova & Faeman, 1993). It provides a comprehensive approach to identifying those managerial activities and environmental factors that influence effectiveness in organizations (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; O'Neill & Quinn, 1993). The CVF provides a broadly applicable model to foster successful leadership, improve organizational effectiveness and promote value creation. It serves as a map, an organizing mechanism, a sense-making device, a source of new ideas and a learning system. Identifying the underlying dimensions of organization that exist in almost all human and organizational activity is one of the key functions of this framework (Cameron, Quinn, Degraff & Thakor, 2006).

3.3 The CVF in our theoretical framework

In the previous section we discussed the tenets of the CVF model and how it relates to organizational cultures, effectiveness and to leadership in organizations. As we have seen in the last section, the CVF model organizes leadership within its four quadrants which have eight leadership roles (see *Figure 3.2*) that organizational leaders are expected to exhibit (Quinn, 1988; Hooijberg, 1996) with the assumption that successful organizational leaders should demonstrate these competing

leadership roles in equal measures for the success of their organizations (Densten & Gray, 2003). While this is the general perception, the model also recognizes that there are different leader and organizational types, which adhere more to certain leadership roles than others (Quinn, 1988). The respective leadership roles have associated leadership behaviours which are also essential for success and performance in these organizations (Hooijeberg, 1996). Our interest is therefore to see how the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans relate to the eight leadership roles of the CVF. Basing on the leadership behaviours (styles) associated with the different leadership roles, we can establish the impacts of leadership styles of the deans' on organizational commitment in their faculties. Based on the CVF, organizations and leaders can be evaluated based on which of the quadrants they focus their leadership on. This in other words would give the leadership roles emphasized by these organization.

In chapter two we presented the Theory of Planed Behaviour (TPB) as our model for explaining behaviour (styles) and outlined that the model explains behaviour based on *attitudes*, *subjective norms* and *perceived behavioural control*. We also noted that to use the TPB to explain behaviour, the behaviour has to be specified or defined. The CVF enables us to specify the behaviours against which we evaluate the deans. By combining the TPB and the CVF we are able to establish and explain the leadership styles of the deans. Based on these two models our expectations are: *i) the more positive a dean's attitude towards a particular style, the more likely it is that he will execute that particular style, ii) the more positive a dean's subjective norm towards a particular style, the more likely it is that he will execute that particular style, and iii) the higher the perceived behavioural control (less barriers) towards performing a particular style, the more likely it is that the dean will perform that particular style.* According to the CVF, the deans would be more effective if they balance all the eight roles of the CVF. As discussed in section 3.2.4, organizations require leaders who can balance all the roles and underlying values of CVF or those who emphasize on different roles and values to attain effectiveness.

After obtaining the leadership styles of the deans, the next step is to relate them to organizational commitment. In Chapter 2, we already argued that we expect the leadership styles of deans to have an effect on the commitment of their faculty staff. Our general expectation is that differences in leadership styles will lead to differences in staff commitment. The key question to be addressed is which type of leadership will cause what kind of differences in commitment. Moreover, we explore the effect of the different leadership styles on the three components that are distinguished in the TCM.

Research on the precise relationship between leadership styles and commitment is however scant. Lumby (2012) has argued that leaders who are facilitating, caring and enablers create more commitment of their followers. These attributes, mentioned by Lumby (2012), are to some extent comparable to the attributes of the leadership roles from the human relations quadrant of CVF. Therefore, following this argument, we expect that leadership styles from the human relations quadrant will have more positive effects on commitment than styles from the other three quadrants. But because research on the relationship between leadership styles and commitment is scant it is not possible to formulate additional, mere detailed expectations. In Chapter 7 we will (a) test whether as we expected leadership styles from the human relations quadrant will have more positive effects on various aspects of commitment than styles from the other three quadrants and b) explore in more detail how the role orientations associated with the three other quadrants will affect the three components of commitment.

3.4   Summary

This chapter introduced the Competing Values Framework (CVF) and discussed its application to our study. The chapter also discussed the theoretical approaches to leadership and leadership styles which are important in contextualizing this study. The presentation of the Competing Values Framework (CVF) in this chapter is

useful in focusing, interpreting and understanding the competing leadership roles expected of organization leaders such as faculty deans. The CVF organizes leadership from a perceptual perspective and illustrates the implicit, competing expectations that people and organizations have for leaders or managers. The model assumes that successful organizational leaders should demonstrate these competing leadership roles in equal measures for the success of their organizations (Densten & Gray, 2003). It thus presents us with a prism against which to look into the leadership roles and styles of the Kenyan deans. Although the core qualities of leaders may remain constant, the manner and mix in which they are exhibited have to match the context and become more adaptable to manage the growing organizational complexities (Bolden, 2004). Finally, the chapter links the CVF to the Three Components Model of commitment to demonstrate how the leadership styles could have an impact on the different aspects of commitment and on overall commitment of staff in the faculties led by the deans.

4 Research design, methods and operationalization

This chapter presents the research design, methodology and operationalization of the design. The first part discusses the research design and its rationale while the second part discusses the approaches and instruments used in data collection for the study. The third part is dedicated to the operationalization of the research design. The last part discusses the approaches used for data analysis and also concludes the chapter.

4.1   Research design

There are several research designs whose choice depends on several factors including the nature of research being undertaken, its purpose, resources available and data sources amongst other factors. This study opted for a mixed method approach whose popularity has risen in recent years (Creswell, 2003; Creswell & Creswell, 2005; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003:697). This mixed method approach included desk research, a survey and case studies. In fact, this study consists of two parts. In the first part of the study, which is descriptive and explanatory, we aim to answer the first two research questions*: i) what are the leadership styles of Kenyan deans?* (descriptive) and ii) *why do Kenyan deans adopt these styles in managing their faculties?* (explanatory). We used a survey questionnaire to obtain the information to address these first two research questions of the study.

In the second part of this study, which is exploratory, we address our third research question i.e. *what are the effects of the leadership styles of Kenyan deans on staff commitment in their faculties?* For this exploratory part, a number of case studies were conducted and information obtained through interviews with selected staff from the case faculties based on a semi-structured interview protocol. In addition

background information on the faculties, information on higher education system in Kenya, leadership and deanship in general as well as in Kenyan universities was collected through desk research. In the first part of the study, the dean is the unit of analysis while in the second, the faculty is the unit of analysis. In the first part, the focus is on personal attributes of the dean in leading a faculty while in the second part the focus is on the effects of the leadership styles of the deans on the commitment of staff in the faculty. In this chapter we will describe in detail how the two parts of the study were conducted.

4.2   Desk research

We undertook document analysis especially to obtain information on the national and institutional contexts in which deans executed their leadership. Documents are important sources of data in qualitative research (Yin, 2003; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Document analysis is a widely used qualitative research technique used to interpret content of text data (Creswell, 2003, Patton, 2005). It is important in providing background information, part of the information included in the literature review and forming frameworks that could aid data analysis and even discussion (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011:93). Some of the documents analysed included government policy documents on higher education, commission reports, sessional papers, the Universities Act, relevant parts of the constitution of Kenya 2010, Vision 2030 and the government's strategy papers on higher education research and innovation.

The study also relied on institutional documents such as the various statutes and charters of the universities, strategic plans, development plans, institutional governance structures, budgets and job descriptions of deans. Additional information was obtained from government, institutional and other relevant websites. We mainly used the directed approach which relies on the theory or relevant research findings to guide the codes or information of relevance (Hsieh &

Shannon, 2005).The information from document analysis has been important in contextualizing the study and also for giving explanations to some of the outcomes.

4.3 The questionnaire survey

Surveys usually provide quantitative or numeric descriptions of trends, attitudes or opinions of a population and mostly follow some standard format with some typical components (Creswell, 2003). They are also economical and provide rapid turnaround in data collection especially where the samples are large. Compared to most other approaches, surveys could be cost efficient, have a wide reach and provide respondents with more flexibility. They also allow collection of information on a variety of variables such as was required in this study. They give the possibility to develop a multifaceted instrument to gather the various sets of information. Despite these advantages, surveys can at times suffer from low response rates or deficient knowhow among respondents to provide useful responses (Sheatsley, 1983:197; Babbie & Babbie, 1990).

4.3.1 The survey sample

At the time of the study, there were 105 deans in Kenyan universities, a number that was considered manageable to wholly include in the survey. We thus included all the deans in the study. After obtaining authority from the National Council for Science and Technology (NCST), Kenya, to conduct the research, data was collected from April to September 2009. We sent the survey questionnaire (see Appendix A) to all the 105 deans in the seven public and fifteen private universities in Kenya at the time of the study (see also next chapter on Kenyan higher education). The questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter (see appendix G) explaining the purpose of the study and requesting for the participation of the deans. It also assured them of the confidentiality and anonymity with which their responses would be handled. Relevant information for scoring the questionnaire were also included.

Out of the 105 questionnaires sent out, 60 were completed and returned giving a response rate of 57%. Of the 105 deans 71% were from public universities while 29% were from the private ones. From those who responded to the survey, 68% were from public universities while the remaining 32% were from private universities. Majority of the respondents were male (82%). The deans were of varied ages: 35% being between 50-54 years, the three youngest deans were between 30-34 years old, only one dean was beyond 65 years. Many of the deans had served for only one year (44%) with only three having served for more than five years. The terms of most deans in Kenyan universities was three years with possibilities of renewal for another term. Regarding their academic backgrounds, 23% of the deans were from education, the social sciences and humanities each had 16% of the deans while health sciences and engineering related faculties had the least numbers of deans at 3% and 7% respectively.

The deans reported (through the survey) that their universities (93%) were mainly focused on teaching with only 7% reporting that their universities were research based. We also considered institutional factors such as staff and student numbers and the number of faculties or schools within the institutions. Some universities (13%), especially private ones, had less than 5 faculties. The leading and most comprehensive universities (6%) had more than 15 faculties. These were mainly the older public universities including University of Nairobi, Moi University, Kenyatta University and Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology. Five of the seven public universities had more than 20,000 students each. The leading private university in student numbers had 5,000 students. Just over a third of the faculties (36%) had between 1000 to 5000 students.

On staff numbers, 23% of the universities had less than 500 staff while 10 universities recorded having more than 2500 staff. Regarding staff numbers at the faculty level, 37% of the faculties had less than 100 staff members with the 4 leading faculties having more than 500 staff members. Most of the universities (82.5%),

especially the public ones were secular with only 17.5% of the deans indicating that their universities were faith based. Most of the private universities offered a comparatively small range of academic programmes and thus had fewer deans, staff and students compared to the public universities. Almost all the universities (93%) indicated that they were nonprofit with only 7% reporting that they were for profit.

Generally, there were several differences between the Kenyan deans on different parameters including personal factors such as gender, age and even educational backgrounds. There were also succinct differences between their institutions and faculties based on their sizes, whether they were secular or faith based, teaching or research focused and even for profit or non-profit. It suggests that even though the deans work in the same country context, they had individual and institutional characteristics that could be important in understanding how they managed their faculties.

4.3.2   *Self-report of behaviour*

Most statements in our questionnaire were in the form of a Likert Scale which has attained wide usage in such surveys. One advantage of the Likert Scale, that also makes it useful for this study, is that it elicits how strongly a respondent feels about a phenomenon and provides quantitative data which can be analysed statistically (Nunally & Bernstein, 1994). The scale items in the questionnaire are supposed to have approximately the same size and same level of importance to the respondents and going in the same direction (unidirectional). Most of the statements were on a seven point scale, though there were some few statements to which respondents were required to allocate points according to how important they perceived an item while others required them to rank the statements.

The survey questionnaire was completed only by the deans and not by other faculty or other university members. The deans therefore undertook a *self-report* of their behaviours. Self-reporting has been considered as one of the most suitable ways of obtaining information about respondent behaviours (Baker & Brandon, 1990). They

allow participants to directly describe their behaviours and experiences rather than the researcher relying on own inferences from observations. They are handy in studying relatively large samples as they are comparatively easy and quick to undertake (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980; Baker & Brandon, 1990). Self-reports have a strength compared to direct observation especially in instances of behaviours which may not be directly accessible for observation or which may require longer time to observe (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980: 33-38). They also provide an easy means of defining the elements of action, target, context and time at any level of generality (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980, p.39). Since the survey items mainly focused on beliefs, behaviour items and perceptions of deans on issues related to their leadership, self-report was the best way to obtain such data (Baker & Brandon 1990).

There are however some shortcomings associated with self-report of behaviour, especially their susceptibility to validity problems (Wagner & Rabkin, 2000; Northrup, 2000). One of the shortcomings is the possibility that respondents could provide ideal or expected responses over their actual behaviours (Ericsson & Simon 1993; Bass, 1990) which could result into biased information bearing little relationship to the reality. Participants are likely to be influenced by social desirability biases making them present themselves in a manner viewed favourably by others even if they do not actually behave that way (Jaccard & Blanton, 2005; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010; Fiske & Taylor, 1991). There have also been evidence of negligible correspondence between self-reports and officially documented behaviour (Hessing, Dick, Elffers, Henk, Weigel & Russel, 1988). Self- reported behaviour could be different from actual behaviours especially when sensitive behaviours are involved.

Time may also affect the accuracy of self-reported responses in the sense that after a long period of time, respondents may not remember how they behaved compared, for example, to recent behaviours (Schwarz, Groves, & Schuman, 1998). This is the same for less frequent or less familiar behaviours that may not be as easy to recall

compared with familiar or frequent behaviours (Northrup, 2000). It is assumed that when respondents engage in some behaviour regularly, they are more likely to recall it and thus find it easy to record it in such responses (Jaccard & Blanton, 2005).

Despite these shortcomings, self–reports of behaviour, when properly undertaken, can be quite reliable and valid especially on data on self-information (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010:37; Chan, 2009). Some opinions view self-reports more positively even than direct observation by arguing that if you want to know something about someone, it is better to ask them. Such information, especially on people's behaviours may not be better obtainable in any other way (Osberg & Shrauger, 1986; Jones, 1985). Our instrument attempted to respond to the possible limitations. First, it was based on issues that deans were likely to experience in most of their daily lives as they execute the responsibilities of their positions and thus not susceptible to misreporting due to difficulties in remembering their occurrence. Most of the deans in the study had been in their positions for an average of two years which could be considered not so long for them to forget their daily leadership behaviours. Second we also do not believe that our instrument had very sensitive questions that could prompt deans to give responses so much different from their actual behaviours. Even if some of the questions could have been sensitive, one of the best ways of attaining reliable answers on such questions is by self-reporting where for example the deans do not have to directly respond to an interviewer. There are adequate empirical findings (Chan, 2009; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010) suggesting that self-reports of behaviour (as well as of attitudes, social norms and perceived behavioural control) are accurate and valid for collecting personal information. This then provides a basis for our reliance on dean's self-report of their leadership behaviours, attitudes, social norms and perceived behavioural control.

4.4   Case studies

After describing and explaining the leadership styles of the deans based on the survey data (the first part of this study), for the second part of this study we complemented the survey data with information from case studies, to answer to our

third research question. This was on the effects of the leadership styles of the deans on staff commitment in the faculties led by the deans. With respect to these case studies, desk research (see section 4.2) as well as semi-structured interviews were carried out in nine faculties in order to collect data on the impacts of the leadership styles of the deans on staff commitment. Cannell & Kahn (1968:527) view interviews as a useful technique for generating data through direct verbal interaction between individuals. It involves the participants themselves giving reports about their thoughts and experiences which provide in depth information and more of the needed insights (Silverman, 2001:86). On the essence of interviews in research, Kvale (1996:1) sums that if one wants to know how people understand their world and life then they should be talked to. He sees interviews as an attempt to understand the world from the participants' point of view and to unfold and uncover meaning from their lived world. This was in tandem with our quest in this study to understand how the different leadership styles of the deans impacted on the commitment of the staff in the faculties.

The interview protocol for the case studies was developed based on the Three Components Model (TCM) of organizational commitment (see section 2.4.2) which views commitment as composed of three aspects i.e. *Affective Commitment* (AC), *Normative Commitment* (NC) and *Continuance Commitment* (CC). Each aspect of commitment had eight questions adopted from the Allen and Meyer (1990) model (see Appendix E). This approach has been considered as having the potential to contribute to a better understanding of organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996) and has been extensively used for research on commitment. While the Allen and Meyer (1990) model assesses commitment using a Likert scale, we adopted these questions into an interview protocol as we wanted more in-depth information. It also allowed us to collect much more contextual information and also to use follow up questions for more information. In addition to the interviews, for each interview question we also asked each respondent to state the extent to which they perceived their level of commitment -on a scale ranging from 1 (very weak

commitment) to 7 (very strong commitment)- and we scored these responses. More details on this is discussed in the section on operationalization.

The selection of the case studies was based on the outcomes of the first part of the study. In the beginning of chapter 7 we describe this selection in detail. We applied the following general principles. With respect to each leadership style, the result of the first part our study, we selected a limited number of faculties. That means that we had a limited number of clusters (three) of faculties that are led in a particular way. From these faculties (nine in total) we sampled three academic staff members (twenty seven staff in total) with whom we undertook the interviews. We decided not to include the deans as respondents in this part of the study, as we believe that staff have the best impression about their commitment (although it is likely that a dean does have a perception of his staff's commitment as well) and including deans could endanger the response rate (willingness to participate in the second part of this study). In selecting the academic staff members we aimed at attaining a mix of respondents , taking into account seniority, gender, type of institution, faculty (as a unit) and department. As mentioned, the precise sample for interviewees depends on the outcomes of the first part of this study and will be further addressed in chapter 7. We were interested in their own commitment to the faculty.

4.5   Operationalization

In this section we operationalize the variables of this study based on the theoretical approach that we presented in Chapter 2 and the methodological approaches discussed above.

4.5.1   The leadership styles of deans

In order to establish the leadership behaviours (styles) of the deans, we have taken the CVF as point of departure (see Chapter 3). The CVF presents thirty two key behaviours required of organizational leaders, resulting into eight roles that leaders

might execute (Quinn, 1988; Hooijberg, 1996) to create value in their organizations (also see Fig 3.2). We based the first set of questions of the survey instrument regarding the leadership behaviours of the deans on the Competing Values Leadership Instrument of CVF (Quinn, 1988: 174).

The instrument defines the thirty two managerial leadership behaviours that organizational leaders might perform. The statements which were based on a seven point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*) were presented to the deans so that they could indicate how often they performed the behaviours. The second step was to establish the extent to which the deans performed the eight leadership roles of the CVF (see fig. 3.2). The thirty-two leadership behaviour statements presented to the deans were composed of four statements for each of the eight leadership roles of the CVF reflecting the roles and values associated with particular role type (see Table 4.1 below). This was to enable us to establish the extent to which the deans performed the eight leadership roles.

Table 4.1: The thirty-two leadership behaviour statements of the CVF

*In the next question some behaviours that a dean might employ are listed. Please indicate how frequently you **actually** do the following (range from 1 = 'never' to 7 = 'always')*

Eight managerial leadership roles	Behaviour items
Innovator	- come up with new inventive ideas regarding teaching, research and management matters in the faculty - experiment with new concepts and procedures - solve faculty problems in a creative and conventional way - search for innovations and potential improvements and encourages

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	others to generate new ideas
Broker	• exert upward influence in the university to influence strategic decision making
	• influence decisions made at higher levels in the university
	• approach and consult people at the higher levels of the university
	• persuasively sell new ideas to the central management of the university
Producer	• focus on results and performances of academic staff and foster a sense of faculty competitiveness to perform better than others
	• see that the faculty delivers on stated goals
	• insist on intense hard work and high productivity and sincerely push the academic staff to meet the faculty objectives
	• emphasize the faculty's achievements of stated purposes
Director	• define areas of responsibility for academic staff
	• make sure everyone in the faculty knows where the faculty is going in terms of objectives and goals
	• set clear objectives for the faculty and restate and reinforce your vision of the faculty's future
	• clarify faculty policy priorities and future direction
Coordinator	• protect continuity in the faculty's day-to-day operations
	• minimize the disruptions in daily practices to have an untroubled faculty
	• keep a close track of what goes on in the faculty (using control and

	monitor systems)
	• bring a sense of order to the faculty
Monitor	• carefully review detailed reports and crosscheck information in detail
	• carefully compare records, files and reports to detect discrepancies
	• work with technical and information
	• analyse written plans and schedules
Facilitator	• facilitate consensus building in the faculty's decision making
	• encourage participative decision making in the faculty
	• encourage academic staff members to share ideas with you and with the others
	• build teamwork among the academic staff members
Mentor	• listen to the personal problems of academic staff members and make an effort to help them
	• show empathy and concern in dealing with academic staff members
	• treat every faculty member in a sensitive and caring way
	• show concern for the needs of academic staff members

The scores of the four statements corresponding to each of the leadership roles were accumulated i.e. for each of the leadership roles we created an index (Babbie, 1979: 405) to enable us attain the overall score of each dean for each role. The roles that attained higher scores are the ones that the deans perceive themselves to be performing most frequently and would thus be the way they perceive their leadership of the faculties. Indexes have been considered as efficient data-reduction

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devices as they enable several indicators to be summarised in a single numerical score, while sometimes very nearly maintaining the specific details of all the individual indicators. Indexes are constructed by accumulation of scores assigned to individual attributes (Babbie, 1979:399). They require that items are unidimensional and have closer relationships amongst themselves (not having much variance). Our statements met these requirements.

Evaluating the attitudes of the deans

We had to evaluate the attitudes of the deans towards the leadership roles expected of them as established by the steps taken in the previous section. Since the leadership styles are derived from the roles (an index based on four statements on managerial behaviours), this step was to finally enable us to establish the attitudes of the deans towards the leadership styles. There are two ways of evaluating the attitudes of the deans, i.e. indirectly and directly. By the indirect way, attitudes are measured by multiplying the strengths of *behavioural beliefs* towards performing a role by the *evaluation of the outcome* referring to how favourable the outcomes are to a person. In this way, we would have had to ask the deans the perceived strength of the consequences of the leadership behaviours and the favourability of the consequences of these behaviours. We however opted to measure attitudes in a direct way by means of statements that combined both the behavioural beliefs and the evaluation of outcomes of the deans towards performing the leadership behaviours. This was done for pragmatic reasons, which enabled shortening the questionnaire considerably without loss of information.

We presented the deans with sixteen statements on a seven point Likert Scale ranging from 1 (not important at all) to 7 (extremely important). Each of the eight roles was represented by two statements in our instrument as presented in Table 4.2. The deans were to indicate which of the eight roles were the most important to them and thus the most likely for them to perform. By this, they demonstrated their attitudes towards each of the roles. We accumulated the scores of the two statements making up each role by creating an index for each in the same way as we

did for the leadership roles discussed in the preceding section. This step enabled us to attain the attitude score of each dean for each of the eight roles.

Table 4.2: Statements of attitude

Question: In running my school/faculty/institute, I think that………(on a scale from 1 (not important at all) to 7 (extremely important)

Managerial leadership roles	Attitude statements
Innovator	• creative policy making, having guts and being enterprising without fearing too much the consequences in case of failure is • an on-going encouragement for change and innovation in the faculty, for instance by creating sufficient space and time for brainstorming is
Broker	• a good policy network inside and outside the university is • active engagement in formal and informal decision making at the central level of the university is
Producer	• pushing academic staff to achieve ambitious, highly competitive faculty goals is • scanning of and marketing in higher education and research markets is
Director	• having clear and undisputed faculty objectives is • academic staff members knowing and accepting the strategic direction and priorities of the faculty is
Coordinator	• to the extent possible the standardization of work processes to establish coherence and predictability is • formal rules and policies hold the faculty together and that taking formal

rules very seriously and doing things by book is

Monitor	• statistical figures, elaborate documentation and management information systems are
	• detailed monitoring and quality control systems for teaching and/or research is
Facilitator	• a strong sense of community, with staff feeling at home and sharing objectives is
	• high staff commitment through consensus-based decision making is
Mentor	• having concern for the personal needs of academic staff members is
	• explicit attention for the individual staff members of the faculty, his or her personal development and competence is

Evaluating the subjective norms of the deans

The second determinant of behaviour is *subjective norms* (SN). As we have done with attitude above, we also had to evaluate the extent to which subjective norms influence the leadership behaviours of the deans. *Subjective norm* (SN) refers to the perception of the deans on whether their important referents expect them to perform or not to perform the behaviour. The important referents may exert pressure on the dean to behave in a certain way. Normative beliefs are the perceived behaviourial expectation of important referents. Our study identifies the important referents to the deans to be: academics (AC), fellow deans (FD), students (SD) and central university management (CM).

Our model determines subjective norms (SN) based on *normative beliefs* (n) and *motivation to comply* (m). To evaluate the *normative beliefs* of the deans, we presented them with a question containing four normative belief items each based on the four

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leadership aspects[2] of CVF on a seven point Likert scale ranging from -3 (*very negative*) to +3 (*very positive*). The statements are presented in Table 1 of Appendix C. The second component of deans' subjective norms is their *motivation to comply* with the expectations of the important referents. It is the importance with which the deans viewed the expectations of other deans, academics, students and central university management and whether they would behave according to these expectations. To evaluate their *motivation to comply* we presented them with four statements on a seven point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not important at all*) to 7 (*extremely important*) as presented in Table 2 of Appendix C. We obtained the subjective norms of the deans towards the leadership styles by multiplying the means of their normative beliefs by those of their motivation to comply. We obtained their normative beliefs towards each style based on their scores in quadrants making up each leadership style.

Assessing perceived behavioural control of the deans

To assess the *perceived behavioural control* (existence of any barriers) of the deans towards the leadership styles, we initially formulated eleven items, representing possible barriers deans could encounter in executing the leadership styles. The absence of barriers to the deans in performing the behaviours would mean they have actual control over the performance of behaviours. The details of the implications of perceived behavioural controls and actual controls have been discussed in section 2.3.1. The deans were asked to score these items on a seven point Likert scale (see Table 6.9) ranging from -3 (*absolutely false*) to 3 (*absolutely true*). We realised that two statements out of the eleven were not consistent with the others. We removed these statements and remained with nine statements (see Appendix D) of perceived behavioural controls. We assessed the extent to which the

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[2] These four aspects are *clan, adhocracy, market* and *hierarchy*, just as in the quadrants of CVF. Ideally, we would have asked about their normative beliefs on the eight CVF leadership roles, but for pragmatic reasons (length of the survey) we have decided to focus on four aspects, containing two roles each. This reduced the number of questions asked about the normative beliefs and motivation to comply by half.

deans reported to have control (perceived no barriers or constraints) regarding the performance of the leadership styles based on the remaining nine statements of barriers that could constrain their performance of the eight leadership roles.

Background factors

Our theoretical model assumes that background factors could influence the attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control of the deans and thus influence their leadership styles. Amongst these we included factors such as age, gender, the legal status of the university, duration in office as dean, size of university and nature of university (religious or secular). The questionnaire survey had questions based on these variables to which the deans had to respond. These were important in understanding if these variables could affect the leadership styles of the deans.

4.5.2   *Effects of leadership styles on staff commitment (case studies)*

The third part was to analyse the impacts of the leadership styles of the deans on the commitment of staff in the faculties led by these deans. As we discussed in section 4.3.2 the Three Component Model (TCM) of Organizational Commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997) evaluates organizational commitment based on *affective, normative* and *continuance* commitment. The assumption was that different styles of leadership could have varying impacts on the three aspects of commitment leading to different levels of commitment amongst staff in these faculties. An employee could experience these three components of commitment in varying degrees but all the three could interact to influence overall commitment (Mowday, 1979:8; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002).

We had to assess the extent to which the sampled staff experienced the different aspects of commitment in their faculty. Our interview protocol had eight statements (see Appendix E) for each of the aspects of commitment derived from Allen and Meyer (1990). Thus 24 statements on commitment in total. Since *affective commitment* is focussed on obligations to the organization, the questions in this cluster mainly

aimed at assessing the extent to which the staff identified with the organization and its goals making them wanting to commit more to the organization. On *continuance commitment* we assessed the extent of their commitment based on the perceived social and economic costs associated with staying or leaving the organization. On *normative commitment* on the other hand we assessed the extent of their commitment based on their feelings of obligation and loyalty towards staying in the organization.

As noted in section 4.4 for each statement, we also asked the respondents to indicate how strong they perceived their commitment ranging on a scale of 1 (very weak) to 7 (very strong). These were recorded for each statement. Scores that were 2 or below were considered to be of *very weak* commitment, those ranging from above 2 to 3 were regarded as *weak*, those ranging from above 3 to 4 were regarded as *fairly strong*, above 4 to 5 as *strong* while scores above 5 were regarded as *very strong*. After the outcomes of the interviews were analysed, they were compared with the scores discussed above. The *overall commitment in the faculty* is our interpretation of "adding up" the outcome of the three commitment components. In our interpretation the three components have equal weights. We used the same principle in summing up the total assessment of the three components of commitment with the assessments of the three faculties weighted equally. This enabled us determine the relative strengths of the different components of commitment amongst the staff in the faculties and also to determine overall commitment in the faculties. These outcomes on commitment were then related to the different characteristics of the leadership styles.

4.6   Data analysis

As stated at the onset of this chapter, this study had three main data collection approaches i.e. the questionnaire survey, the interviews used in the case studies and desk research (document analysis). We analysed the different sets of data in different ways. The questionnaire survey was our main source of data for the

description of the leadership styles of the deans and also for explaining those styles. The questionnaire generated quantitative data which was analysed through quantitative approaches mainly relying on Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The first part was composed of questions on the leadership behaviours and leadership roles of the deans from which we derived the leadership styles of the deans. We have discussed how we deployed the 32 behaviour statements of the Competing Values Leadership Instrument to the deans (see outcomes of deans responses to these behaviours in Appendix B). The 32 behaviour statements were composed of 4 statements for each of the eight roles. For each leadership role we constructed indexes based on four behavioural items by simply summing up the scores of the four items and dividing them by 4 (the number of items per role) Based on these roles we carried out a two-step cluster analysis (see section 6.3.2) to determine the leadership styles of the deans, cluster them and put each dean in the corresponding cluster.

In explaining the leadership styles of the deans, we used *attitudes*, *subjective norms* and *perceived behavioural controls* of the deans. As explained in section 4.4 we evaluated the *attitudes* of the deans directly by presenting them with sixteen statements on attitude (on a 7 point Likert scale i.e. 1-*not important at all* to 7 - *extremely important*). The statements were related to the eight roles of CVF with each role being represented by two statements. The scores of the statements making up each role were accumulated by indexing to give the total scores of each role. Since the leadership styles of the deans are made up of these roles, the scores of the deans on these attitude statements were their attitudes towards those roles (styles). *Subjective norms* of the deans was attained by evaluation of their *normative beliefs* and their *motivation to comply* with their important referents (see details in section 4.6.1). The product of these two values gave us the subjective norms of the deans towards the different leadership styles of the deans. We then calculated the *perceived behavioural control* of the deans based on nine statements of barriers to establish if they faced any barriers in performing the leadership styles (see section 4.6.1 for details). To find out the extent to which these three independent variables (attitudes,

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subjective norms and perceived behavioural controls) influenced the leadership styles of the deans, we carried out regression analysis (see section 6.5). We also analysed the possibilities of relationships between the independent variables.

The third step was to assess the impacts of the leadership styles of the deans on commitment of staff in the faculties led by the deans. For this we used interview data from the interviews undertaken on the sampled staff from the case studies. The data was mainly analysed by taking the constructions gathered from the contexts and reconstructing them. This process involves unitizing the data, category designation, bridging, extending and surfacing the data as illustrated in Patton (2005). This was in addition to indexing of the scores regarding their commitment to the faculties (see section 4.4). The information from document analysis was analysed from a thematic approach. Braun & Clarke (2006:78) view thematic analysis as a method of identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. We thus analysed the documents based on themes and categories that were relevant to our study.

A summary of the steps is:

- We presented the deans with 32 behaviour statements whose sums were calculated leading to an index, in principle ranging from a minimum of 32 to a maximum of 224.

- Next we evaluated the extent to which the deans performed the 8 leadership roles of CVF based on four statements (from the 32) making up each role. The scores of the four statements were indexed, ranging from a minimum of 4 to a maximum of 28.

- We then determined the attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural controls, as the independent variables in the TPB model.

- Then we executed several regression analyses in order to see if and to what extent attitudes, social norms and perceived behavioural control explain a particular leadership style. In these analyses we controlled for several

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factors (such as gender, the legal status of the university i.e. public or private, age and experience (duration in office) as a dean. This concludes the first part of this study.

- Finally, we conducted a number of case studies, selected on the basis of the outcomes of the first part of this study (selecting a number of faculties that are being led within the identified leadership styles). Interviews were conducted with 27 academic staff members. The interview protocol used was based on the instruments that have been developed for the Three Component Model of organizational commitment. We used the five point scale of the commitment items for analysis thus, determining which items and aspects of commitment had weak, moderate or strong levels of commitment based on the 24 statements (i.e. 8 statements for each aspect of commitment). These steps are summarised in table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Data analysis steps

Variable	Items of measurement	Measurement format
Leadership behaviours of deans	32 behaviour statements	Index of 32 behaviours on a scale of 1 to 7 (presented by mean score)
Leadership roles of deans	8 leadership roles	Index of 4 statements on a scale from 1 to 7 composing each leadership role (presented by mean score)
Attitudes towards the styles	16 items	Index of two statements on a scale from 1 to 7 making up the attitudes for each of the 8 leadership roles
Subjective norms	4 items of normative beliefs	Means of the 4 normative belief items for every referent group
	4 items of motivation to comply	Means of 4 motivation to comply items
	Normative beliefs multiplied by motivation to comply	Means of normative belief items multiplied by those of motivation to comply for 4 referent groups
Perceived behavioural controls	9 statements of control beliefs	Index of 9 statements on a scale from -3 to 3 (presented by mean score)
Organizational commitment	8 statements of affective commitment	Thematic analysis of the responses and indexing of scores of interviewed staff for the 8 statements
	8 statements of continuance commitment	Thematic analysis of the responses and indexing of scores of interviewed staff for the 8 statements
	8 statements of normative commitment	Thematic analysis of the responses and indexing of the scores of interviewed staff for the 8 statements

4.7   Summary

In this chapter we have presented the research design, data collection methods and approaches used for data analysis for this study. The study adopted a mixed method approach mainly based on a survey design complemented with case studies and document analysis. The chapter also presents the study population and the methods of data collection. A survey questionnaire was used to gather quantitative data from the deans to respond to the first two research questions of this study. The survey instrument was based on the CVF model to derive the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans and the components of the TPB to explain the leadership styles of the deans. An interview protocol based on the three components of commitment was used to collect interview data from the staff in the faculties. This was to evaluate the impacts of the leadership styles on staff commitment at the faculties led by the deans. The chapter also operationalized the variables in the study and provided explanations into how to measure them. In essence therefore, the methodology adopted could enable us describe the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans, explain them and assess their impact on staff commitment in the faculties.

5   Higher education in Kenya: Context, developments and perspectives

This chapter presents a general background of the higher education sector in Kenya. It presents the higher education context in Kenya including history and structure of the system, the policy landscape, governance and management and some contemporary developments characterizing the system. The chapter is mainly intended to provide an understanding of the context within which Kenyan deans operate which is important for understanding their leadership and management styles which is the purpose of this study. The chapter is presented in two parts. The first part presents the history, development and structure of the higher education system while the second part focuses on governance and management of Kenya's higher education institutions.

5.1   The higher education system

This section discusses the higher education system of Kenya. It touches on different aspects important for contextualizing this study. These include the history and development of the system, its structure, governance and management, funding, access and equity, research and academic quality, private higher education, and the deanship in Kenyan universities. We however first present a brief context of the education system then dedicate the rest of the chapter to the higher education sector.

Formal education was introduced in Kenya by the Christian missionaries who linked education to Christianity and to the needs of the colonialists. The system, which was racially segregated was inherited by the new Kenyan government at

independence in 1963 (Eshiwani, 1993). The first Education Commission (the Ominde Commission) under the new government developed the education goals of the country and formulated a new education policy framework, which linked education to economic development and the national aspirations of the new nation (Republic of Kenya, 1964). In the subsequent years, other legislations, commission and taskforce reports have guided policy and provision of education in Kenya. The most prominent ones included The Sessional Paper No 10 of 1965, The Gachathi Commission Report of 1976, the Mackay Commission Report of 1984, the Kamunge Commission Report of 1988, the Koech Commission Report of 1998, Sessional Paper NO.1 of 2005, Constitution of Kenya 2010 and Kenya's Vision 2030. Through education, the government aims at developing quality human resources for the attainment of national goals for growth into a middle income economy as enshrined in the Vision 2030 (Republic of Kenya, 2010).

From independence in 1963 to 1985, Kenya followed an education structure modeled after the British education system. It provided seven years of primary education, four years of lower secondary education, two years of higher secondary education and a minimum of three years university education. In 1984, following the recommendations of the Mackay Commission, this structure changed and entailed eight years of primary school education, four years of secondary school and a minimum of four years of university education (Republic of Kenya, 1984). It is still the prevailing system of education, though it has undergone several reviews over the years especially on the content of the curriculum. A new system, which is competency based, is however under development and should be implemented with effect from 2018.

5.1.1   History and development of the higher education system

Higher education in Kenya, like in most other African countries, is a recent phenomenon spanning back to just a few decades but which has undergone several developments and challenges. The onset of higher education in Kenya can be traced back to 1956 when the Royal Technical College was established in Nairobi. In 1963,

it became the University College, Nairobi as part of the University of East Africa and offered degrees of the University of London till 1966. In 1970 the University of East Africa was dissolved and the three East African countries (Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania) each set up their own national universities (Mwiria et. al, 2007; Sifuna, 2009). In Kenya, an Act of Parliament created the University of Nairobi in 1970 (Republic of Kenya, 1984:12). During these first years after independence the main goal of the university was to develop manpower and expertise to take over from the colonial government and engage in national development (Court, 1974). Nationalism also played an important role as most newly independent states wanted to have a university of their own (Mwiria & Nyukuri, 1992).

As years went by, the demand for university education escalated resulting into the need to create more universities. As a result of this, in addition to University of Nairobi, Moi University was established 1984 as the second university in Kenya followed by Kenyatta University in 1985, Egerton University in 1987, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology in 1994, Maseno University in 2000 and the Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology in 2007 (Sifuna, 2009). Apart from Moi University which was established as a fully-fledged university, the others developed from being constituent colleges of other public universities. By 2013, there were 22 public universities, 9 public university constituent colleges, 17 chartered private universities, and 12 private universities with letters of interim authority. They had a student enrolment of about 324,000 students (Commission for University Education, 2014). There was an increase in students' enrolment by 21.3 percent just between 2011 and 2013 showing the continuing growing demand for higher education.

Kenya, like many African countries regarded the establishment of local universities as a major part of the post-colonial national development project. The new universities were to help the new nations build up their capacity to manage and develop their resources, alleviate the poverty of the majority of their people, and

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close the gap between them and the developed world. The universities were seen as avenues for indigenous knowledge production, local production of expertise for the professions and for the industry. They also had an inherent meaning to national sovereignty and prestige with their key mandates focused on national purposes (Jowi, 2003; Mwiria, 2003; Sifuna, 2009).

Kenya's first *National Development Plan 1964-1970* attached significant political and economic importance to promoting higher education and made recommendations for substantial funding. Consequently, there was focus on expansion of higher education opportunities to promote economic and social development as was earlier affirmed by the Sessional Paper No.10 of 1965 (Republic of Kenya, 1965). Due to these cardinal national obligations attached to higher education, the making of modern day Kenya's higher education was therefore largely a function of the government. The government therefore had a general consensus concerning the role of the university in society. The Government of Kenya Report on the Establishment of a Second University in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 1981) asserts on the role of the university that

> *"A university must be viewed as a place where intellectualism is cultivated, a place where training of rational men and women of good character, with creative minds and strong convictions, as well as critical reasoning abilities, is pursued, and an institution where the general culture of human society including ideas concerning the world, the universe and man, are developed, promoted, and radiated. It must also pay attention to those virtues which make claim on the intellectual life of society and cultivate public awareness of its role in society. It should give the individual student a clear and conscious view of his own opinions and eloquence in expressing them. In summary then, an educated person coming out of a university should be one who has mastered specialized skills and who also seeks to know the significance of what he does. He should not only know how to make a better living but also know how to lead a better life"* (Republic of Kenya, 1981:32).

According to the government of Kenya, the main objective of the university was - and still is - to serve the public interest and national development initiatives. It was to achieve these by pursuing excellence in teaching, research and scholarship and thus to produce well informed, practical and holistic graduates with skills and expertise to function in the development process of the nation both in urban and rural settings and also acquire a critical mind, problem solving skills, professional values, right attitudes and be responsive to the needs of others (Republic of Kenya, 1981; Sifuna, 2009; Nyangau, 2014).

Following this initial stage of the *development university*, the development of higher education in Kenya has been through two other main phases (Republic of Kenya, 2007). The second phase was that of *crisis* characterised by politicization, strong state control and stifling of development and academic freedom in the universities. It was also marked by hard economic times and implementation of Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs). This period was characterised by major policy changes and expansion in the higher education sector. One of the main changes was the introduction of fees payable by students and increase of access to the system. This was the period covering the 1980s and 1990s. The third and current phase has been characterised by *renewal and revitalization* of the higher education sector. Main developments have included increasing democratization, major reforms in governance, diversification of programmes and a continued expansion of the sector. It is pegged on the acceleration of the pace of reforms and the search for appropriate models and strategies for the development of the sector (Jowi, 2003; Sifuna, 2009; Republic of Kenya, 2007).

5.1.2 Funding

Funding is one of the perennial challenges facing Kenyan universities. Funding of higher education in Kenya has mainly been a responsibility of the government. The reconstructionist view of the Kenyan society after independence created a university and government partnership in which universities were regarded as key partners in national development. The university was considered as a public good to which

expenditure of scarce public resources was a justified national necessity (Republic of Kenya, 1995). Between 1963 and 1991, the state provided nearly all resources needed by the public universities in Kenya including the living expenses for students. The rationale for free higher education was based, among other things, on the country's desire to create highly trained manpower that could replace the departing colonial administrators. In return, graduates were bound to work in the public sector for a minimum of three years. Economic difficulties, and the alarming increase in population, coupled with rising oil prices of 1973 (Cutter, 2001) changed this trend and resulted in the reduction of the recurrent budget allocated to higher education, and eventually the introduction of user charges.

The expansion in higher education mentioned earlier, had direct impacts on financing and utilization of physical resources. This led to constraints in government funding which also had impacts on development in the universities including the quality of programs. As a response, the government had to device new ways of funding the sector which included the introduction of tuition fees and requiring universities to establish income generation models, introduction of privately sponsored student programmes (PSSP) and austerity in utilization of resources (Kiamba, 2004; Wangenge-Ouma, 2007)

While government investment in primary and secondary education increased dramatically in the last several years, the higher education portion of total education expenditures continues to hover near 15 percent (Wangenge-Ouma, 2007). It is however notable that in 2011/12 funding to the higher education sector increased from Ksh. 15.7 billion to Ksh. 23 billion (Jowi & Obamba, 2013: 93). Due to funding constraints, the government restricted annual admission of government-subsidized students to 10,000 allowing it to grow at 3 percent per annum (Republic of Kenya, 2000). The financial base of most public universities has been unstable leading to excess of expenditure over income and a build-up of deficits between capital income and capital expenditure (Amutabi, 2003). This led to additional measures including

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restructuring, cost reduction, staff rationalization, reduction on staff welfare and increase in tuition fees. Cost-sharing was introduced in Kenyan universities in 1991, requiring students to cover part of their tuition fees and upkeep. With the influx of new public universities, the government could not meet the total budgetary requirements of the universities thus requiring the universities to find alternative and innovative ways to generate the government budget shortfall (Kiamba, 2004; Oanda, 2013).

Due to diminished funding from the government, public universities in Kenya plunged into marketization by enrolling full-fees paying students (private students) to also have a bigger share in the students market. While this development enabled the universities to generate additional funds to support their core activities, it lead to numerous other challenges related to the increasing numbers of students against limited institutional capacities (Wangenge-Ouma, 2007)

5.1.3   Access and equity

Since independence, Kenya has experienced a remarkable expansion of the higher education sector. While at independence in 1963, Kenya had only 571 students in the university, the numbers grew to 7,418 in 1983, 59,193 in 2000, and 92,316 in 2005. By 2013 there were about 324,000 students enrolled in the universities. Of these, the public universities had about 240,000 students while the private ones had about 60,000 students. Apart from these, though there is no reliable data, it is estimated that there are also about 30,000 Kenyan students studying abroad (Commission for University Education, 2014), especially in Europe and North America. Notwithstanding the rapid expansion of the system, the capacity of the higher education sector in Kenya is still limited to the extent that only 7% of the university level age group is actually enrolled for university education (Republic of Kenya, 2012). The government intends to increase the Gross Enrolment Ratio to 10% by 2020. Government commitment towards this was noted from 2017 when all students who attained qualifications to join university got government funding to join the universities. Due to capacity challenges in the public universities, some of the

students have been sponsored by the government to join accredited private universities. A key challenge has been how to increase access to higher education to cater for the increasing high number of students completing secondary school and others who desire tertiary education (university), while maintaining quality and ensuring equity and affordability (Republic of Kenya, 2012).

Admission to university education in Kenya follows different tracks. The Kenya Universities and Colleges Central Placement Services (KUCCPS), which replaced the Joint Admission Board (JAB), coordinates the placement of government sponsored students into universities and colleges. It also gives advice to government on placement, promote equity and access and develops career guidance programmes for students. Entry into the public universities is based on attainment of a minimum of grade C+ (highest grade is A while E is lowest) in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE). Those who do not benefit from government subsidy join the public universities through the Privately Sponsored Students Programmes (PSSP). The third track is through the private universities.

The government established the Higher Education Loans Board (HELB) in 1995 to administer a student's loan scheme aimed at enabling qualified but poor students to access university education. In addition to the loans, very needy students also get bursaries from the government. In recent years, students can also apply for further funding from their respective constituency development funds. These are funds that the government allocated to regional governments to spend on their development priorities including education. These efforts have in away ameliorated the high number of student who could qualify but not get opportunity to undertake their studies due to financial challenges. This makes access a very critical issue for the system (N'gethe & Mwiria, 2003; Republic of Kenya, 2012).

The low participation in university education in Kenya is compounded by gender, socioeconomic status and regional disparities. There are gender imbalances in student enrolments with approximately 37 per cent of total student population being female. Gender inequities are also noticeable in the lines of study. There are usually fewer women in the science, technology and maths programmes as compared to the arts and social science programmes. One of the issues identified as a challenge to admission of females to university and to professional programmes is their lower level in quality of performance at the secondary school level compared to their male counterparts. Even though the female candidates who attained the minimum university entry qualification increased from 9.2 per cent in 2009 to 23.17 per cent in 2013 (Commission for University Education, 2014), there is still a performance imbalance which fewer females enrolling in competitive programmes and higher education institutions. The measures made to enhance access have however not considerably enhanced equity. Patterns of access to both public and private universities tend to reflect increasing regional, gender and socioeconomic differentiation in the country. This is even more pronounced in the self-sponsored student programs where there is no government subsidy (Republic of Kenya, 2012).

5.1.4   *Research and academic quality*

Quality research requires appropriate and sufficient funding, availability of highly trained research staff, adequate and appropriate facilities and equipment. Kenya's Vision 2030 recognises the role of research in knowledge creation and utilization in the country. Republic of Kenya (2007: 8) envisages the contemporary Kenyan university to be at the cutting edge of research and knowledge to enable the country to respond to its developmental challenges. Kenya is striving to be a globally competitive and prosperous nation as envisaged in its vision 2030. The concept of a national research and innovation system is gaining prominence as is depicted in Kenya's Science, Technology and Innovation (STI) strategy (Republic of Kenya, 2009).

By regional standards, Kenya is rated amongst the most competitive research systems in Africa. The African Innovation Outlook reported that Kenya had a total of 6, 799 research personnel of whom 3,794 were classified as researchers (NEPAD, 2010). Out of these 33% had PhD qualifications. A review of knowledge production in African countries placed Kenya fourth after South Africa, Egypt and Nigeria respectively (Obamba & Oanda, 2013). Between the year 2000 and 2010, Kenyan researchers produced 10, 508 papers featured in SCOPUS (INASP, 2012). The main contributors are researchers from University of Nairobi, Kenyatta University, Moi University and Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology.

Funding for research remains a serious impediment. In 2008, Kenya spent 0.48% of its GDP on research, which is below the African target of spending 1% of GDP on research (NEPAD, 2010:37). Though funding to the higher education sector increased from Ksh. 15.7 billion to Ksh. 23 billion in 2011/12, it is not clear how much went to research (Jowi & Obamba, 2013: 93). The *Wandiga Task Force* (Republic of Kenya, 2007) and the Science and Technology Strategy Paper (Republic of Kenya, 2009) recommended the development of a culture of knowledge generation, allocation of more resources and developing modern research infrastructures in Kenyan universities. The National Council for Science Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) has the mandate of regulating and assuring quality in the science, technology and innovation sectors and giving advice to government on these matters.

Quality higher education has been identified as key to the production of human resources needed for the attainment of Kenya's Vision 2030. Due to this, the government has committed to undertake a series of reforms in the provision of higher education. Enrolments at master's and PhD levels have not only remained low (less than 10% of the total student population), but achieving such degrees takes long and has quality concerns (Republic of Kenya, 2006: 67; Ojiambo, 2009; Commission for University Education, 2014). Quality assurance is a challenge to

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education systems in all parts of the world and more so in the developing economies. There is a widespread perception that quality of university education in Kenya has declined as a result of a number of factors, including sharp increases in student numbers, inadequate human and physical capacities, inadequate funding, and poor working conditions (Owuor, 2012).

Quality Assurance in Kenyan universities is the mandate of the Commission for University Education (CUE). In addition, CUE is mandated to promote the objectives of university education, advise the Cabinet Secretary on university education policy issues, monitor and evaluate the state of university education systems in relations to the national development goals, licence any student recruitment agencies and activities of foreign institutions, develop policy for criteria and requirements for admission to universities, recognize and equate degrees, diplomas and certificates conferred or awarded by foreign universities and institutions in accordance with the standards and guidelines set out by the Commission, undertake or cause to be undertaken, regular inspections, monitoring and evaluation of universities to ensure compliance with set standards and guidelines, and to collect and maintain data on university education (Republic of Kenya, 2012; Commission for University Education, 2014).

Quality assurance in Kenya's higher education system involves accreditation processes, which may generally be defined as a process of quality control and assurance whereby, as a result of inspection or assessment, an institution or its programmes are recognised as meeting minimum acceptable standards. The forms of accreditations include: *Subject Accreditation* where the focus is on specific subject matter, whatever the programme is; *Programme Accreditation* focuses on study programmes; and *Institutional Accreditation*, which focuses on the overall quality of an institution (Commission for University Education, 2014). As a process, the concept of practices in Accreditation and Quality Assurance are based on two main approaches, which include the standard-based approach and the fitness for purpose

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approach. The "standard-based" approach measures quality against pre-defined standards. It focuses on standards and the extent to which they are being met. The "Fitness for Purpose" approach which assumes that quality is equal to objectives and goals as established by the institution (Comimission for University Education, 2014).

Apart from the role of the Commission for University Education, the universities are developing internal quality assurance frameworks. Through the regional quality assurance programme of the Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA) most Kenyan universities have now set up quality assurance units (Ndirangu & Udoto, 2011) in addition to the quality requirements through ISO certifications and performance contracts.

5.1.5   Private higher education

Kenya has more private than public universities. The first independent Kenya Commission of Education (The Ominde Commission) did not encourage private education at any level (Republic of Kenya, 1964). However, private higher education has been flourishing. The commission viewed private education as elitist, exploitative and meant for the rich and developed countries. According to Oketch (2004), the first attempts towards setting up a university in Kenya was a private initiative, which was however rejected. The United States International University (USIU) was the first to be established in 1969. The enactment of a legal framework in 1984 enabled more colleges to transform into degree-awarding institutions. It became an important ground for the growth of private higher education in Kenya . Consequently, between 1970 and 1984, ten new private universities were established, followed by another six by 2006. This growth was further fuelled by the increase in the numbers of students qualifying for university admission beyond the capacity of the public universities (Oketch, 2000; Oketch, 2003; Commission for Higher Education, 2007).

Private universities have different levels of status, according to their accreditation stages. With the exception of a few, most private universities in Kenya have a religious foundation and orientation and they have a student populations of about 5, 000 each compared to their public counterparts (some of which have about tenfold of the private university student numbers). They also offer comparatively fewer programs especially in arts, business and information communication technologies. Their human resource capacities are also low, making them to rely heavily on part-time academic staff from the public universities. The private universities have a total student enrolment of about 60,000 (Republic of Kenya, 2012). While they offer alternative channels of access to higher education, they are still offering limited opportunities due to their low capacities and few program offerings. The current regulatory framework still makes it cumbersome for private universities to diversify their academic programs. Private institutions in Kenya depend on revenue from the tuition fees they generate from their students. Such heavy dependence on tuition coupled with lack of alternative income sources have made these institutions expensive and thus unaffordable for most Kenyans. In addition to the private universities, there are also campuses of foreign universities offering their programs in Kenya, especially in Nairobi.

5.2   Internal university governance and management

Kenyan universities adopted their internal governance structures mainly from the British university traditions. For nearly all the universities, the internal governance structure is composed of the Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, senate, school boards and departments, each with different responsibilities. Prior to 2012, public universities in Kenya were governed in accordance with their various Acts of Parliament. In 2012, the enactment of the Universities Act brought the establishment, governance and administration of all universities under one legal framework (Republic of Kenya, 2012). Following enactment of the Universities Act, all individual Acts of the public universities were repealed and the universities were re-accredited and awarded new charters after institutional quality audits (Commission for University

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Education, 2014). The Act puts in place new regulations for the development of university education, the establishment, accreditation, and governance of universities in Kenya. The same Act upgraded several university colleges to attain full university status and transformed the Commission for Higher Education (CHE) to the Commission for University Education (CUE) with a broader mandate on higher education in the country. These include promoting the objectives of university education, advising the government on policies on university education, setting standards and assuring quality in university education, recognition and equating degrees from other countries, undertaking regular inspections of universities and accrediting and auditing university education in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2012:15).

This new Act allows five different types of universities to operate in Kenya: public universities, public university constituent colleges, chartered private universities, private university constituent colleges, private universities with letters of interim authority and registered private universities. Foreign universities wishing to operate in Kenya must also apply through the commission and must submit proof of accreditation in their own countries. The Act provides universities with autonomy and academic freedom, but demands more public accountability from them.

The Act provides that the universities shall be governed according to their charters as provided by the Act and by their statutes made by their respective councils. The position of the Chancellor is the highest in the structure and was previously occupied by the country's president. They mainly preside over university ceremonies such as graduation and also advise the president on the appointment of chief officers of the universities. For public universities, the Chancellor is appointed by the president and serves for a term of five years subject to re-appointment. For private universities they are appointed in accordance with the respective university charters. The Chancellor as the titular head of the university is responsible for conferring degrees and granting diplomas and other awards of the University, may

recommend a visitation of the university, gives advice to the Council and performs other functions as provided in the Charter. Where the Chancellor is unable for any reason to perform the functions of office, the Chairman of the Council of the University shall perform such functions, and shall for that purpose be deemed to be the pro-Chancellor. The Chancellor is expected to demonstrate moral and integrity values in accordance with the Constitution and adheres to principles of professionalism.

Apart from the Chancellor, each university is required to establish a Council, which is the main governing body. The Council has the responsibility of overall management of the university, including hiring staff, approving statutes and policies of the university, approving budgets, recommending to the president the appointment of Vice-Chancellors, their deputies and principals of constituent colleges through a competitive process. Members of council in public universities are appointed by the Cabinet Secretary for Education based on propositions by a selection panel. In private universities the council is appointed in accordance with provisions of the respective Charter. These universities may, with the approval of the Commission for University Education, establish additional governance organs, including a Board of Trustees or its equivalent which is the sponsor of the university and is responsible for raising funds for the benefit of the university; promoting the objects of the university; and appoint the university Chancellor (Commission for University Education, 2014).

The senate, chaired by the Vice-Chancellor and composed of the professors, deans and head of departments is responsible for all academic matters in the university. For public universities, the Vice-Chancellor is appointed by the Cabinet Secretary responsible for Education ('ministry') on the recommendation of the university's Council based on the results of a competitive recruitment process. As the chief executive of the university, the Vice-Chancellor is the academic and administrative head of the university and has overall responsibility for the direction, organization,

administration and programmes of the university. In public universities Vice-Chancellors hold office for a period of five years and are eligible for re-appointment for a further term. The term of the Vice-Chancellor of the private university shall be as defined in their Charter. The same procedures apply to the appointment of the principal of a constituent college of the university. Each university also has a students' association elected by the students and which represents their interests in different governing bodies of the university.

Most universities have a Management Board responsible for implementation of the university's policies, to assist in the day-to-day management of the university and to undertake such other functions as shall be set out in the Charter. The Management Board is responsible for implementation of policies and day to day running of the university. Except for the faculty deans, staff, and student representatives on university councils, all the other officers are appointed.

5.2.1   Deans and university governance

The above section described the top management[3] structure and actors in Kenyan universities. Within this structure, deans occupy the position just below top management. While the private universities mainly have fewer faculties, most of the public universities are comprehensive and have various disciplines and thus many deans compared to the private ones. As heads of the faculties and schools, deans head the academic units in the universities with responsibilities ranging from developing academic programs, mobilizing resources for the faculty, students' services, staff development, financial management and strategy development amongst others. In some Kenyan universities deans are elected, while in others they are appointed by university management.

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[3] The apex of the organization as we discussed in section 1.2.1 that discussed different leadership positions in relation to organizational structures.

In most Kenyan universities deans report directly to the Vice-Chancellors. In few instances, especially in large universities such as University of Nairobi, faculties are situated within colleges. Here a dean reports to the principal of the respective college under which the faculty falls. In recent years and due to several transformations in the higher education sector, the mandates of deans have been expanded. In the formative years the universities were more centralised with top level executives having to be responsible for most managerial tasks. In the last ten years most universities have devolved several authorities to the deans. This has also been compounded by the changing role of government in funding as a result of the rapid expansion of the sector. Some universities have developed training programs for deans to prepare them for these new mandates (Ngethe & Mwiria, 2003; Wangenge-Ouma, 2012).

In our discussions in Chapter one, we presented deans as middle managers whose leaderships styles have not been much investigated but whose responsibilities are growing within the universities. In the same chapter, we proceeded and presented some of the roles of deans in Kenyan universities and the changing contexts in which they work. Generally deans head faculties composed of several departments headed by chairs or heads of department under whom academic programmes are run. Among other responsibilities, deans chair faculty board meetings which brings together representation from all departments in the faculty. Faculties are of different sizes in terms of students and staff, even within same institutions, and have different cultures and capacities. The deans relate to different stakeholders including within and external to their faculties. The faculties are the main academic units of the universities and the colleges.

Due to funding constraints the government requires universities to generate extra funding from other sources to augment funding from the government. The universities are required to innovate new ways of generating alternative income (Wangenge-Ouma, 2012; Johnson & Hirt, 2011). This led for example to the

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establishment of university companies and other Income Generation Units (IGUs), mostly run at the faculty level. They are expanding the portfolio of deans even further. This is in addition to managing the privately sponsored students programs that generate most of the revenue for the public universities. In general, the position and role of deans in Kenyan universities has become the operating management floor where most of these activities are to be undertaken.

Compared to the previous years, there is strengthening of the internal management of the institutions and demand for more accountability from both internal and external stakeholders especially students and employers. The government of Kenya launched a strategy for performance improvement in public universities through performance contracts requiring university leaders to work towards predetermined objectives, outputs and results (Letangule & Letting, 2012). This is aimed at institutionalizing performance and improving service delivery by ensuring that university leaders are accountable for results and resource utilization (Republic of Kenya, 2001; Mathooko, & Ogutu, 2014). The mandates of deans in Kenyan universities have also recently been expanded as a result of decentralization of several activities and responsibilities from central university management to the levels of the deans. Through this more decision making and authority were devolved to the deans, giving them more responsibilities than before (Dinku & Shitemi, 2011; Kamaara, 2011). As highlighted in section 1.3 the new mandates of deans include sourcing for more funds for their faculties through innovative income generation mechanisms, recruiting more fees paying students (especially the privately sponsored students programs), responding to demands for more accountability and enhanced performance from both internal and external stakeholders, managing diverse students groups and those of central management amongst others. In fact, Dinku and Shitemi (2011) expound on how the role of the dean has changed, the challenges deans encounter in managing their faculties such as funding, capacity deficits, students and staff needs, new governance requirements and concerns on quality amongst others. These require leadership development for the deans. They point out the shift of the universities from being

ivory towers to open and collaborating institutions, where entrepreneurship is a basic goal in addition to appreciation of bench marks and shared experiences (Dinku & Shitemi, 2011:12). As such, the sphere of deans in Kenyan universities has been expanding, making it even more necessary to understand how they manage their faculties.

5.3   Summary

The presentation of Kenya's higher education sector in this chapter mainly provides the context in which Kenyan deans operate. The country context and historical developments of the sector are lenses for understanding the higher education sector in Kenya. The different aspects of the system such as governance, policy frameworks, funding, research capacity, access, quality among others provide more trajectories through which the system has been addressed. It is meant to place the deans in the entire structure and to describe the responsibilities expected of them within those institutional frameworks. The chapter also discussed the contemporary reforms in the sector which are also shaping leadership and management in the institutions. The chapter is thus important is situating the leadership challenge in Kenyan universities, thus the essence of studying deans whom we consider as important for organizational success of universities in Kenya.

6   Leadership styles of deans in Kenyan universities

This chapter discusses the leadership styles of deans in Kenyan universities and explains why they adopt these styles in managing their faculties. By that, it addresses the first two research questions of this study. The chapter is organized in three parts. The first part presents the leadership styles demonstrated by the Kenyan deans in managing their faculties based on an analysis of the leadership behaviours and roles of the deans. The second part explains why the deans adopt these leadership styles. This is done based on the components of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). The final part presents a summary of the chapter.

6.1   Leadership behaviours of Kenyan deans

This study aims at providing an understanding into how deans in Kenyan universities manage their faculties and the effects of their leadership styles on staff commitment. This endeavour is guided by three research questions presented in section 1.5. The first part of this chapter deals with our first research question "*what are the leadership styles of Kenyan deans?*" This requires us to make a description of how Kenyan deans manage their faculties, i.e. to describe their leadership styles. In section *3.1.2*, we defined a style as a way of doing things repeatedly within a given context and generally viewed it as a repeated way of behaviour. In the context of this study, the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans would then imply their repeated behaviours as they manage their faculties. Fishbein & Ajzen (2010:29) view behaviour as observable events which take place in a certain place within a certain context at a given time and directed at some target. Since behaviour is a complex phenomenon, explaining one's behaviour would require the specification of that behaviour and then evaluating or measuring it. In this view, understanding the

leadership behaviours or styles of the Kenyan deans would mean that we specify the behaviours of interest and measure them (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

In our theoretical framework, we presented and discussed the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) as our model of explaining behaviour. We noted that the theory relies on *attitudes, subjective norms* and *perceived behavioural controls* to explain behaviour. We relied on these components of TPB to explain the leadership behaviours or styles of the deans. This required first identifying and specifying the leadership behaviours of interest that we would use to establish the dominant leadership styles of the deans. The identification and specification of the behaviours of interest was part of the main rationale for adding the Competing Values Framework (CVF) to our model. In section 3.2 we discussed the CVF and its applicability to our study. Importantly, we noted that within its four quadrants, the CVF presents leadership roles that organizational leaders are expected to execute. We evaluated the extent to which the deans executed these roles by analyzing their leadership behaviours.

Our starting point was the Competing Values Managerial Skills Instrument (Quinn, 1988) of CVF which provides a way of defining and measuring leadership behaviours. The instrument lists 32 behaviours that organizational leaders could exhibit in managing their organizations. We evaluated the extent to which the Kenyan deans exhibited these 32 behaviours[4] in managing their faculties. The outcome from the responses of the deans on these behaviours (see Appendix B) shows that in general they viewed themselves as quite frequently performing all the 32 leadership behaviours as they managed their faculties. On a Likert scale of 1 to 7 the mean scores of the deans' responses on each of the 32 behaviour items ranged

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[4] We presented the deans with statements containing the 32 statements in our questionnaire survey based on a Likert Scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*always*)

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from 5.0 (least performed behaviour) to 6.6 (most performed behaviour). It is striking that the deans perceive themselves as performing all the 32 behaviours. Important to our study is the observation that they view themselves as performing all 32 behaviours quite frequently. It is also notable that some behaviours were performed even more frequently than others.

Since according to the CVF these leadership behaviours are important for the success of organizations, this behavioural pattern could imply that the Kenyan faculties have good leadership. If these self-reports of deans of their leadership behaviours is true, then it could be further argued that they exhibit peculiar behavioural complexity. As suggested by Quinn (1988) such behavioural complexity could mean that the deans are very dynamic, all round, multifaceted and that their faculties are well managed[5]. The CVF also notes that it is quite a task for leaders to perform all these behaviours regularly, as the deans portray i.e. performing different and even contradictory leadership behaviours. As demonstrated by the review of literature on Kenya's higher education sector, such exemplary leadership by the deans might not actually be the case, noting the several challenges facing the sector.

Other research that support our suspicion about such exemplary leadership indicates that leadership is one of the main challenges facing Kenyan universities (Sifuna, 1997; Owino, Oanda & Olel, 2011; Dinku & Shitemi, 2011). Leadership at the faculty level in Kenyan universities has always been one of the main challenges of institutional governance (Mwiria, Ngethe, Ngome, Ouma-Odero, Wawire & Wesonga, 2007). In fact, Dinku & Shitemi (2011) argue that most deans in Kenyan universities face many leadership challenges in their faculties and are in most cases

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[5] According to CVF, balancing different behaviours as the deans do would imply that they are good leaders able to deal with different leadership requirements. As such the faculties would therefore seem to be well run.

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not professionally prepared for these positions beforehand (Mwiria, 2003; Kamaara, 2011, Mathooko, & Ogutu, 2014). These impressions from the literature suggest that deans may not be able to deploy the level of behavioural complexity as is depicted by the outcomes of their responses regarding their performance of the leadership roles. It could be possible that the deans are frequently performing most of the roles as they are reporting, but maybe they are not doing them so well, to impact positively on their leadership and faculties. Again, and related to the literature above, performing so many roles, in a context of several challenges such as that of the Kenyan dean, could possibly be counterproductive. It could mean that the deans try to do everything at the same time, but this does not necessarily imply that they do them well. Even the opposite might be true.

6.2   Leadership roles of Kenyan deans

In section 6.1 we noted that the deans report that they frequently performed the 32 leadership behaviours that were based on the Competing Values Managerial Skills Instrument. Amongst these 32 behaviour statements, four statements represented each of the 8 leadership roles of the CVF. We have already noted that within its four quadrants, the CVF defines the 8 leadership roles that organizational leaders need to execute and balance in managing their organizations. These roles are the *innovator, broker, producer, director, coordinator, monitor, facilitator* and *mentor* roles (see also fig. 3.2 and section 3.5.4). As explained in chapter 4, for each managerial role we constructed indexes based on four behavioural items by simply summing up the scores of the four items and dividing them by 4 (the number of items per role). The outcomes in terms of frequencies and means are presented in table 6.1.

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Table 6.1 Deans' performance of the 8 leadership roles of the CVF (in %, N=60)

Roles	Infrequent	Sometimes	Almost Always	Mean	Std. Dev
Director	0.0	26.7	73.3	6.07	.59
Facilitator	0.0	31.7	68.3	6.03	.67
Mentor	5.0	23.3	71.7	5.99	.90
Producer	0.0	41.7	58.3	5.90	.79
Coordinator	0.0	46.7	53.3	5.78	.75
Broker	1.7	46.7	51. 7	5.76	.86
Innovator	3.3	48.3	48.3	5.61	.85
Monitor	15.0	40.0	45.0	5.57	1.00

Infrequent (*never, hardly ever, seldom*), sometimes (*sometimes, often*) and almost always (*almost always, always*)

The outcome suggests that the deans view themselves as performing all the 8 leadership roles of CVF regularly based on the mean scores which range from 5.57 (least performed role) to 6.07 (most performed role) on a scale of 1 to 7. As mentioned earlier, this outcome on the performance of the leadership roles is of course not surprising as the deans already indicated they perform most of the leadership behaviours very frequently. They however view themselves as performing some roles more frequently than others. They for instance perceive themselves as performing the *director*, *facilitator* and *mentor* roles more frequently than *monitor*, *innovator* and *coordinator* roles.

According to the CVF, by reporting that they perform the *director* role most frequently, the deans indicate that they *always set clear objectives, define responsibilities*

and clarify policies as they manage their faculties. The high performance of the *facilitator* and *mentor* roles indicate that they view themselves as *always facilitating consensus in decision making, encouraging participative decision making, sharing ideas with colleagues, fostering team work as well as listening to personal problems of staff, empathizing with them and also treating them in a sensitive and caring way.* In this way, the deans view themselves as *always helpful, approachable, empathetic and concerned with the development of their staff.* If we combine these three leadership roles that are most frequently performed by the deans, then we would conclude that the Kenyan deans mostly view themselves as being focused on defining responsibilities in their faculties, building consensus and showing care for their faculty members.

They somewhat less frequently perform the *monitor* and *innovator* roles which according to CVF implies that they less frequently *develop plans, review detailed reports or deal with technical and detailed information nor do they frequently compare and analyze records and reports to detect any discrepancies.* They also view themselves as not *always coming up with new inventive ideas, not always experimenting with new concepts nor solving the faculty problems in a creative and innovative ways.* Thus, we conclude that while the deans view themselves as executing all the eight r

oles of CVF quite frequently, there are still some variations on the extent to which these roles are executed.

6.3   Leadership styles of deans in Kenyan universities

A leadership style can be regarded as patterns of interactive behaviours that the deans deploy to fulfil their tasks (cf. Bass, 1990:27). In our study, we define a leadership style as a particular configuration of leadership roles as addressed in the CVF. Based on the outcomes of leadership roles of Kenyan deans, this style (configuration of roles) would be quite a generic style as it includes all the possible roles of CVF to a large extent. According to the model, when leaders adopt such an all round style they are referred to as *master managers* (Quinn, 1992). We discuss the characteristics of the master style below.

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6.3.1   The master style

As presented in section 6.2 the deans' responses indicate that they embrace all the eight leadership roles of the CVF, though at different magnitudes. When mapped on the CVF quadrants against the respective roles, their performance of the eight leadership roles is as presented in the *master style* in Fig. 6.1.

Figure 6. 1:   *The deans' master style based on eight roles of the CVF*
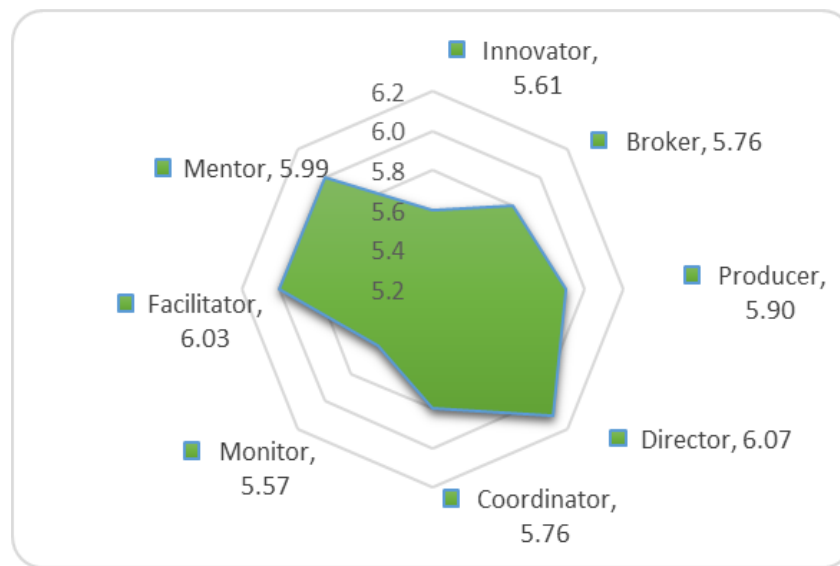
Based on the CVF, the *master style* depicted by the Kenyan deans would imply that they try to balance the different leadership roles, and their competing values, and would therefore try to attain more success and effectiveness for their faculties in consistency with expectation on such master managers (Quinn, 1984; Hooijberg & Quinn, 1992). They strive to be master managers who have the ability to balance complex roles of CVF in their leadership. This requires what Hooijberg and Quinn (1992) refer to as *behavioural complexity,* which is the ability to exhibit contrary and opposing behaviours. With such behavioural complexity, they can deal with the

contradictions and complexities of their faculties to meet and integrate the paradoxical issues of organizational life (Denison, Hooijberg, & Quinn, 1995). To have such behavioural complexity would suggest that they draw from a wider repertoire of behaviours (Hooijberg & Quinn, 1992) enabling them to balance both their external and internal environments (O'Neill & Quinn, 1993).

The *master style* however presents a rather generic and seemingly ideal leadership style, which though useful, does not say so much about the different ways in which Kenyan deans manage their faculties. It might be that they all try to reach this ideal, but it is not very convincing to conclude that all the deans in the Kenyan universities lead their faculties in a similar way, neither is it plausible to claim that they are all capable of dealing with competing values (and in that respect being assumed to be successful leaders). The impressions from the literature on leadership in Kenyan universities (see section 6.1) suggest the contrary which could not have possibly been the case if the faculties were managed in the way that the deans report in this study. These challenges could have actually been ameliorated if the deans as part of the university leadership had the repertoire of leadership demonstrated in their self-reports. If Kenyan deans see themselves as master managers, then why does the literature tend to consider leadership as a key challenge? These outcomes call for a deeper and more nuanced understanding of how faculties in Kenyan universities are managed and how deans actually do it. Therefore, we took a further step to derive new nomenclatures and contrasts in the leadership styles to provide a better understanding of how leadership styles of the deans are manifested at the faculties.

6.3.2   *Leadership styles of Kenyan deans in greater detail*

Our point of departure in the next step of our analysis of the leadership styles is that, while the deans report they execute all eight roles, some roles are more important than others. In other words, we focus on the relative values of the eight roles of CVF. The key assumption is that if all the eight roles would be executed equally, then each role should have a relative value of 12.5 (i.e. 100/8). Based on this

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assumption on the *relative importance* of the roles, it would therefore be that all leadership roles attaining the value 12.5 or higher would be considered as (more) important and would be considered in determining a leadership style. Consequently, any leadership roles whose relative importance value falls below 12.5 would be considered not to be relatively important and would be omitted in developing the most important leadership styles of the deans.

The procedure has been as follows (see also chapter 4). For all the respondents, we calculated the sum of the scores for the 32 statements leading to scores ranging from a minimum of 32 to a maximum of 224. Next, we calculated the sum of the scores for all the four items making each of the eight leadership roles (based on four behavioural items from the survey) leading to scores ranging from a minimum of 4 to a maximum of 28. Next, we calculated the relative importance of each role by dividing the sum of the scores for the roles by the total sum of behaviours. We finally constructed a dummy variable for each role, in which the value 0 indicates 'not important' (share of the role less than 12.5%) and the value 1 indicates 'important' (share of the role more than 12.5%). Using these dummy variables, we conducted a two-step cluster analysis to determine the leadership styles based on the eight roles from the CVF. However, the outcome of this step showed that the 'cluster quality' (indicated by the silhouette measure of cohesion and separation of the 2-step cluster analysis) turned out to be poor. Moreover, the outcome of four clusters based on the eight roles were nearly impossible to interpret.

Instead of using the eight roles as inputs for the 2-step cluster analysis, we opted to use the four quadrants, each with two leadership roles, as inputs for the cluster analysis. For example, with respect to the clan quadrant, stressing an internal focus and flexibility, we enumerated the scores of the *facilitator* and the *mentor* role (and likewise for the other quadrants). We then followed the same procedure as described above to construct dummy variables for each quadrant, indicating the relative importance of the two roles per quadrant (this time using 25 (100/4) instead

of 12.5 as the cut-off point). By using these four dummy variables as input for the 2-step cluster analysis, we respectively calculated two, three and four clusters. After analysing these three outcomes, we opted for the model with three clusters. This was based on the fact that the model with two clusters was relatively poor (low silhouette measure and a poor ration of sizes) and the one with four clusters showed a promising outcome (in terms of requirements), but the clusters were still rather hard to interpret as they were not very distinct from each other (compared with the three-cluster outcome). Therefore, the model with the three cluster outcome was regarded as the best outcome for our research. The model requirements (silhouette measure of cohesion and separation (0.5) and the ratio of sizes (1.73) were very good, and the outcome in terms of styles (clusters) made sense. They were also in line with the leadership roles, presented in section 6.2 (table 6.1). The outcome of the two-step cluster analysis is presented in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2: The three-cluster outcome of the two step cluster analysis
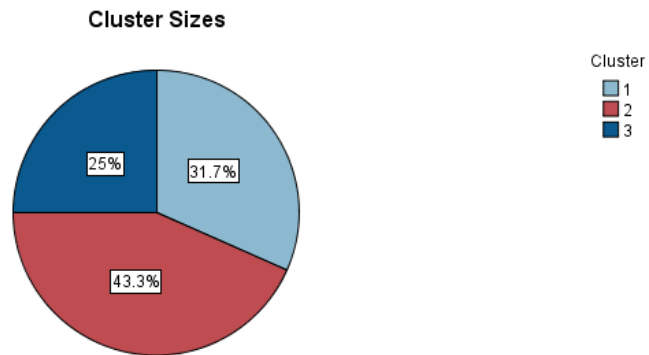
Cluster Sizes

Size of Smallest Cluster	15 (25%)
Size of Largest Cluster	26 (43.3%)
Ratio of Sizes: Largest Cluster to Smallest Cluster	1.73

The four leadership roles with the highest average scores are highly visible in the cluster outcome, as is demonstrated in Table 6.2 below. The three-cluster outcome of the 2-step cluster analysis, aimed at finding clearly distinctive leadership roles, is presented in table 6.2 which actually represents the three main clusters (styles) under which the Kenyan deans can be grouped.

Table 6.2:Percentage of deans finding leadership roles (per quadrant) important in leading their faculties

	cluster 1	cluster 2	cluster 3
N = 60	15 (25.0%)	26 (43.3%)	19 (31.7%)
Clan roles	100	19	100
Adhocracy roles	47	50	0
Market roles	0	73	100
Hierarchy roles	40	50	0

Table 6.2 shows that of the 60 deans from our sample 25.0% have style 1, 43.3% have style 2 and 31.7% demonstrate style 3. These three clusters represent the dominant ways or styles by which the deans lead their faculties. To distinguish these styles from the labels of the CVF, we have labelled them based on the characteristics of the quadrants and roles making up each cluster (and using the same cut off point as in the 2-step cluster analysis; ≤50% as not important and >50% as important). The first style is dominated by deans having leadership roles from the *clan* quadrant; all deans from cluster 1 exhibit these clan roles (100%, see table 6.2). While some of the deans from this cluster also exhibit adhocracy (47%) and hierarchy (40%) roles, we would label this style as *'people managers'*, indicating a style with a focus on flexibility and being inward looking (see quadrants of the CVF in chapter 3). The second cluster concerns deans primarily having roles from the *market* quadrant (being the only quadrant above the cut-off point of 50%); we label them as the *'performance-driven goal setters'*, as this quadrant has an emphasis on control and having an external focus with performance being associated with directing activities and being competitive. The third cluster is a combination of roles from two quadrants: the *clan* and *market* quadrant. All these deans execute the roles from

these two quadrants and there is no single dean exhibiting roles from the other two quadrants (adhocracy and hierarchy). We label this third style as the *'empathetic pushers'*, apparently able to deal with two clearly opposing value sets (as the clan and the market quadrants are opposites in the CVF, (an internal-flexible and an external-control focus).

In the next sub sections we will address the three different styles in more detail.

6.3.3   People manager style

This style is composed of 25% of the deans of whom 87% (N=13) were male. Only 13% (N=2) were from faculties in private universities suggesting they were mainly from public universities. All deans stated that they were from predominantly teaching faculties. With reference to the quadrants of the CVF framework, this style emphasizes aspects from the *clan* quadrant which falls within the *human relations model* at the top left quadrant of the CVF. It emphasizes people leadership functions such as trust and belongingness with the main targeted outcomes being staff participation and openness. It promotes internal maintenance with an emphasis on flexibility, cooperation amongst staff members, concern for people and sensitivity for customers or clients. Leaders operating within this quadrant are expected to demonstrate styles which carry organizational vision, eschew staff cohesion, build high levels of morale in the staff, develop shared organizational goals and at the same time have a focus on outputs and outcomes.

Such leadership styles that emphasize on the clan roles are usually associated with organizations that have a flat structure and where people and teams act more autonomously with an inward focus and a sense of family. They usually demonstrate loyalty to one another in pursuit of their shared cause. Leadership in such organizations is expected to create an environment comparable to an extended family where members and clients see each other as partners, where employees share same values, goals and beliefs. Leaders in these organizations have to be supportive, facilitating and mentoring to their staff. These are the characteristics expected of the deans who deploy these styles and also in the faculties lead by such deans.

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With respect to the CVF roles, the deans in this style frequently perform the *mentor* and *facilitator* roles. As mentors, they would have concern and attention for the personal needs of academic staff members of their faculties and also demonstrate explicit attention for the personal development of their staff. As facilitators, they would have a strong sense of community, make staff to feel at home and share with them organizational goals. They would at the same time develop high staff commitment through consensus based decision making. Generally as a facilitator, the dean is expected to foster collective effort, build cohesion, team work and manage any conflicts in the organization. In addition, as a mentor, the dean is expected to be more open, approachable and engaging in the development of staff through caring and empathic orientation.

6.3.4   *The performance- driven goal- setters style*

The second leadership style demonstrated by Kenyan deans is the *performance-driven goal-setters style*, which is exhibited by 43.3 % (N=26) of the deans. Of these, 73% (N=19) were male, 85% (N=22) were from public universities while only 8% (N=2) were from predominantly research focused universities. This style has a strong focus on the *market* quadrant which falls on the bottom right quadrant of the CVF. This quadrant which is in the *rational goal model* emphasizes on control and external focus with performance being associated with directing activities. Deans with this market oriented style would be mostly driven by results and competition. They would look outwards of their organization and have all transactions and activities both internal and external viewed in market terms. They would also perceive the external environment as hostile and competitive making them to be hard driving and competitive leaders who hold the faculty together with an emphasis on winning. .

Deans in this style would typically be *producers* and *directors*. According to CVF, as *producers* they would focus on results and performance of academic staff and foster a sense of faculty competitiveness to enable them perform better than others. They would also see that the faculty delivers on the stated goals and insist on intense hard work and high productivity by pushing academic staff to meet ambitious and

competitive faculty objectives. They would in addition scan the market for opportunities and threats and position their faculties as the leaders in that environment. As *directors*, the deans would take a lead in defining areas of responsibility for academic staff and make sure that all staff know the direction, objectives and goals of the faculty. The dean would thus hold and reinforce the vision of the faculty and clarify policy priorities and future direction. These deans seem more focused on making the faculty more competitive, productive and successful.

6.3.5   The empathetic pushers style

The third dominant leadership style demonstrated by 31.7% (N=19) of the Kenyan deans is the *empathetic pushers* style. Of these deans 21% (N=4) were females, 37% (N=7) from faculties in private universities while they were predominantly from teaching universities (95%). Unlike the first two styles which were based on roles from a single quadrant of CVF, the deans in this style demonstrate roles associated with two quadrants of CVF i.e. the *clan* and *market* quadrant. It is interesting to note that these are actually the two quadrants making up the first two leadership styles i.e. *people manager style* (clan) and *performance-driven goal- setters style* (market). While the first set of deans demonstrate these quadrants separately, the deans who deploy the *empathetic pushers style* combine these two quadrants. This suggests that they frequently perform more roles than the deans in the first two styles. This implies therefore that they have more behavioural complexity than the deans in the first two styles. They can thus lead their faculties in much more multifaceted ways than the deans in the first two styles. It is also notable that the quadrants that are combined by the deans in this style are actually direct opposites within the CVF model. This suggests that apart from having more behavioural complexity, these deans are also good at dealing with contradictions or competing values as these quadrants largely contradict each other in terms of the role expectations on the deans and thus the styles.

In discussing the first two styles, we already discussed the characteristics of these two quadrants. As we have noted earlier, the *clan* quadrant emphasizes on

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flexibility, concern for people, shared goals and a focus on outcomes. It combines the *mentor* and *facilitator* roles whose characteristics we have discussed. The *market* quadrant on the other hand focuses on the external environment, results, and is based on competition, winning and productivity. It combines the *producer* and *director* roles. By combining these two quadrants, the deans are indicating that they are both people oriented, caring while at the same time competitive and pushing for results. They do these by deploying the four roles associated with these quadrants 1.e *mentor, facilitator, producer* and *director* roles.

6.3.6   Summary and discussion

In summary, when we look at the three leadership styles together, we note that they are all based on two quadrants i.e. the *people manager style* is based on the *clan* quadrant, the *performance-driven goal setters* style is based on the *market* quadrant while the *empathetic pushers style* is based on both the *clan* and *market* quadrants. This pattern suggests that Kenyan deans lead their faculties mainly based on these two quadrants. The other two quadrants of CVF i.e. *adhocracy* and *hierarchy* are not manifested, at least when we strictly use the 50% cut off point as the 2-step cluster approach does. If we would have been less strict, then one might argue that in cluster 2 hierarchy and adhocracy roles are visible to some extent. Table 6.3 summarises the characteristics of the three styles by which the Kenyan deans lead their faculties.

Table 6.3   *Characteristics of the leadership styles of Kenyan deans*

	Characteristics	Roles	Quadrants
The people manager Style (internal focus)	They are sensitive to the needs of employees and help employees plan their growth and development. They pursue high morale and commitment	Mentor	Clan
	They build cohesion, team work amongst employees, solve problems and conflicts in the group. They pursue group participation and openness.	Facilitator	
The performance driven goal setters style (external focus)	They are task oriented, work focused and motivate behaviours that lead to completion of tasks. They work productively, managing time and fostering productive work environment.	Producer	Market
	They are focused on goal setting, role clarification and are are assertive, communicate vision and goals of the organization and give organizational direction which is important for attaining outputs.	Director	
The empathetic pusher style (external and internal focus)	They are sensitive to the needs of employees and help employees plan their growth and development. They pursue high morale and commitment.	Mentor	Clan
	They build cohesion, team work amongst employees, solve problems and conflicts in the group. They pursue group participation and openness.	Facilitator	
	They are task oriented, work focused and motivate behaviours that lead to completion of tasks. They work productively, managing time and fostering productive work environment.	Producer	Market
	They are focused on goal setting, role clarification and are are assertive, communicate vision and goals of the organization and give organizational direction which is important for attaining outputs.	Director	

At face value, this outcome, as summarized in Table 6.3 seems to make sense if we take some core characteristics and some recent developments in the Kenyan higher education sector into account. This study focuses on leadership in an African context where leadership according to most literature (Seepe, 2000) is traditionally and typically assumed to be more consultative and empathetic thus relating more to the *clan* quadrant. Most leadership studies in Africa have highlighted the dominance of *Ubuntu* as a way of leadership which focuses mainly on human relations (Ncube, 2010; Bush, 2007; Malunga, 2009). *Ubuntu* prizes communal relationships with others, sharing as a way of life and caring for the quality of others' lives (Metz, 2011; Malunga, 2009). These attributes are associated with the clan quadrant. The clan culture also emphasizes on participation which Wainaina, Iravo and Waititutu (2015) view as important for staff commitment in Kenyan universities. The fact that the deans embrace more of clan leadership could also be explained based on the recent changes in the internal governance structures of Kenyan universities. While years ago the governance and management of universities in Kenya was quite centralized, in recent years the universities gave more responsibilities to the faculties. Part of the consequence has been that in most universities deans are elected by the academic staff. This puts responsibility and demands on the deans to be nicer to their staff by granting them support, empathizing with them and participating with them as a family to pursue the goals of the faculty.

Moreover, from a more general perspective it fits many higher education studies on leadership, which view universities as collegial organizations composed of communities of scholars who see themselves as peers and where professional expertise is valued (File, 2000; Pfeffer & Salanick, 1974). If such collegiality is true with Kenyan universities, then it would be expected that deans would lead their faculties in ways that promote a sense of community, shared goals and values and collective responsibility as is characteristic of the *clan* quadrant.

The *market* quadrant which was important to deans in the *performance-driven goal-setters style* and in the *empathetic pushers style* could also have some explanations. In the past few years, rapidity of change has characterized the higher education system in Kenya (see Chapter 5). From a management and policy perspective, the new Universities Act (Republic of Kenya, 2012) brought in drastic changes in the management of Kenyan universities. New governance reforms have given deans more responsibilities in decision making and developing strategies for shaping their faculties. Most universities in Kenya are focused on the market and have opened branch campuses in major cities in Kenya for more market share (Oanda & Jowi, 2013). This is evidenced by the growing competition for fees paying students also known as privately sponsored students (Kiamba, 2004).This has also made faculties to broaden their academic programmes and put more focus on marketable programs with the non-marketable programmes facing lots of constraints. The faculties, just like the universities also have to augment their budgetary requirements from self-generated funds (Wangege-Ouma, 2007) making the market quadrant crucial. Some, such as Moi University for example, referred to it as Responsibility Based Management (RBM) in which deans were given more mandates to manage their faculties including the acquisition and utilization of financial resources. This means that deans had to pay more attention to what went on in the faculty than before. They had to make their faculties more competitive and successful in the market (producer role) and at the same time be assertive and clear on the goals of the faculty (director role). In addition to these, the sharp rise in the numbers of public universities from seven in 2003 to around fifty in 2015 and the rise in many new and innovative private universities meant that deans had to inculcate visions and a competitive edge to face the new realities, including emerging competition for students which was hitherto not the case. In recent years, a majority of students in Kenya public universities are privately sponsored requiring deans to develop new and attractive academic programmes and learning experiences to attract students.

The *empathetic pushers style* comes out as the most dynamic as the deans seem to be excelling in opposite and contradictory quadrants of CVF. While they are caring and eschew team spirit as is expected in the *clan* quadrant, they are also pushers who demand success from their staff to make their faculties competitive and able to attain their goals as is expected in the *market* quadrant. As discussed earlier, these deans are more able to deal with complexities and contradictions based on the many different roles they can frequently perform. One of the quadrants (clan) falls on the upper part of the CVF which is characterized by flexibility while the other (market) falls on the lower side associated with control. As such these deans have a focus on both flexibility and control. The same quadrants also fall on the internal focus (clan) and on the external focus (market) dimensions of CVF suggesting that these deans are actually multifaceted in balancing the different requirements of CVF.

It is notable however that the deans do not so much emphasize on the *hierarchy* and *adhocracy* quadrants (although arguably they are visible to some extent in cluster 2). This would imply that they do not so frequently perform the *coordinator* and *monitor* roles (hierarchy quadrant) and the *innovator* and *broker* roles (adhocracy quadrant). By not frequently performing the roles associated with the *hierarchy* quadrant would imply that *standardization, internal controls, monitoring* and *quality control* are not a top priorities in their leadership styles. In the same vein and in relation to the roles associated with the *adhocracy* quadrant, it would imply that being *creative change managers and active engagement and networking with other stakeholders* are not some of the most important leadership aspects to the Kenyan deans.

In summary, the above section should enable us respond to our first research question i.e. *how do Kenyan deans manage their faculties?* Kenyan deans perceive themselves as performing all the eight roles of CVF quite frequently suggesting that they view themselves as master managers. This is depicted in the master style which represents the overall response by the deans on the roles. After further analysis, we establish that Kenyan deans manage their faculties based on three main styles i.e. the *people manager style*, *performance-driven goal-setters style* and the *empathetic pushers*

style. The characteristics, roles and quadrants associated with these styles have been discussed above.

6.4   Descriptive analysis of the attitudes, social norms and perceived behavioural control of the deans towards the styles

In section 6.3, the dominant leadership styles of the Kenyan deans have been identified and described i.e. *people manager style*, the *performance driven goal setters style*, the *empathetic pushers style* and the *master style*. That step responds to the first research question of this study. This second part is dedicated to our second research question: *why do deans in Kenyan universities adopt these leadership styles in managing their faculties*? Our intent is to explain why the Kenyan deans deploy these leadership styles in managing their faculties. It requires an explanation to these behaviours (styles) of the deans. As a starting point, we refer back to chapter two in which we discussed the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) as our framework for explaining behaviour. Apart from discussing the main tenets of the model, we also provided the rationale for using it in this study and highlighted several other studies which have applied the model successfully to explain leadership behaviuors (styles). We noted that, when the behaviour of interest has been identified and specified- as we have done with the styles using the CVF model- then TPB can be applied to explain them. TPB explains behaviours – in this case leadership styles- based on *attitudes* (A), *subjective norms* (SN), and *perceived behavioural control* (PBC). This requires that the attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control of the deans towards these styles be established. The application of these three components of TPB in explaining behaviour has been elaborated on in chapter two and operationalized in section 4.5. In the next section a description of the outcomes of the three determinants (i.e. attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) with respect to the leadership styles of the deans is presented.

6.4.1   *Attitudes of deans towards the leadership styles*

According to TPB, *attitude* is one of the main determinants of behaviour. It refers to the extent to which performance of a behaviour is positively or negatively evaluated (Ajzen & Fishbein 1980: 56; Fishbein & Ajzen 2010) by the actor, in our case, the Kenyan dean. For our study, it would be assumed that positive attitude towards a leadership style would lead to a high likelihood of performing that style as it is expected to lead to a positive evaluation of that style. As noted in section 2.2.3 attitude (A) towards a behaviour can be determined indirectly by evaluating the *behavioural beliefs (b)* of the actor and the actor's *evaluation of outcome (e)* of that behaviour or directly by using statements combining the two components of attitude. As explained in section 4.5, we opted to measure attitudes via a direct way by means of statements that included both the consequences and favourability of the leadership styles. We will begin by presenting the evaluation of the attitude of the deans towards the master style which encompasses the eight roles of the CVF. The outcomes are presented in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4   Attitudes of the deans towards the master style

Attitude towards	N=60	
	means	stdv
Director role	6.19	0.81
Facilitator role	6.07	0.84
Broker role	5.97	0.79
Monitor role	5.91	0.94
Mentor role	5.81	0.90
Innovator role	5.72	0.91
Producer role	5.63	0.95
Coordinator role	5.58	1.00
Master style	5.86	0.66

As depicted in Table 6.4, the deans generally hold positive attitudes towards the eight roles that make up the master style. On a scale of 1 (lowest) to 7 (highest) we note that the least score is 5.58 which is still quite high on that scale. This suggests that the deans generally have a positive attitude towards the *master style*. According to the TPB, they are most likely to perform the roles to which they assign more positive attitudes. Though they generally demonstrate positive attitude towards all the roles, some roles attain more positive evaluation than others. For instance, they have more positive attitude towards the *director, facilitator and broker* roles than the for the *coordinator, producer* and *innovator* roles which have the lowest attitudinal evaluation. Generally, the overall outcome (5.86) as the mean of the aggregated attitude value for this style suggests that the deans have a positive attitude towards the master style. If attitude was the only factor under consideration, then based on

the outcomes of their attitudes, it could suggest that they had a high likelihood of performing the master style.

The same steps were used to evaluate their attitudes towards the three other styles i.e. the *people manager style,* the *performance- driven goal-setters style* and the *empathetic pushers styles*. As with the *master style*, their attitudes towards the roles making up each style was assessed in a direct way. The attitude of the *people manager style* is the mean of the scores on four items that refer to attitudes towards the mentor role (2 items) and the facilitator role (2 items). The attitude towards the *performance driven goal setters style* is also is the mean of four items (2 for producer and 2 for director role). The attitude towards the *empathetic pushers style* is composed of eight items (two items per role; mentor, facilitator, producer and director role). The outcomes are summarised by Table 6.5.

Table 6.5   *Attitudes of the deans towards the three leadership styles*

Attitudes towards leadership styles of deans	*Respective roles for the styles*	Mean	stdv
People Manager style (N=60)	Mentor	5.81	0.90
	Facilitator	6.07	0.84
	Mean	**5.94**	**0.75**
Performance driven goal setters style (N=60)	Producer	5.63	0.95
	Director	6.19	0.81
	Mean	**5.91**	**0.75**
Empathetic pushers style (N=60)	Mentor	5.81	0.94
	Facilitator	6.07	0.84
	Producer	5.63	0.95
	Director	6.19	0.81
	Mean	**5.93**	**0.70**

The outcome presented in Table 6.5 suggests that the deans have positive attitudes towards the three leadership styles. Their high mean scores suggest that they have positive attitudes towards performing all these styles. If attitude was the only item under consideration then based on these outcomes, they would be likely to perform these styles.

6.4.2   Subjective norms of deans towards the leadership styles

The second component for explaining behaviour in the TPB model is *subjective norm* which refers to the perception of an actor on the extent to which important referents or stakeholders expect them to perform or not to perform a behaviour. Our model assumes that these important stakeholders would exert social pressure on the deans motivating them to perform or not to perform certain leadership styles. It thus entailed evaluating the perception of the deans on the extent to which their important stakeholders expected them to perform or not perform the three leadership styles and the extent to which they would comply with the wishes of these referents. As elaborated in section 4.2.2.2 we considered the most important referents who could exert social pressure on the deans to be *academics* (AC), *fellow deans* (FD) *students* (ST) and *central management* (CM) of the university.

According to TPB, *subjective norms (sn)* are made up of *normative beliefs (n)* and *motivation to comply (m)*. *Normative beliefs* refer to the deans' evaluation of the expectations of the important referents regarding the performance of the leadership styles while *motivation to comply* refers to the extent the dean (actor) feels compelled to comply with the expectations of the important referents. The model suggests that if the outcome is positive i.e. if deans evaluate expectations of referents positively and wish to comply with those expectations, then there would be a very high likelihood of the deans leading their faculties in that style. The outcomes of the deans' *normative beliefs* are summarized in the Table 6.6.

Table 6.6.   *The deans' normative beliefs based on important referents and four aspects of faculty leadership (N = 58)*

Important Referents	Four aspects of faculty leadership							
	Clear visions that embraces innovation and change (*adhocracy quadrant*)		Market-driven and results-oriented behaviour of academics (*market quadrant*)		Strong coordination and detailed organization of teaching and research (*hierarchy quadrant*)		Sense of collectivity with consensual decision-making and much personal attention (*clan quadrant*)	
	Mean*	SD	Mean*	SD	Mean*	SD	Mean*	SD
Faculty academics	2.07	1.16	2.07	1.11	2.26	1.02	2.00	1.06
Fellow deans	1.98	1.19	1.79	1.07	2.24	1.11	1.62	1.07
Central management	2.09	1.28	2.09	1.14	2.52	0.94	1.86	1.32
Students	2.09	1.05	1.86	0.99	2.19	1.62	1.76	1.10
all referents	2.06	0.93	1.99	0.81	2.34	0.76	1.84	0.88

*Note: *Mean scores range from (-3) 'very negative' to (+3) 'very positive'.*

Table 6.6 shows that the deans viewed their four important referents (i.e. faculty academics, fellow deans, central management and students) as expecting them to

perform the roles associated with the different aspects of CVF which we had already associated with the different styles (see section 6.3). Based on the outcomes, the deans perceive that their referents mostly expect them to lead their faculties by putting emphasis on the roles associated with the *hierarchy* quadrant followed by the *adhocracy* quadrant. Though there are no major differences between the scores of the different aspects, the *clan* and *market* quadrants attained comparatively low scores suggesting that the deans do not perceive their referents to expect them to lead according to these quadrants. This is an interesting outcome as the responses of the deans discussed in section 6.3 indicated that they perceived themselves as leading their faculties based on the *clan* and *market* quadrants.

Since these outcomes (Table 6.6) are also from responses of the deans, it would suggest that though they lead their faculties based on these quadrants (clan and market quadrant), their important stakeholders may wish they lead the faculties with an emphasis on other quadrants i.e. *hierarchy* and *adhocracy*. Though this could seem a contradictory outcome to the way that deans perceived themselves to be leading the faculties (i.e. emphasis on market and clan quadrants) it could be a plausible outcome suggesting that the *clan* and *market* type of leadership is already very present in the faculties and as such the deans would expect that their referents would expect them to also include more of these other aspects of leadership which are not included or manifested in their styles. Though this is just but a speculation, it agrees with the requirement of CVF of leaders to balance the different roles for organizational effectiveness. It also could be possible that some stakeholders, especially students, have not been so much in favour of the market styles of leadership especially in relation to the growing numbers of fees paying students which has had lots of impacts on students services and quality of learning.

From the outcomes, the deans perceive the leadership roles associated with the *hierarchy* and *adhocracy* quadrants to be the most important to their main referents. Their referents would therefore expect them to lead more with *strong coordination*

and detailed organization of teaching and research (hierarchy) and also with *a clear vision that embraces innovation and change (*adhocracy). This could relate to more emphasis on quality which has been identified as one of the key challenges that the higher education system in Kenya faces (Ojiambo, 2009) and which therefore could be an important issue that the important referents, especially students, would want addressed. The deans perceive that their referents least expect them to lead their faculties with an emphasis on the leadership roles attached to the *clan* quadrant. However, the deans perceive the academic staff to expect them to view the clan quadrant as important (a mean of 2.00). The clan quadrant mainly refers to the leader being caring and building morale of staff. The focus would thus be more on staff than on all the other stakeholders as this quadrant applies more to staff.

 Regarding *motivation to comply* with the expectations of these referents, presented in Table 6.7, the deans value the expectations and opinions of all the referent groups (demonstrated by the high scores of the groups) but would mostly comply with the views of the *faculty academics* and *students*. This in a way makes sense as the academic staff and students fall directly within the faculties led by the deans and would thus be more important to them than the others (central management and other deans) who do not belong directly to the faculty. It should also be noted from Table 6.6 that the students and academic staff had the highest scores in the two quadrants where the deans posted the strongest normative beliefs.

Table 6.7   *The dean's motivation to comply with the referents*

To what extent are the views and opinions of faculty academics, central management, fellow deans and students of your university important to you for the way in which you run your faculty?			
Important referents	**Mean***	**SD**	N
Students	5.41	1.11	58
Faculty Academics	5.44	1.01	59
Central management	5.19	1.14	59
Other deans	4.86	1.27	59

*Note: *Mean scores range from (1) 'not important at all' to (7) 'extremely important'.*

It is interesting to note that the deans would to a lesser extent wish to comply with the expectations of fellow deans and central management of the university. This could possibly be a manifestation of the nature of universities as loosely coupled organizations (Weick, 1976), where different disciplines or in this case faculties may not interact much with each other. It however has to be noted that students are quite an important stakeholder group to the deans. As we have noted in the previous section, the faculties do compete for students especially the fees paying ones. Unlike the other referents, dissatisfaction of students with faculty management would always lead to protests and even strikes which in some cases could even make the deans even lose their positions. As Klemenčič, Luescher, & Jowi, (2015) indicate, students' dissatisfaction and protests have contributed to transformations in many African higher education systems. Faculty academics are equally important to the deans. This could be mainly because they are responsible for the teaching and learning processes that are essential for the success of the faculty thus the dean has to view them as important. In addition, in faculties where deans are elected then academic staff would be quite important as the dean gets his position through them.

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Table 6.8 Subjective Norms of Deans to the Master Style

	Important referents										
	FA	FD		CM		S					
MASTER	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Total mean score	SD	N
Strong coordination and detailed organisation of teaching and research (Hierarchy)	12.40	6.22	11.29	6.57	13.38	5.73	12.19	6.95	12.28	4.75	57
Clear visions that embraces innovation and change (Adhocracy)	11.54	6.77	10.26	6.17	11.10	7.67	11.44	6.60	11.00	5.67	56
Market-driven and results-oriented behaviour of academics (Market)	11.24	6.66	9.25	5.71	11.07	6.75	10.00	6.04	10.41	5.00	56
Sense of collectivism with consensual decision making and much personal attention (Clan)	10.98	6.44	8.21	6.27	10.00	7.53	10.12	6.56	9.85	5.44	57

*Note: FA = Faculty Academics, FD = Fellow Deans, CM = Central Management, S=Students, *all mean scores range from -21 (very negative) to +21 (very positive), Total mean scores = mean of the sum of the scores of the four important referents with regard to each aspect of faculty leadership.*

As depicted in Table 6.8, the deans perceive a more positive subjective norm towards leadership that emphasizes on strong coordination and detailed organization of teaching and research which is within the hierarchy quadrant of CVF. The hierarchy quadrant is based on the coordinator and monitor roles suggesting that the deans have more positive subjective norms to these roles. They are therefore most likely to lead their faculties as coordinators and monitors. As shown in Table 6.8 and with regard to the referent groups, it is mainly the central management, faculty academics and students who prefer this style of leadership. The next with regard to positive subjective norm is leadership emphasizing clear vision that embraces innovation and change. This is within the adhocracy quadrant that contains the innovator and broker roles. This style is also preferred mainly by the faculty academics, students and central management. The deans however have the least subjective norm towards leadership that emphasize sense of collectivity with consensual decision making and much personal attention which falls within the clan quadrant. The deans are therefore less likely to lead their faculties as facilitators and mentors which are the roles associated with the clan aspect of CVF. While we had noted that the clan quadrant was not favourable with the deans, it is also interesting to note that the deans do not expect their referents including students and academic staff to expect them to lead the faculties based on this style. We however note from the outcomes of the interviews on commitment that most faculty members would prefer a sense of family and belonging to the faculty which relates closely to the clan quadrant.

The outcomes depicted in Table 6.8 show that the deans believe that their important referents have clear expectations towards the four aspects of faculty leadership. The deans at the same time perceive social pressures to perform the four aspects of faculty leadership i.e. hierarchy, adhocracy, market, and clan aspects of leadership. It is again interesting to note the continuing consistency with our previous outcomes as they perceive their referent groups would consider the hierarchy quadrant to be the most important way to manage the faculties followed by adhocracy then the market and finally the clan quadrants. Amongst the four

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aspects, the key referents expect them to demonstrate strong coordination and detailed organization of teaching and research followed by having a clear vision that embraces innovation and change (adhocracy). The clan aspect, is again the least scored suggesting that the deans perceive their referents not to expect them to emphasise this aspect. By that the deans believe their referents do not think that a sense of collectivism with consensual decision making and much personal attention is important. Generally this outcome suggests that the deans have a positive subjective norm towards the three different styles which are subsumed by the different aspects of CVF.

6.4.3   *Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC) and leadership styles of deans*

So far, the attitudes and subjective norms of the deans towards the leadership styles have been assessed to be generally positive suggesting that based on just these two factors, the deans are likely to perform the leadership styles. However, we already noted that attitudes and subjective norms can only explain behaviours where the actors have volitional control (see section 2.3). TPB has a third factor that is also important in determining the performance of a behaviour (style). The third variable of our TPB model for explaining the leadership styles of the deans is *perceived behavioural control* (PBC). As we discussed in section 2.3, it refers to the degree to which an actor has control[6] over the performance of a behaviour. PBC can influence the performance of the behaviour (negatively or positively), even when attitude and subjective norm are strong and positive. It views behaviour on a continuum ranging from situations where an actor has *total control* to *lack of control*. It includes factors such as personal competences, perceived abilities to execute the behaviours, requisite skills, information available, resource or environmental factors and their implications on the execution of behaviours (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010:155).

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[6] The model assumes that when one has strong controls over the performance of a behaviour then they are more likely to perform it as they would not face any barriers towards its performance.

To assesses the extent to which the deans believed they had control (perceive no barriers or constraints) regarding the performance of the leadership styles they were presented with nine statements[7] of possible barriers that could constrain their performance of the leadership styles. These items were measured on a seven point Likert scale ranging from -3 (*absolutely false*) to 3 (*absolutely true*). They were to indicate the extent to which the barriers presented were true or false to their situations. In Table 6.9, we present the likely barriers the deans could face based on the statements of perceived barriers. There is much variety with respect to the deans' experiencing barriers. Looking at the mean scores (a positive mean refers to perceiving a barrier), there are on average three perceived barriers, indicating a low level of perceived behavioural control: *i) poorly developed information systems at the faculty, ii) heavy workload, and iii) strong academic values that obstruct change.* The variety in barriers are for example that, 37% of the deans are not considering high workloads, and 32% of the deans do not think that there information systems are underdeveloped.

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[7] Note that our instrument had eleven statements for perceived behavioural control but we had to eliminate two as they were inconsistent with the others and thus considered only the remaining nine statements which had consistency.

Table 6.9 Type of barriers faced by the Deans (in %)

Statements of possible barriers	N	false	true	Mean	Std. Deviation
school/faculty/institute's information systems are not well developed	57	32	68	.77	1.67
academic values in my school/faculty/institute are very strong and are obstructing change	58	24	34	.21	2.06
there are limited possibilities for me as a dean to make strategic decision at higher management levels	56	29	27	-.05	1.58
the school/faculty/institute culture is at odds with my values and views how to run a school/faculty/institute	58	41	17	-.86	2.01
my administrative support staff has insufficient capacity	58	38	20	-.74	2.13
I do not possess all the skills it takes.	56	39	17	-1.11	2.18
authorities within the school/faculty/institute are unclear and fragmented	58	38	20	-.90	1.98
My workload is too high.	57	21	36	.63	1.92
commitment and engagement of the school/faculty/institute academics is low in the sense that they foremost focus on disciplinary rather than school/faculty/institute matters	58	36	22	-.50	2.23

*Note: *Mean scores can range from -3 (not at all) to 3 (very high extent). Mean scores close to -3 indicate that the deans do not perceive a barrier and thus believe to having more control.*

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As mentioned in chapter 4, we constructed a composite variable for the perceived barriers. First, we carried out a factor analysis on the nine statements of control beliefs to assess if there were some different groupings of barriers the deans could face towards executing the behaviours. The factor analysis outcome did not show the existence of different constellations of barriers. We thus treated the nine statements as one composite variable for the barriers the deans could face in performing the leadership roles. The cronbach alpha for the 9 items was 0.858 which implies a good consistency amongst the items. Table 6.10 presents the degree of barriers that the deans reported they could perceive in executing the behaviours.

Table 6.10   The deans' perceived behavioural control

Level of PBC	N	%
High PBC (< -1,0)	16	27.6
Some PBC (-1,0 to 1,0)	25	62.3
Low PBC (>1,0)	7	12.1
Total	58	100.0

Index of the variable PBC based on nine statements about potential barriers, based on a scale from -3 to 3

The outcome of the deans' perception of barriers indicates that just over a quarter of the deans believe that they are 'in control'; they do not perceive many barriers towards performing the leadership styles. This implies that they could perform the styles without any inhibitions, provided they have favourable attitudes and subjective norms. About two thirds of the deans indicated that they perceived barriers to some extent, implying that in their view their behavioural control was somewhat limited. Just over 10% of the Kenyan deans perceived their behavioural control as low, suggesting that they faced many barriers, which could possibly

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prevent them from executing the leadership behaviours they prefer. In the next section, we evaluate the extent to which attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural controls explain the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans.

6.5   Analysis of impacts of TPB components on leadership styles of deans

So far, in the preceding sections of this chapter, we have described the leadership styles and determined the *attitudes*, *subjective norms* and the *perceived behavioural control* of the deans towards the leadership styles. As was noted in section 2.1, our theoretical model has two parts. The first is the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) that relies on *attitudes* and *subjective norms* to explain behaviour (style). The second part is the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) that introduces *perceived behavioural controls* as the third variable (i.e. it is an extension of TRA) for explaining the leadership styles of the deans. Arising from this, in this section, we evaluate the extent to which these three independent variables explain the leadership styles of the deans. In the first steps we deploy the TRA model (i.e. attitudes and subjective norms) while in the next step we deploy the TPB model (i.e. attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural controls). Our intention in the first step is to evaluate the extent to which attitudes and subjective norms of the deans explain their leadership styles. In the next step (where we use TPB), we evaluate the extent to which perceived behavioural controls impact on the first model (specifically the relationship between attitudes and the styles) in explaining the leadership styles of the deans.

In undertaking these steps, we carried out both bivariate and multiple regressions first to show the extent to which each of the independent variables explain each leadership style and secondly to demonstrate the extent to which the three variables if used in one model could explain the leadership styles. In the last step we analyzed the impacts of perceived behavioural controls on the relationship between attitudes and the styles. We did these analyses both for the master style

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and the three leadership styles demonstrated by the deans. For all the styles, we first present the outcomes of the bivariate regression analysis and then that of the multiple regression. Finally, we controlled for a number of four background factors: gender (female or male), the legal status of the university (public or private), age and experience as a dean (duration of office).

6.5.1   *The independent variables and the master style*

The *master style* represents the extent to which the deans perform the eight roles of CVF. As we indicated in section 6.3.1 the Kenyan deans perceive themselves as master managers who can very well balance the different leadership roles of CVF. In this step, our interest is to establish the extent to which the independent variables (attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural controls) determine the master style of the Kenyan deans. We first undertook bivariate regressions whose outcome is presented in Table 6.11 to determine the extent to which each of the independent variables influence the master style of the deans.

The outcome indicates that attitudes explain 57% of the variance in the *master style* suggesting that there is a strong and positive relation between attitude and *master style* (F=79.19, p= 0.000). Since this outcome confirms that the attitude of the deans explains the *master style* to a large extent, it suggests therefore that the more positive the attitudes of the deans the more likely it is that they will deploy the *master style*. It should be noted that here the attitudes pertain to all the 8 roles making up the master style as presented in Table 6.4. Subjective norms or 'social pressure' on the deans by their significant referents explain 43% of why deans run their faculties as 'masters', which is also significant (F=42.11, p=0.000) but is less than the attitude value. Perceived behavioural controls, the third determinant, does not explain the *master style* (Adj. R^2 = -0.02, F=0.01, p=0.93). This suggests therefore that whether deans do, or do not perceive any barriers or constraints would not directly affect their deployment of the *master style*.

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Table 6.11:   *Bivariate regression analyses of independent variables on the master style.*

Master style	beta*	t-value	P	Adj. R^2	F
Attitude towards this style (n=59)	0.76 (0.74)	8.90	.000	0.57	79.19
Subjective norms towards this style (n=54)	0.66 (0.09)	6.49	.000	0.43	42.11
Perceived behavioural control (n=57)	0.01 (0.01)	0.08	0.93	-0.02	0.01

* The first coefficient is the standardized coefficient, between brackets the unstandardized b is presented.

We next executed a multiple regression based on the Theory of Reasoned Action combining the effects of both attitudes and subjective norms. The outcome (see Table 6.12) indicates that this model explains the *master style* (R^2 =61%, F= 32.89, p=0.000) somewhat better than when each of the two variables was used singularly. In the multiple regression, it still emerges that attitudes significantly and positively determine the *master style* of the deans as do subjective norms, though at different levels. We also note that when we compare the effects in table 6.11 and 6.12, the strength of the effect of the subjective norms and attitude decreases when both variables are included in one model. This suggests the existence of a relationship between attitudes and subjective norms.

Table 6.12:　　　　*Multiple regression analysis of independent variables on the master style (n=53)*

Master style	beta*	t-value	p
Attitude towards this style	0.54 (0.53)	4.98	0.000
Subjective norms towards this style	0.32 (0,04)	2.97	0.05
Adj. R^2 = 0.61. F=32.89			

* The first coefficient is the standardized coefficient, between brackets the unstandardized b is presented.

Our further analysis confirmed that there is indeed a relative high correlation between the attitudes and the subjective norms (r = 0.65 – from the bivariate correlation matrix).[8] This finding is also signaled by Ajzen and Fishbein (2010) who argue that while conceptually attitudes and social norms independently explain behaviours (in our case a leadership style), they empirically can be inter-related. This might suggest that part of the effect of subjective norms runs via a person's attitudes which can in turn influence one's behaviour (here managerial style)[9] .

Subsequently, we investigated the possible effect of perceived behavioural control. Here we move from the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) to the Theory of Planned Bahaviour (TPB). While the bivariate regressions (see Table 6.11) indicated that perceived behavioural control does not have a direct effect on the *master style*,

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[8] In all our regression analyses we checked for the presence of problems of multicollinearity. Here we did not find any evidence for such a problem. Subsequently we will only discuss this potential problem when it actually occurs.

[9] Theoretically, this is the most plausible interpretation of the correlation. Both a person's attitude and his or her behaviour is influences by norms of relevant others. But the correlation might also be in part the result of self projection where a person's attitudes shape his or her perceptions of normative beliefs of relevant others.

the TPB implies that this factor might have a moderating effect. The assumption, as an alternate explanation of the effects of barriers on the master style, is that the existence of barriers could affect the relationship between attitudes and *master style*. Thus, the expectation is that the more barriers the deans perceive, the less positive the effect of attitudes would be on the *master style*. When there are no barriers perceived it would be expected that attitude explain the *master style.*

To test this expectation we created a new variable: 'attitude x pbc', to be the moderator or interaction variable. In order to allow for a better interpretation of the coefficients we decided to center the variables in the analysis.[10] To center the scores of the variable 'attitude' we took the mean of this variable and deducted it from the score on attitude (new variable 'attitude_centered'). The same procedure was followed to calculate the new variable 'pbc_centered'. The outcome of the regression analysis with the 'new model' with the moderator (see Figure 6.3) demonstrates that there is indeed an interaction effect; i.e. the degree to which deans perceive barriers affects the relationship between attitudes and master style. As shown in Table 6.13, this model is significant (F=31.94, $p < 0.00$) and explains just more variance (R^2=0.70) than the original model (R^2=0.61).

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[10] We should realize that the first three b-coefficients -- i.e. the ones that are relevant for understanding the interaction effect; viz. the coefficients for attitude (X1), perceived behavioural control (X2) and their product (X1*X2) in Table 6.13 – should be interpreted in conditional terms: The coefficient for X1 captures the effect of X1 on Y if and only if X2 is 0. Likewise the coefficient of X2 indicates the effect of X2 if X1 happens to be 0. And finally the coefficient of the product-term captures the extent to which X1's effect on Y depends on X2, if neither of X1 nor X2 are 0 (see e.g. Brambor et al. 2006: 72). By centering both X1 and X2 around their mean we make sure that the interpretation of the coefficients becomes easier because the values of 0 are set equal to the means of these respective variables, rather to an arbitrary value of 0 that may not even be a score that occurs in the sample.

Table 6.13:   *Multiple regression on master style with moderating variable (n=53)*

Master style	b*	t-value	p
Attitude towards this style (centered)	0.65	6.48	0.000
Perceived behavioural control (centered)	-.11	-2.29	0.03
Moderator attitude x perceived behavioural control (based on product of centered variables)	0.26	3.27	0.002
Subjective norms this style (not centered)	0.04	2.73	0.01
Adj. R^2 = 0.70. F=31.94			

* The table only contains the unstandardized b-coefficients

The results in table 6.13 in combination with the results presented in Figure 6.3 indicate that perceived behavioural control does have an impact on the relationship between attitudes and the *master style.* For all deans we see a clear statistically positive relationship between attitude and the style. This effect, as was theoretically expected, , is weakest when behavioural control is perceived to be relatively low (at -1 standard deviation), here we find a flatter slope (0.31) than at the mean level of PBC (0.65), and at a relatively high level (+1 standard deviation from the mean, where we find the steepest slope: b=1.00). The difference between the slopes at +1 and – 1 standard deviation from the mean is statistically significant.[11]

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[11] As can be noted in Figure 6.3, the confidence levels of the b's at +1 and -1 from the mean do not overlap.

Figure 6.3:   *Conditional effects of attitudes on master style at different levels of perceived behavioural control* [12]
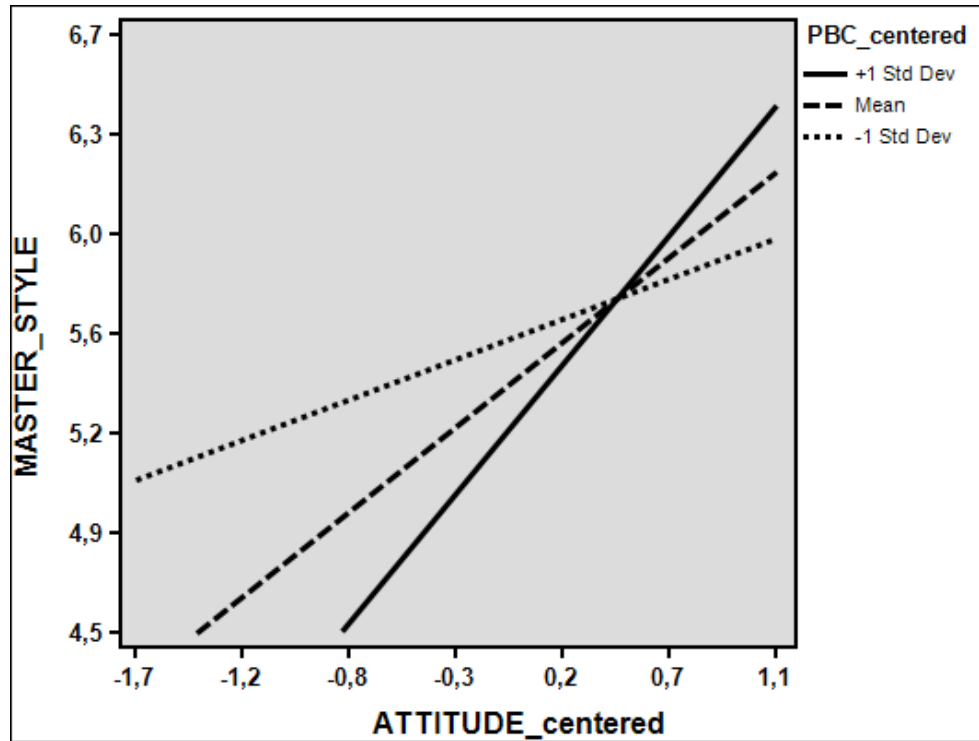
Minus 1 Standard Deviation PBC, b= 0.31 (95% confidence interval: 0.08 - 0.53)

Mean PBC, b=0.65 (95% confidence interval: 0.44 - 0.85)

Plus 1 Standard Deviation PBC, b=1.00 (95% confidence interval: b= 0.81 – 1.18)

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[12] This figure and the conditional b-coefficients were produced by using Daniel Soper's Interaction programme (Soper 2008): http://www.danielsoper.com/Interaction. This is also the case for the three similar figures that follow.

This outcome indicates that perceived behavioural control has its theoretically expected positive effect on the relation between attitudes and reported behavioural style. All in all these findings corroborate the expectations from the Theory of Planned Behavior. The initial results indicating the relevance of attitudes and subjective norms postulated by the Theory of Reasoned Action were confirmed. But in addition it was shown that the effect of attitudes is contingent upon the dean's perceived behavioural control. The more barriers the deans perceive, the less impact attitudes have on the master style.

6.5.2   *The independent variables and the people manager style*

For the three leadership styles demonstrated by the Kenyan deans, we carried out the same steps as in section 6.5.1 regarding the *master style*. The first style we dealt with was the *people manager style* which is based on the *mentor* and *facilitator* roles which belong to the *clan* quadrant of CVF. We first undertook a bivariate regression analysis to determine the extent to which the three independent variables influenced the deans' leadership according to the *people manager style*. The outcome (see Table 6.14) for each determinant reflect the results of the master style: both attitudes (R^2=0.32) and subjective norms (R^2=0.30) have a positive effect on the *people manager style*. Perceived behavioural control again fails to have a direct effect on the style.

Table 6.14   *Bivariate regression analyses of independent variables on the people manager style*

People manager style	beta*	t-value	P	R²	F
Attitude towards this style (n=59)	0.54 (0.57)	5.32	0.000	0.32	28.26
Subjective norms towards this style (n=56)	0.56 (0.07)	4.97	0.000	0.30	24.72
Perceived behavioural control (n=57)	0.08 (0.05)	0.62	0.537	-0.01	1.60

* The first coefficient is the standardized coefficient, between brackets the unstandardized b is presented.

In the next step, we carried out a multiple regression based on TRA combining the effects of attitudes and subjective norms on the *people manager style*. The outcome (presented in Table 6.15) shows that when used in combination both variables remain statistically significant. The model explains more variance in the style than in the bivariate regression and confirms that both attitudes and subjective norms significantly and positively determine the style (Adj. R^2=0.44). When we compare the results with those in the table 6.14 (bivariate regressions), we find that when we combine both variables in the analysis, the effects of both variables are reduced in strength. This suggests that there could be a correlation between the two explanatory variables that somewhat reduces the effects that both these factors had separately. Nevertheless both variables remain statistically significant and the model including both factors also increases the proportion of variance explained (from 0.32 and 0.30 to 0.40).

Table 6.15:   Multiple regression analysis of independent variables on the people manager style (n=56)

People manager	beta*	t-value	P
Attitude towards this style	0.40 (0.38)	3.28	0.002
Subjective norms towards this style	0.34 (0.04)	2.76	0.008
Adj. R² = 0.40. F=19.95			

* The first coefficient is the standardized coefficient, between brackets the unstandardized b is presented.

In the next step, we moved from the TRA to TPB and added perceived behavioural control to the model as a moderator variable. This was to again assess the impacts of perceived behavioural controls on the relationship between attitude and the people manager style. We followed the same steps as with the master style in creating a moderating variable. The results presented in Table 6.16 and in Figure 6.4. show that the model is significant (F=11.77, p=0.000) and explains somewhat more variance (R2 =0.44) than the original model (R² =0. 40).

Table 6.16:   *Multiple regression on people manager style with moderating variable (n=54)*

People manager style	b*	t-value	P
Attitude towards this style (centered)	0.47	3.91	0.000
Perceived behavioural control (centered)	-0.00	-.02	0.98
Moderator attitude x perceived behavioural control (based on centered variables)	0.16	1.63	0.11
Social norms for this style (not centered)	0.04	2.61	0.01
Adj. R^2 = 0.44. F=11.77			

* The table only contains the unstandardized b-coefficients

The outcomes in Table 6.16 in combination with those of Figure 6.4 suggest that perceived behavioral control doesn't have a mediating impact on the degree to which attitudes affect the style.

Figure 6.4:   *Conditional effects of people manager style at different levels of perceived behavioural control*
(N=54)
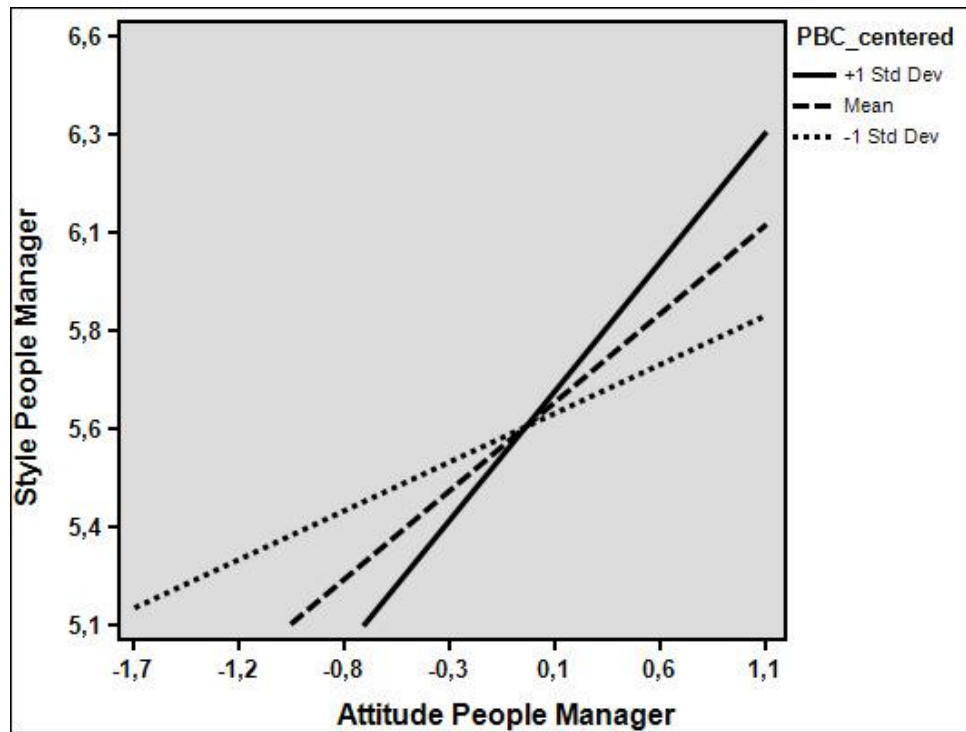
Minus 1 Standard Deviation PBC, b= 0.26 (95% confidence interval: -0.01 - 0.53)

Mean PBC, b=0.47 (95% confidence interval: 0.23 - 0.72)

Plus 1 Standard Deviation PBC, b=0.69 (95% confidence interval: b= 0.46 – 0.91)

As is demonstrated in Figure 6.4, although the results tend in the right direction (slope at + 1 standard deviation is steepest), there is no statistically significant

difference in the attitudinal effect on this *managerial style at different levels of PBC*. [13] This suggests that the (non-) existence of barriers perceived by deans does not change the effect of attitudes on the *people manager style*. Thus, the *people manager style* is best explained by the TRA model i.e. by the attitudes and subjective norms of the deans towards the style.

6.5.3   *The independent variables and the performance-driven goal-setter style*

We undertook the same regression analysis steps on the *performance-driven goal-setter style,* which is based on the *producer* and *director* roles of the *market* quadrant of the CVF. We first undertook a bivariate regression analysis to determine the extent to which the three independent variables influenced this style. The outcome (see Table 6.17) shows that subjective norms and attitudes have a positive effects on the style. Though the two variables explain the style, subjective norms explain more of the variance (Adj. R^2=0.44) than attitudes (Adj. R^2=0.38). This suggests that for this style, the important referents have more influence on the deans' behaviour than the attitudes of the deans. Like in the previous styles, perceived behavioural control does not have any direct effect on this style suggesting that the presence or absence of barriers would bot impact on the deans' choice of this style in managing their faculties.

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[13] As can be noted in Figure 6.4, the confidence levels of the b's at +1 and -1 from the mean do overlap.

Table 6.17   *Bivariate regression analyses independent variables on the performance-driven goal-setter style*

Performance-driven goal-setter style	beta*	t-value	P	Adj. R²	F
Attitude towards this style (n=59)	0.63 (0.52)	6.11	0.000	0.38	37.37
Subjective norms towards this style (n=55)	0.67 (0.08)	6.58	0.000	0.44	43.35
Perceived behavioural control (n=57)	-0.17 * (-0.08)	1.30	0.200	0.01	1.68

* The first coefficient is the standardized coefficient, between brackets the unstandardized b is presented.

Just as with the previous styles, in the next step we carried out a multiple regression including the two explanatory variables of TRA to combine the effects of both attitudes and subjective norms on this style. When we compare the results of the bivariate regression presented in table 6.17 with those of the multiple regression (table 6.18) we note that the model explains more of the variance in this style (Adj. R^2 = 0.51) than in the first step. Both independent variables remain statistically significant though we note a decrease in both the effects of attitudes (from 0.63 to 0.35) and in that of subjective norms (from 0.67 to 0.47) suggesting that there could be some correlation between the two variables.

Table 6.18   *Multiple regression analysis of independent variables on the performance-driven goal setter style (N=55)*

Performance-driven goal setter-style	Beta*	t-value	p
Attitude towards this style	0.35	3.13	0.003
Subjective norms towards this style	0.47	4.14	0.000
Adj. R^2 = 0.51. F=30.09			

* The first coefficient is the standardized coefficient, between brackets the unstandardized b is presented.

We then applied TPB to establish the possible effect of perceived behavioural control on the *performance-driven goal setter style* as we did in the previous instances. As presented in Table 6.19 there is indeed an interaction effect; i.e. the degree to which deans perceive barriers affects the relationship between attitudes and the *performance-driven goal setter style*. The model is significant (F=20.28, p < 0.00) and explains just more variance (R^2=0.59) than the previous model (R^2=0.51).This again suggests that *performance-driven goal setter style* can be explained by the positive attitudes of the deans and is also highly associated with the social norm of deans towards this style. In this style, PBC has an effect on the relationship between the relevant attitudes and the style.

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Table 6.19:   *Multiple regression on performance-driven goal setter style with moderating variable (n=53)*

performance-driven goal-setter style	b*	t-value	P
Attitude towards this style (centered)	0.37	3.93	0.000
Perceived behavioural control (centered)	-0.15	-3.07	0.0043
Moderator attitude x perceived behavioural control (based on centered variables)	0.23	2.81	0.007
Social norms for this style (not centered)	0.06	4.22	0.000
Adj. R^2 = 0.59. F=20.28			

* The table only contains the unstandardized coefficients

The results in Table 6.19 and Figure 6.5 demonstrate that PBC has an impact on the effect of attitudes on the style. We note a statistically positive relationship between attitude and the style. This effect is – as was expected, weakest when behavioural control is perceived to be relatively low (at -1 standard deviation) where we find a flatter slope (0.06) than at the mean of PBC (0.37). At the highest level of PBC (at +1 standard deviation of the mean) this slope is considerably higher than at lower levels of PBC (0.69). There is a statistically significant difference between the slopes at +1 and -1 standard deviation of the mean of PBC.[14]

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[14] As is testified by the fact that in Figure 6.5, the confidence levels of the b's at +1 and -1 from the mean do not overlap
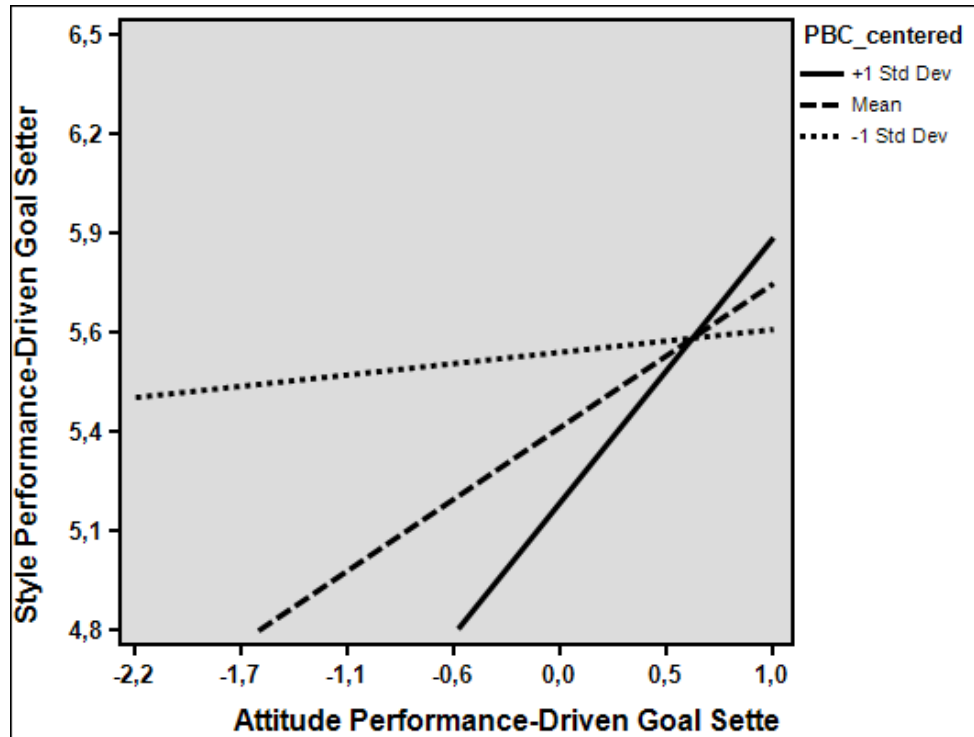
Minus 1 Standard Deviation PBC, b= 0.06 (95% confidence interval: -0.16 - 0.27)

Mean PBC, b=0.37 (95% confidence interval: 0.18 - 0.56)

Plus 1 Standard Deviation PBC, b=0.69 (95% confidence interval: b= 0.52 – 0.86)

While this model conforms to the theoretical postulations of TRA, the outcomes of this last part are also in accordance with TPB as we note that in this style perceived behavioural control has the expected positive effect on the relationship between

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attitudes and style. The less barriers the deans face, the more impacts attitudes have on the performance-driven goal setter style.

6.5.4   The independent variables and the empathetic pushers style

The third style demonstrated by the Kenyan deans is the *empathetic pushers style* which is based on the *clan* and *market* quadrants of CVF. We undertook the same steps as with the previous styles. The first was a bivariate regression analysis (see Table 6.20) which shows that both attitudes (Adj. R^2 =50) and subjective norms (Adj. R^2 =42) explain the variance in this style and are statistically significant. In this case, attitude explains more of the variance than subjective norms. Perceived behavioural controls again does not have any direct effect on this style (Adj. R^2 = -0.02).

Table 6.20   Bivariate regression analyses independent variables on the empathetic pushers style

Empathetic pusher style	beta*	t-value	P	Adj. R^2	F
Attitude towards this style (n=59)	0.71 (0.63)	7.77	0.000	0.50	60.37
Subjective norms towards this style (n=55)	0.66 (0.08)	6.42	0.000	0.42	41.24
Perceived behavioural control (n=57)	-0.04 (-0.02)	0.30	0.769	-0.02	0.09

* The first coefficient is the standardized coefficient, between brackets the unstandardized b is presented.

The outcome of the multiple regression (combining the two independent variables of TRA) as presented in Table 6.21 indicates that the model explains more (Adj. R2 =0.57) variance in this style than in the first two analyses. Both variables remain statistically significant in the combined model though we note a decrease in both the effects of attitudes (from 0.71 to 0.49) and in that of subjective norms (from 0.66 to 0.37) suggesting that there could be some correlation between the two variables.

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This suggests just like before, that part of the effect of the social norms is indirect, running via the attitudes of the deans.

Table 6.21   Multiple regression analysis of independent variables on the empathetic pushers style (n=55)

Empathetic pusher style	Beta*	t-value	p
Attitude towards this style	0.49 (0.42)	4.38	0.000
Subjective norms towards this style	0.37 (0.04)	3.29	0.002
Adj. R² = 0.57. F=37.13			

* The first coefficient is the standardized coefficient, between brackets the unstandardized b is presented.

The application of TPB to establish the possible effects of perceived behavioural control on the relationship between attitudes and the *empathetic pushers style* (see Table 6.22 and Fig 6.6) improved the model (Adj. R^2 = 0.63). It was again notable that the style could be explained by the positive attitudes of the deans towards this style. This determinant is also highly associated with the social norm of deans towards this style.

Table 6.22: *Multiple regression on empathetic pushers style with moderating variable (n=53)*

	b*	t-value	P
Attitude towards this style (centered)	0.53	5.48	0.00
Perceived behavioural control (centered)	-0.09	-1.90	0.064
Moderator attitude x perceived behavioural control (based on centered variables)	0.24	2.94	0.005
Social norms for this style (not centered)	0.04	3.19	0.002
Adj. R^2 = 0.63. F=23.89			

* The table only contains the unstandardized coefficients

According to Table 6.22 and Figure 6.6 we note that perceived behavioural control again has an impact on the effect of attitudes on the style. There is a statistically positive relationship between attitude and the style. This effect, r, is again weakest when behavioural control is perceived to be relatively low (at -1 standard deviation) where the slope is flatter (0.21) than at the mean (0.53) and at a relatively high level (+1 standard deviation from the mean) where the slope is even steeper (0.85). The difference of the slopes at +1 and -1 standard deviation of the mean of PBC is statistically significant[15]. Perceived behavioural control has the expected positive effect on the relationship between attitudes and style. It suggests that the less barriers the deans face, the more impacts attitudes have on the performance-driven goal setter style. This style can thus be explained based on TPB.

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[15] As can be noted in Figure 6.6, the confidence levels of the b's at +1 and -1 from the mean do not overlap
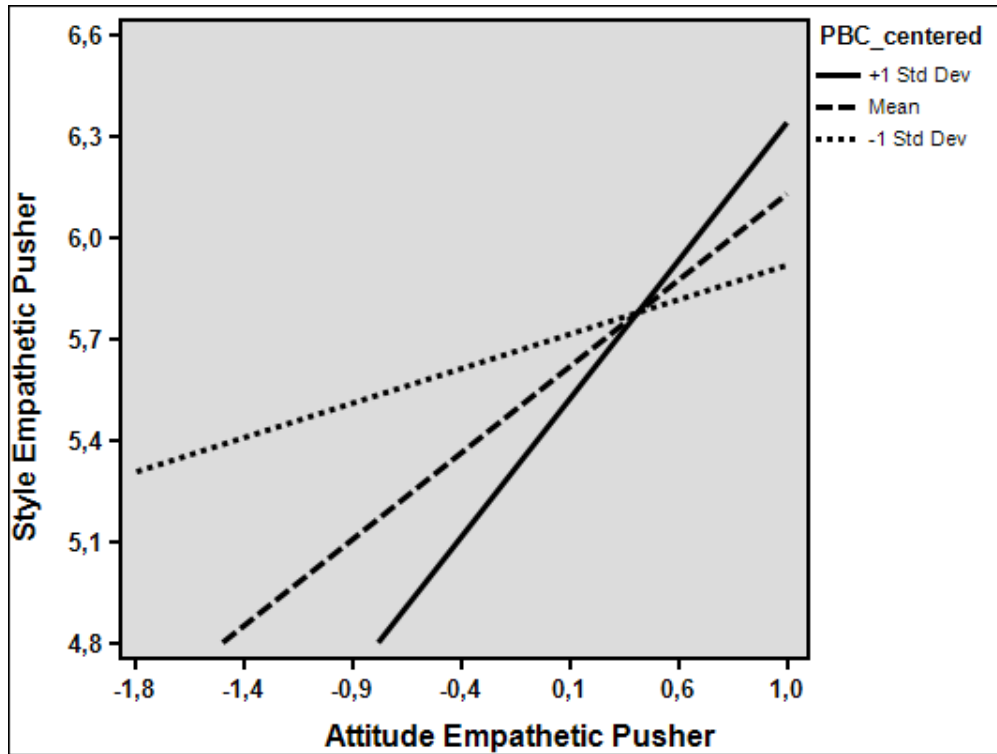
Minus 1 Standard Deviation PBC, b= 0.21 (95% confidence interval: -0.00 - 0.43)

Mean PBC, b=0.53 (95% confidence interval: 0.34 - 0.73)

Plus 1 Standard Deviation PBC, b=0.85 (95% confidence interval: 0.68 – 1.03)

6.5.5   The impact of control factors

The models of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (the multiple regressions with the moderators) that have been discussed in this section (as regards the determinants and the four styles) have been controlled for the following variables: gender (female or male), the legal status of the university (public or private), age and experience as a dean (duration of office). With respect to each of the four styles, we controlled for these variables one by one. The outcomes of the hierarchical multiple regressions (adding one control variable at the time to the multiple regressions presented in this chapter) did not produce better outcomes, indicating that the outcomes on the Theory of Planned Behavior models are robust. In other words, when controlling for the aforementioned variables the multiple regressions with the moderators (for all four styles) turned out be the best predictors; the control variables gender, experience, legal status of the university and age of the dean do not affect the leadership styles of Kenyan deans.

6.6   Summary

This chapter aimed at addressing the first two research questions of this study i.e. (i) *what are the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans?* and (ii) *why do Kenyan deans adopt these styles in managing their faculties?* Regarding the first question on the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans, we observe the following outcomes. The first is that the deans perceive themselves to be regularly performing all the 32 behaviours and 8 roles of the CVF. This outcome suggests that they are trying to perform all the roles to enable them encompass the competing values underlying the various behaviors and roles as they manage their faculties. It could also suggest that they are trying to do everything (all roles) and may not necessarily do all of them well. Performing all the roles would suggest that they have mastered the behavioural complexities to manage their faculties well, as has been theoretically suggested. However, existing literature on leadership and management in Kenyan higher education demonstrate otherwise.

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If we take a closer look at the data we can establish a more differentiated understanding of the leadership styles of the deans. Based on a two-step cluster analysis) this study found three distinct leadership styles i.e. the *people manager style*, the *performance-driven goal-setters style* and the *empathetic pusher style*. Of these the *performance-driven goal-setters style* is the most common with the deans (43.3% of the 60 deans), while the *people manager style* is the least popular (25%). For the first research question, we conclude that Kenyan deans manage their faculties in these three styles.

In explaining why the deans use these styles in managing their faculties – based on the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), we note that the leadership styles of the deans in Kenyan universities is mainly explained by their attitudes. Our analysis also suggests that the effects of social norms are in part indirect, running via the deans' attitudes. This means that the deans' leadership styles are mainly based on their personal evaluation of the styles as leading to good or bad outcomes. These beliefs however are also influenced by their social environment (subjective norms), suggesting that the deans value the expectations of their key stakeholders (students, other deans, academic staff and central management) in their execution of these styles. It has to be noted however that though subjective norms also contribute to the adoption of the styles, attitudes play a more important role. The deans are therefore not so motivated to comply with the expectations of their significant referents, but would rather make leadership choices based on their own personal evaluations (based on their attitudes). Though they do perceive some pressure from their social environments to lead their faculties in certain ways, this is superseded by their own attitudes.

When we introduced perceived behavioural controls by extending into the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), for all the styles, we note that perceived behavioural controls does not have direct impacts on the leadership styles of the deans. Although about half of the deans perceive barriers to some extent, this does not

directly affect their leadership style. Our study however suggests that in the case of most styles (i.e. master style, performance-driven goal setters style and empathetic pushers style), perceived behavioral control has an effect as a mediating variable in the relationship between attitude and the respective style.[16] While Ajzen (1991) argues that PBC improves intention in relation to positive attitudes and subjective norms, Eagly & Chaiken (1993) argue that PBC produces positive intention when an individual forms a positive attitude, but not when the attitude is negative. In other words, PBC moderates the relationship between attitude and intention. The positive impact of attitudes on these three styles lessens when deans perceive barriers in executing this style. Perceived behavioural control does not have a direct effect on the leadership styles but has some effect on the relationship between attitudes and the styles (except for the people manager style).

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[16] As regards the people manager style, perceived behavioural control has no effect on the relationship between attitudes and the style.

7 Leadership styles of Kenyan deans and staff commitment

This chapter discusses the impacts of the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans on staff commitment in the faculties led by the deans. It presents the case studies of the selected nine faculties and presents an analysis of the extent to which the three main leadership styles of the deans identified and discussed in chapter six impact on the commitment of staff in the faculties. This is based on the three aspects of commitment i.e. Affective Commitment (AC), Continuance Commitment (CC) and Normative Commitment (NC). The chapter is divided into four parts. The first part presents the introduction, the second part presents the cases while the third part analyses the cases. The last part summarises the chapter.

7.1 Introduction: Reconsidering our expectations

This chapter addresses the third and last research question of this study: *What are the effects of the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans on staff commitment in their faculties?* We have argued in chapter three in a general sense that different leadership styles do exist and that they vary considerably with no one style being the right one for every organization, leader or for all circumstances. We juxtaposed leadership styles to an array of golf clubs in a professional golfer's bag amongst which he can choose based on the demands of the shot (Goleman, 2000:4). In fact, in this regard and based on TPB, we assumed that leadership styles of deans depend on the attitudes of the deans, their social norms and perceived behavioural controls. In section 6.3 we identified and discussed three leadership styles demonstrated by the deans in Kenyan universities i.e. the *people manager style*, the *performance-driven goal-setters style* and the *empathetic pushers style.*

In section 2.4.2 we presented literature suggesting that the way leadership is exhibited or manifested impacts on staff commitment (Meyer & Herscovirtch, 2001). High commitment levels indicate that individuals are dedicated, willing to work hard, are ready to continue staying with the organization and work towards achieving the goals of the organization. To analyze the impact of the leadership styles on staff commitment in the faculties led by the deans, we adopted the Three Component Model (TCM) of commitment which has been discussed in detail in section 2.4. It assumes that commitment has three components: *Affective Commitment (AC)*, *Continuance Commitment (CC)* and *Normative Commitment (NC)*. We noted that Affective Commitment focuses on emotional ties and sense of belonging one has to an organization making them identify and want to continue staying in the organization. Normative Commitment is based on one's obligations and loyalty to the organization making them want to stay with the organization. Continuance Commitment on the other hand is based on the perceived costs both economic and social related to staying or leaving the organization.

Our assumption is that that the more the deans lead their faculties based on the leadership styles associated with the clan quadrant the more they would attain better outcomes on staff commitment in their faculties than those who led using the other two styles. In the same vein the different leadership styles would thus affect the three components of commitment (affective, normative and continuance) in different ways leading to different levels of overall commitment. At the end of Chapter 3 we formulated the expectation that the more a leadership style of a dean contains roles and values from the human relations quadrant of the CVF (such as mentor and facilitator roles), the higher the commitment of faculty staff.

As we demonstrated in the previous chapter, apart from the master style, Kenyan deans deploy, three different styles in leading their faculties. These three styles differ in their respect of having roles and values from the clan quadrant: the *people manager* belongs to the clan quadrant, the *performance-driven goal setters* to the market quadrant, while the *empathetic pushers* belong to both the clan and market quadrant. One could argue that they nicely vary on one of the diagonals of the CVF

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(with polar positions in focus form internal/flexible to external/control). Based on the general expectation formulated in chapter 3 and the three leadership styles, we formulate more concrete expectations as regards the relationship between leadership styles and commitment, to be investigated in this chapter: staff from faculties led by deans with a *people manager style* will show higher levels of commitment than staff from faculties led by *performance-driven goal setters*. Staff from faculties led by deans with the *empathetic pushers style* will have an in-between position with respect to their commitment as this style elicits stronger commitment than the *performance-driven goal setters style* but weaker compared to the *people manager style*.

To investigate the relationship between the leadership styles and staff commitment, we selected four faculties led by deans demonstrating the *people manager's style* (higher commitment), three faculties led by deans demonstrating the *performance-driven goal- setter style* (lower commitment) and two for the deans demonstrating the *empathetic pushers style* (in-between commitment), giving a total of nine faculties[17]. From these faculties, we selected three staff each, giving a total of 27 staff whom we interviewed[18] to evaluate the impacts of the leadership styles of the deans on their (i.e. the staff) commitment at the faculty. In the next section a description of the nine faculties is presented, followed by a discussion of the relationships between leadership styles and the different components of staff commitment.

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[17] Initially we selected three cases for each leadership style. After a thorough re-calculation of the leadership styles (chapter 6) we had to adapt the leadership typology and as the result of that the distribution of the nine cases slightly changed from 3-3-3 to 4-3-2.

[18] The interview protocol is attached as Appendix D.

7.2   Description of the case faculties

7.2.1   Faculties led by a dean having people manager style

The four faculties selected in this style were: Faculty of Science, Catholic University of Eastern Africa (CUEA); School of Public Health, Moi University; Faculty of Disaster Management and Humanitarian Assistance, Masinde Muliro University of Science & Technology (MMUST) and Faculty of Education and Social Sciences also at Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology (MMUST). We make a brief presentation of each of the faculties before discussing the impacts of the leadership styles on the commitment of the staff in the faculties.

The first faculty was the Faculty of Science, Catholic University of Eastern Africa (CUEA). The Catholic University of Eastern Africa (CUEA) was established in 1984 as a graduate theology college to serve the Eastern Africa region. It offered only two masters courses in theology by then. It was opened by Pope John Paul in 1985 and was granted interim authority in 1989 to start operating as a university. It was finally granted a charter to operate as a private university in 1992. The main campus is located in Nairobi while its other campuses are in different parts of the country. It aspires to be a world class university producing transformative leaders for the church and society. It has seven constituent colleges and two satellite campuses. It is governed by a council, board of trustees and a board of management to whom the deans report. It has eight faculties of which the Faculty of Science was amongst the first to be established 2002. The faculty has five departments and about twenty academic staff members. The three staff selected from this faculty were two females and one male. The two females had been in the faculty for the past six years while the male one had been there for ten years.

The second faculty was the Faculty of Disaster Management and Humanitarian Assistance, Masinde Muliro University of Science & Technology (MMUST). Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology was established in 2002 as a constituent college of Moi University. It sprung from the former Western College of Arts and Applied Sciences (WECO) established in 1972 to train manpower for self-

help and self-reliance. In 2007 it got full university status and became the seventh public university in Kenya. It is located in Kakamega on the western part of Kenya about 400km west of Nairobi. Its mission is to be a centre of excellence in research and teaching to respond to the development needs of society through knowledge creation and application. Its motto the University of Choice shows their aspiration to be the best.

MMUSTs governance organs include the chancellor, the council, the senate and the management board. It is a comprehensive university composed of eleven schools and faculties offering different programs. One of these is the Faculty of Disaster Management and Humanitarian Assistance which was selected for this study. The faculty was established in 2004 and prides itself as the only one with this disciplinary focus in the region. It aspires to be a regional centre to address the increase and severity of natural and human made disasters. The faculty has three departments and about 35 academic staff. The three respondents sampled from this faculty were two males and one female. Two had been in the faculty for five years while one had been there for ten years.

The third faculty was the School of Public Health, Moi University. Moi University was established in 1984 as the second university in Kenya following the recommendations of the Presidential Working Party on the establishment of the second university in Kenya (the Mackay Commission). The university is located in Eldoret in the Rift Valley region, some 340 kilometers west of Nairobi. It has four campuses and two constituent colleges located in different parts of the country. It aspires to be the University of Choice in nurturing innovation and talent in science, technology and development. It motto is foundation of knowledge. It has 3,700 staff and about 40,000 students.

It is a rural based university which was set up to spur rural development as the then other university was located in Nairobi, the capital city. Due to this, Moi University has a strength in community engagement and compliments most of its programmes with a community orientation. It also has some long spanning international partnerships which have contributed to the development of facilities and programmes. The organs of governance include the chancellor, council, management board, senate and the academic boards of the faculties. Though it was established to focus on science and technology, the university has over the years become more comprehensive and offers programmes in an array of fields including health sciences, engineering, education, arts, law, science, human resource management, aerospace engineering among others.

The School of Public Health is one of the four schools making up the College of Health Sciences at Moi University. It was established in 1998 from previously being a department within the Faculty of Health Sciences. It aspires to be a regional centre for teaching and research in public health. The staff who were selected from this faculty were two males and one female. One of the male staff was an associate professor while the other two staff were lecturers. They had all been in the faculty for more than five years with the longest serving having stayed for eleven years.

The fourth was the Faculty of Education and Social Sciences, Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology. The institutional profile of Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology (MMUST) has been presented in the case of the second faculty in this section. The Faculty of Education and Social Sciences is composed of seven departments and is the largest at Masinde Muliro University. The three staff sampled from this faculty were all females. One was an associate professor who had been in the faculty for the past twelve years while the other two were lecturers who had spent five years at the faculty.

7.2.2   Faculties led by a dean having performance-driven goal-setter style

The three faculties selected for this style were the School of Education at University of Nairobi, Faculty of Information Technology at Strathmore University and Faculty of Development and Strategic Studies at Maseno University. The first faculty selected in this style was the School of Education, University of Nairobi. The University of Nairobi was established in 1970 as the first public university in Kenya. It is located in Nairobi, the capital city of Kenya. The history of the university can be traced back to 1956 when the Royal Technical College was established in Nairobi and later transformed into the Royal College in 1961. During this time the university awarded the degrees of the University of London. In 1964, it became University College Nairobi which was a constituent of University of East Africa which also had campuses in Kampala, Uganda, and Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. It was transformed into the University of Nairobi in 1970. It was the only university in Kenya until 1984The University of Nairobi has six campus colleges headed by principals and thirty five faculties headed by deans. It has a student population of 79,000, academic staff totaling 2,052 and over 5,500 administrative, technical and support staff. It is the best ranked university in Kenya, leads in research outputs in the region and has thus joined the newly established Africa Research Universities Alliance (ARUA) bringing together fifteen top research universities in Africa. It aspires to be a world-class university committed to scholarly excellence.

The School of Education is part of the College of Education and External Studies located at Kikuyu campus, Nairobi. The school was established in 1988 and is composed of four departments. It has been a major contributor to the development of teachers in the country. The three staff sampled from the faculty were two males and one female, all at relatively senior positions. One of them was a head of department. Two of them had been in the faculty for eight years while one had been there for four years.

The second faculty was the *Faculty of Information Technology* at Strathmore University. This is one of the leading private universities in Kenya. It is located in Nairobi and grew from Strathmore College, which was established in 1961 as a multiracial institution offering training in accountancy, science and art subjects. In 2002, it was granted authority to operate as a university and was finally awarded a charter by the government to operate as a fully-fledged private university in 2008. Strathmore University aims to become a leading outcome-driven research university with major contributions to culture, economic well-being and quality of life. It is one of the best ranked universities in Kenya and is also quite international, based on its international staff and student numbers.

It specializes in Commerce and Information Technology with its Business School considered as one of the leading in Africa. It also has a niche in university-industry partnerships especially for its entrepreneurship and business incubation programs. It enrolls about 5,000 students distributed in its ten schools and faculties and employs about 300 academic staff. Their motto *that all may be one* expresses their desire to work together towards the same aim. The university is owned by Strathmore Educational Trust with its governance organs including a board of trustees, a council and a management board chaired by the Vice Chancellor. The deans report to the management board and are responsible for management of the faculties. The Information Technology Centre which later became the Faculty of Information Technology was established in 1991 and is one of the main faculties at the university. It focuses on innovation and information technology with a mission of providing leadership in teaching, training and research in information technology. The three respondents selected from this faculty included two females and one male staff. One of the females was a senior staff who had stayed in the faculty for about eight years while the other was a mid-career lecturer who had spent six years in the faculty. The male respondent was a lecturer who had been in the faculty for five years.

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The third faculty was the *Faculty of Development and Strategic Studies, Maseno University.* Maseno University is Kenya's sixth public university, started in 1991 as a constituent college of Moi University and attained full university status in 2001. The university lies on the equator at Maseno Township on the outskirts of Kisumu city on the western part of Kenya some 400 kilometers from Nairobi. Apart from the Maseno campus, it has a campus in Kisumu city and another in Homa Bay town. The university aspires to advance teaching, learning and research and development that responds to emerging socio-economic, technological and innovation needs of Kenya and the East African region. It has twelve schools, about 10,000 students and about 800 academic staff. The Faculty of Development and Strategic Studies was established in 2004 as a multidisciplinary centre for development research, teaching and community outreach. The school is the pioneer in Kenya in this field of study and is composed of four departments. The three members of staff selected comprised of two males and one female. They have worked at the faculty for a reasonable period with the least being five years and the highest being for eight years.

7.2.3   *Faculties led by a dean having the empathetic pushers style*

Under this style, the two faculties selected were *School of Information Sciences* at *Moi University* and the *Faculty of Education* at *Kenyatta University*. The profile of Moi University has been presented in the third case of the faculties making up the first leadership style. The School of Information Sciences is part of the thirteen schools and two institutes that make up Moi University. The school was established in 1988 as one of the pioneer flagship faculties of the university. It has four departments, about 950 students and 70 academic staff. It views itself as leading in training and research in information sciences in the region. The respondents from this faculty had all been in the faculty for more than ten years. The three respondents were at the position of lecturer at the faculty. Two were males while one was female and all were aspiring to rise to higher positions in the faculty.

The second was the *Faculty of Education, Kenyatta University.* Kenyatta University, popularly known as KU, has its origins in Kenyatta College established in 1970 as a

constituent college of University of Nairobi. It became the 3rd public university in Kenya in 1985. It has attained phenomenal growth and is the second largest university in Kenya after University of Nairobi. The university is located in Nairobi and has campuses in other parts of the country. It has over 70,000 students spread across its ten campuses. In recent years it has expanded into new academic programmes such as Law, Medicine and Engineering making it a comprehensive university. The university's mission is to provide quality education and training, promote scholarship, service, innovation and creativity and inculcate moral values for sustainable individual and societal development. The governance structure, just like in other Kenyan public universities is composed of a chancellor, the council, the senate and a management board. It is a multi-campus university with ten other campuses apart from the main campus.

Kenyatta University has sixteen schools. It has the pioneer Faculty of Education in Kenya which started training teachers in 1970 when the university was still a constituent college of University of Nairobi. It is one of the centres of excellence in the training of teachers in the country. The faculty is made up of seven departments and about 200 academic staff and over 30,000 students. The three staff who were sampled from this faculty were all male and included a professor and two lecturers. The lecturers have been in the faculty for about five years while the professor has been there for close to twenty years.

7.3   Responses by staff on their commitment to their faculties

In this section we present the outcomes of the interviews with the staff from the selected faculties on their commitment to their faculties. As discussed in section 4.6, our interview instrument was based on the three components of commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment) which we have already discussed extensively in section 2.4.2. For each of the three components of commitment, we had eight interview questions upon which we assessed the

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impacts of the leadership styles on staff commitment. In addition to interviewing the staff and recording their responses, we obtained their evaluation of the extent to which they were committed to their faculties. For each of the eight questions for each of the commitment components, we asked them of their perception of their commitment on a scale of 1 (very weak) to 7 (very strong) and scored these responses per question. These were to enable us to have more clarity on the interview outcomes. Scores that were 2 or below were considered to be of *very weak* commitment, those ranging from above 2 to 3 were regarded as *weak*, those ranging from above 3 to 4 were regarded as *fairly strong*, above 4 to 5 as *strong* while scores above 5 were regarded as *very strong*. We compounded these scores for each respondent based on each aspect of commitment to enable us to determine the relative strengths of the different aspects of commitment amongst the staff in the faculties and also to determine overall commitment in the faculties.

7.3.1   *Faculties led by deans with the people manager style*

This *people manager style* emphasizes on elements from the *clan* quadrant of the CVF which focuses on people leadership attributes such as trust and belongingness with an emphasis on flexibility, cooperation amongst members, and concern for people. Leaders operating within this quadrant are expected to demonstrate styles which carry team building, staff participation, cohesion and build high levels of morale in the staff in pursuit of their shared cause. Our expectation is that staff from such faculties will have relatively high levels of commitment.

7.3.1.1   *Faculty of Science, Catholic University of Eastern Africa (CUEA)*

Most of the staff in the faculty liked being part of the faculty and were proud of the faculty as they reported enjoying discussing the faculty with others. They especially liked the community approach of their faculty activities and its impacts on people's lives. The senior staff mainly associated with the success and history of the faculty making them bond closely with its vision and achievements. They felt they were part of the history of the faculty and liked participating in seeking solutions to the problems facing the faculty. One of the senior staff said:

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…"this faculty is like my baby, so I feel very sentimental about it"

Another staff confirmed that he had been regularly attending to issues affecting the faculty due to his appreciation of the faculty. The other two reported that they did not think they would be attached to another faculty as they were to this one, suggesting that they also had strong affective commitment to the faculty. The senior staff felt he was part of the success of the faculty making him have strong attachment to the faculty. He had to say:

> *"I have spent quite a lot of time and effort developing programs of the*
>
> *faculty and would be happy to see that they reach great heights".*

The fact that all the staff were happy at the faculty, were so much attached to the faculty, happy with the work environment and were to some extent associated with the success of the faculty suggests that they have *very strong* affective commitment to the faculty. Their overall score of 5.3 (see Table 7.1) on affective commitment is in tandem with this outcome.

On *normative commitment*, two of the staff felt they were loyal to their faculty and did not think they would be as loyal to another faculty. In their view, leaving the faculty would impact negatively on the gains they had made. They kept being in the faculty due to their loyalty as they felt a strong moral duty and sense of indebtedness to the faculty. They were so attached to the faculty that they felt leaving the faculty would impact negatively on the success the faculty had attained. They shared a sense of duty to the faculty which made them feel loyal to the faculty. Only one did not feel so much moral obligation to the faculty as the other two. He felt he could only be loyal and obliged to the faculty if the faculty was also supportive and gave more incentives to staff. This suggests that not all the respondents from the faculty had the very strong normative commitment. Since two staff reported stronger levels of normative commitment with one having a slightly less stronger normative commitment and based on the outcome of their

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overall scores on this aspect of commitment (4.0) the normative commitment of the staff of this faculty was therefore rated as *fairly strong*,

Regarding *continuance commitment*, all the respondents from this faculty indicated that they could continue staying in the faculty, suggesting a strong commitment to continue staying. They felt they needed to stay with the faculty as they did not have other better options. This could suggest that their stay was not so much due to their commitment to the faculty but due to lack of other possibilities. According to two of them, if they were obliged to leave, they could look for other jobs in the many new universities which had just set up faculties like theirs. This suggests that they could in a way find some alternatives if situations forced them to leave the faculty thus implying that the costs of leaving and the consequences would not be so much disastrous to them. In addition, one of the two, felt she had already worked long and made some retirement plans suggesting that the she was prepared to face the consequences of leaving the faculty if that was to happen. Though these two staff did not want to leave the faculty due to personal reasons, the costs of leaving seemed not to be very high to them suggesting that their commitment to the faculty was not so strong. Only one of the staff felt she could leave but had no intentions of doing so which suggests a strong commitment to the faculty. Two felt their lives would be disrupted economically if they left while one did not think so, implying stronger continuance commitment.

The female staff who felt the consequences of leaving would not be disastrous had a feeling that the faculty did not present her with a challenging work environment and could thus consider an option that was more challenging. This suggests low commitment. While two respondents indicated that they wanted to continue staying with the faculty, which according to the theory indicates a high continuance commitment, the reasons for staying differ from not having better options, retirement plans and economic disruptions. Such reasons do not out rightly support high levels of commitment (nor low levels of commitment). At the

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same time, the respondents indicated they were happy to work at the faculty (see affective commitment above). Based on the above responses and their overall score of 5.0 on this aspect of commitment, we concluded that the continuance commitment of staff in this faculty is *strong* and its origins are mainly positive (not determined by obstacles to exit).

7.3.1.2 Faculty of Disaster Management and Humanitarian Assistance, Masinde Muliro University of Science & Technology (MMUST)

Generally, the staff interviewed from this faculty liked their faculty especially for its multidisciplinarity and were eager to pursue the goals of the faculty. They identified and had a lot of passion for their faculty, including getting involved with seeking solutions to the problems of the faculty and even seeking new frontiers for the faculty. One of the respondents who was a head of department felt that he had more responsibility to deal with the problems of the faculty and to ensure it runs successfully. He was much more attached to the faculty than the others and felt so much part of the family of the faculty. However one staff (female) felt that though she used to be proud of the faculty, she did not feel the same anymore because many important things to her had changed. These included a change in focus of the faculty, the levels of expertise in the different fields as a result of key staff leaving and a new work culture which also brought in isolation of departments which had originally worked collaboratively. Over time, most staff had also developed different interests and tended to isolate themselves. It is only this member of the faculty who did not feel much emotional or personal attachment to the faculty but generally she had strong commitment to the faculty based on her responses to the other aspects of affective commitment.

Because two of the respondents reported about their passion for the faculty and their engagement and one respondent clearly indicated a decreased level of affection, we rate the affective commitment of staff of this faculty as *strong*. This was also in tandem with their overall score of 4.8 on this aspect of commitment. Interestingly, the views are quite opposite: from high levels of attachment to

serious doubts, where (change in) management seems to play a part (in the eyes of one respondent). The fact that multidisciplinarity plays an important role in enhancing affective commitment suggests that the staff enjoy working together in teams.

With regard to *normative commitment* in this faculty, two of the staff did not feel a strong sense of obligation or loyalty to their faculty. They did not think that changing their jobs would indicate lower levels of moral duty or loyalty to the faculty. They felt it was not so important for employees to show much loyalty to the faculty at the expense of other available opportunities and possibilities for better salaries. They believed that they could be more loyal and indebted to their faculty if the faculty also reciprocated by giving them more motivations to stay. Only the staff who was head of department felt a strong loyalty to the faculty. We rate the normative commitment of staff of this faculty as *fairly strong* also based on their overall score of 3.8 on this aspect of commitment.

Their responses on c*ontinuance commitment,* showed that the three respondents could find it hard leaving the faculty due to the economic and social consequences of leaving. Their continuance commitment could therefore be regarded as *strong* as they were obliged to stay and continue contributing to the faculty. In addition they did not want to leave the faculty as they valued their positions implying that they had strong commitment to the faculty. They were of the view that leaving could cause serious financial constraints to them and their families. Though they thought they could possibly find other jobs if they left, this was uncertain, making them not to dare considering leaving. They however saw opportunities for growth in the faculty which could further encourage them opt to stay, suggesting possibilities of lower continuance commitment. The female staff felt she could one day consider leaving especially because she had been a student in the faculty from undergraduate to postgraduate levels, and was now part of the staff of the faculty. It was her doctoral studies at the faculty that was still keeping her there. This was

the explanation for her strong continuance commitment because leaving would have negative impacts on her studies at the faculty suggesting that she had the need to stay but this could not say much if she would be more committed to the faculty if she stayed. The male head of department felt that his position gave him better opportunities that he would lose if he left.

The other male respondent felt that his career prospects could be achievable at the faculty, making him feel he could spend the rest of his career in the faculty. Leaving would mean he misses some of these possibilities. This suggests strong continuance commitment to the faculty. The staff who did not have very strong continuance commitment felt she could bear the cost associated with leaving. She felt she could get other options in other universities, in consultancy firms or even in NGOs as she felt qualified, confident and able to face risks.

We would rate the continuance commitment of staff of this faculty as *strong* and based on a mainly positive orientation towards their institution. This concurs with their overall score of 4.2 on continuance commitment. This outcome is also based on the fact that all respondents seemed to have the intention to stay, mainly because they valued the positions they had and saw career opportunities, even though one respondent was somewhat reluctant. They believe that they could leave but decided to stay which we see as an indication of commitment.

7.3.1.3   School of Public Health, Moi University

In this faculty, with regard to *affective commitment*, the three staff interviewed very much liked their work experience at the faculty suggesting that they had very strong affective commitment. This is also supported by the fact that they identified strongly with their faculty and enjoyed working there. They talked about it with others especially because they thought they were the best faculty in this field within the country. They felt part of the faculty and that they could engage in solving the challenges facing the faculty and were also consulted in decision

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making. They felt that the faculty provided them with the best environment to pursue their career goals. They thus had very strong affection to their work, felt valued and had very strong emotional attachment to the faculty making them have strong feelings to keep on being with the faculty. We would rate affective commitment in this faculty as *very strong* as they also had an overall score of 5.4 on this aspect of commitment. All the respondents liked the faculty, felt valued and as members of a family suggesting that they had quite strong affection to the faculty.

Regarding *normative commitment*, two of the three staff interviewed felt a strong moral obligation to their faculty suggesting strong normative commitment. Due to their loyalty to the faculty, they felt they needed to stay to keep the faculty going on with its programs. One had studied within the faculty and felt that he would give back to the faculty for developing him. Though they all have a strong sense of loyalty to the faculty, one felt that he would not feel so much obligation to the faculty in case they got other opportunities. We rate normative commitment in this faculty as *strong* (also concurs with their overall score of 4.3) as all the staff report a sense of loyalty and obligation to the faculty.

On *continuance commitment* they all wanted to continue staying with the faculty because the consequences of leaving could be severe to them. They were concerned of the economic and social costs associated with leaving the faculty. Continuance commitment was even stronger in the younger staff who felt their lives would be disrupted if they left the faculty. Since they all wanted to continue staying with the faculty we could rate their continuance commitment as very strong. However, the reasons for not leaving the faculty was mainly pegged on the negative consequences associated with leaving the faculty which could in a way suggest that they may not have been so much committed to the faculty but just feared the consequences of leaving. Their continuance commitment could therefore be rated as *strong* also based on their score of 4.5 on this aspect of commitment; but more

than in the other institutions this commitment was based on perceived difficulties of finding similar employment elsewhere.

7.3.3.4 *Faculty of Education and Social Sciences, Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology*

On a*ffective commitment* the staff interviewed from this faculty expressed happiness at being members of the faculty and saw potentials for growth. They were proud of the faculty and enjoyed talking to others about it especially the academic programmes, student experiences and the organization of activities at the faculty. They identified with the faculty and were willing to respond to any challenges that the faculty could face. They felt very involved in activities and as part of a family. These responses indicate that they had quite strong affection to the faculty and thus *strong* affective commitment. This also corresponds to their overall score of 5.0 on affective commitment. Actually two of them felt so much attachment to the faculty and did not feel that they could be attached to another faculty in the same way. The staff felt that the faculty was like a family and wanted to continue staying especially to contribute to its development. They had a very strong sense of belonging and emotional attachment to the faculty and were of the view that the faculty had a personal meaning to them. They appreciated the team work and regular consultations at the faculty.

On *normative commitment* the staff felt a strong loyalty and obligation to their faculty. They felt it would be inconveniencing to their faculty if they left. Due to their sense of loyalty they wanted to keep on with their membership in the faculty. They felt such a strong obligation to remain in the faculty even if there were other better opportunities elsewhere. One of them was of the strong opinion that it was important for staff to stay longer in one organization and be happy to stay with the organization even if they could pursue other ventures. The strong sense of loyalty and obligation to the faculty demonstrated by these staff suggests that they have *strong* normative commitment to their faculty. Their overall score on this aspect of commitment was 4.6.

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Regarding *continuance commitment,* two of the staff in this faculty did not fear what would happen to them if they left the faculty even with no other job planned. They felt qualified and able to find other possibilities. One of them felt she was already stable in life and did not have so many years to work and was thus prepared for retirement in a few years anyway. These two staff thus did not fear the consequences associated with leaving the faculty which suggests that they did not have strong continuance commitment to the faculty i.e. they could leave if they wished. Their continued stay with the faculty was thus not so much of a need but more of their choice. Only one (the youngest) felt that leaving the faculty without a planned alternative job would be quite disastrous to her personal life and that of her family. Staying in the faculty was more of a necessity than a desire because. This was mainly because she felt she was a young academic who was just developing a career and was in the middle of her PhD work at the university. In addition to the economic costs, her academic and career progression could be affected if she left. Based on the interview outcomes and their overall score of 3.8 on this aspect of commitment, we rated their continuance commitment as *fairly strong* and in part based on positive rather than negative continuance motives*.*

A summary of these outcomes is presented in Table 7.1. The overall commitment in the faculty is our interpretation of "adding up" the outcome of the three commitment components. In our interpretation the three components have equal weights. We used the same principle in summing up the total assessment of the three components of commitment with the assessments of the three faculties weighted equally. We note that in evaluating the third commitment component, we have taken the underlying motive into account (the reason for continuance). It demonstrates the overall commitment in the three faculties led by a dean with *people manager* style. The outcome, based on the last column of Table 7.1, suggests that the *people manager's style* elicited generally strong commitment of staff. The staff from the four faculties had very strong affective commitment to their faculties suggesting that they liked and identified with their faculties and were committed to pursuing the goals of the faculty. They also had strong normative and

continuance commitment suggesting that the *people manager style* had a very positive impact on staff commitment. If this commitment is higher than in the faculties led by deans with a different style remains to be seen. This will be explored in the next sections.

Table 7.1 Staff responses to the three aspects of commitment in the people manager's style

People Manager Style	AC	NC	CC	Overall Commitment
Faculty of Science Catholic University	Very strong (5.3)	Fairly strong (4.0)	Strong (5.0)	**Strong (4.8)**
Faculty of Disaster Management and Humanitarian Assistance (MMUST)	Strong (4.8)	Fairly strong (3.8)	Strong (4.2)	**Strong (4.3)**
School of Public Health, Moi University	Very strong (5.4)	Strong (4.3)	Strong (4.5)	**Strong (4.7)**
Faculty of Education & Social Sciences (MMUST)	Strong (5.0)	Strong (4.6)	Fairly Strong (3.8)	**Strong (4.5)**
Overall Commitment	**Very strong (5.1)**	**Strong (4.2)**	**Strong (4.6)**	**Strong (4.6)**

7.3.2   Faculties led by deans with the performance-driven goal-setters style

The deans in the *performance-driven goal-setters style* are located in the *market* quadrant of the CVF and thus emphasize on control and external focus. Performance in such organizations is associated with directing activities, results and competition. The deans in this style would perceive the external environment as hostile and competitive making them to be competitive and focused on winning. They would also see that the faculty delivers on the stated goals and insist on intense hard work and high productivity by pushing academic staff to meet faculty objectives. They would also hold and reinforce the vision of the faculty and clarify policy priorities and future direction. These deans seem more focused on making the faculty more competitive, productive and successful. The three faculties selected from this cluster were *School of Education* at *University of Nairobi*, *Faculty of Information Technology* at *Strathmore University* and *Faculty of Development Studies* at *Maseno University*. The responses by the staff from these faculties regarding the three aspects of commitment are discussed below.

7.3.2.1   School of Education, University of Nairobi

Based on the responses on *affective commitment* in this faculty, only one of the staff felt strongly attached to the faculty, suggesting that this was the only staff with strong affective commitment to the faculty. The other two did not feel so much attached to the faculty. They did not feel as part of the faculty family and had a feeling that in most times they were taken for granted. One had to say;

> *"I really long for a day when we can all have a sense of togetherness*
>
> *and work as a family in this faculty".*

Apart from the good reputation of the faculty which they appreciated, they had a rather lower affection to the faculty due to the several challenges facing the faculty especially related to scarcity of resources, facilities and a strong institutional culture. All the staff however liked talking to others about the faculty especially about their programmes and students' welfare, suggesting some affection to the faculty. The one with stronger affection to the faculty was a head of department.

He could have had such high commitment to the faculty based on his position and that this could have possibly been different if he was any other staff. He thus felt much of responsibility for the success and future of the faculty making him to have a stronger affective commitment to the faculty compared to the other two. Based on the fact that two of the staff had weaker affective commitment but were still proud of the faculty and only one showed very strong affective commitment, we rated affective commitment in this faculty as *fairly strong*. Their overall score for this aspect of commitment was 3.9.

Though they had fairly strong affective commitment, it is interesting to note that they had higher levels of loyalty to the faculty. They felt a strong obligation to the faculty. In addition to the one who was head of department, the other two who had weak affective commitment showed quite strong loyalty and obligation to their faculty. They felt that they were still in the faculty due to their loyalty. They did not wish the faculty to suffer the consequences of them not being there. Based on these interview outcomes and their overall score of 4.3 on this commitment component, we rated their normative commitment as *strong.* It is however rather difficult to account for their strong normative commitment in view of their rather weak affective commitment.

On *continuance commitment*, two of the staff felt they could have serious economic impacts if they lost their jobs at the faculty. This suggests that these two staff had much stronger need to stay with the faculty as they were uncertain of the consequences of leaving their jobs. It is notable that one of them was quite close to retirement and thus had stronger continuance commitment as she needed to be in the faculty also to secure her retirement benefits. One of the males would hesitate to leave till he becomes an associate professor. Two felt that their families would actually be disrupted if they were to leave without another job planned. One of the male staff had to say:

> *"It would be very difficult for me fitting in a new environment,*

developing new networks and getting to new organizational

traditions".

It would thus be so costly for him to leave. Though their responses indicate that they would rather stay in the faculty, their reasons for continued stay in the faculty were more based on personal considerations than on actual commitment to the faculty. Based on this and in addition to the fact that they demonstrated weak affective commitment (not liking the faculty that much) we rated continuance commitment in this faculty as *fairly strong*, also based on their overall score of 3.9 on this aspect of commitment. Moreover, the origins of this commitment were primarily negative rather than positive indicating that this commitment component is not strong.

7.3.2.2   *Faculty of Information Technology*, *Strathmore University*

The three staff interviewed from this faculty all liked the faculty. They also identified with its goals and also liked the work environment. They expressed satisfaction with their remuneration, innovative academic programs of the faculty, learning experiences of the students and the availability of resources to support their activities. Their strong affection to the faculty made them even eager to participate in seeking solutions to the problems facing the faculty. They all did not think they could be attached to another faculty as they were to this one. A male faculty (the youngest) felt that no other faculty could give him the same environment and care. They felt as part of the faculty family characterized by collective decision making, regular reunions and also thought the leadership was supportive, consultative, created several opportunities for team building and was also caring. Since the faculty was comparatively small, they had a strong sense of belonging in the faculty. Based on their overall score of 4.8 on this aspect of commitment and on the interview outcomes which generally show strong affection to the faculty, we rated affective commitment in this faculty as *strong*.

Though they had strong affection to the faculty, they did not show as much normative commitment. They did not express strong feelings of loyalty and obligation to the faculty. They thus did not feel they had a moral duty or sense of obligation to the faculty. If they found other better opportunities, they were of the view that they could leave the faculty. This could seem a contradiction to the fact that they reported (in affective commitment) that they would find it difficult to be attached to another faculty as they were to this one. However, noting that these were staff from a private university where employment terms are mainly on contract compared to public universities where terms for staff are mainly permanent, it would be understandable then if staff do not show complete loyalty in such circumstances. As one of the staff expressed;

> "…… *the work environment in the university makes us not to be obliged to*
>
> *stay and thus in a way we are encouraged to pursue other interests".*

We thus rated their normative commitment as *weak* also based on their overall score of 3.0 on this aspect of commitment.

Regarding *continuance commitment*, two (female) staff did not think they would stay for long and did not fear losing their positions at the faculty. They were actually optimistic of finding alternatives and being able to bear the consequences associated with leaving the faculty. One who worked in the Innovation Lab had to say;

> "…*I am very creative, qualified and, innovative. I cannot spend the whole of my life*
>
> *here when there are several possibilities out there. I see our students making*
>
> *breakthroughs when they come from here and I can do the same".*

She did not think it would be hard to leave and actually thought she could leave at any time to set up her own enterprise. She had worked in the Innovation Lab of the university for several years and seen most of her students make breakthroughs with their startups. She thus thought she was spending most of her valuable time at

the faculty and wanted to set up her own initiative. The other mainly wanted to leave due to family reasons as she was working away from her family. It was only the male staff who felt that his life would in a way be disrupted if he left the faculty without any clear plan for another job. He felt the impacts of leaving would not only affect him but also his family as they all depended on his job. For him, unlike for the other two, staying with the faculty was a matter of necessity. The responses indicate that the first two staff had very weak continuance commitment to the faculty. The third staff could be said to be having strong continuance commitment because he feared the consequences of leaving but this does not necessarily mean that he was committed to the faculty. Their overall score on this aspect of commitment was 2.7. Continuance commitment in this faculty was thus rated as *weak* based on a combination of lack of positive commitments and absence of exit options.

7.3.2.3 *Faculty of Development and Strategic Studies, Maseno University*

In this faculty, all three staff interviewed did not identify much nor show affection to their faculty. One felt his affection to his work and emotional attachment to the faculty could only be enhanced if things changed at the faculty. He would be very dissatisfied and demoralized if things remained as they were. Part of why they were neither satisfied nor happy with their work at the faculty included a heavy workload, poor remuneration and the slow pace of professional growth. One of the staff actually did not feel happy at the faculty. He however talked to others about the faculty especially on the unique academic programs, the quality of students, services to students and their partnerships with other universities. One of them traveled abroad frequently and liked presenting the faculty in the international meetings but was actually not happy at the faculty. Two of them cited the many challenges facing the faculty as one of the reasons why they did not have much affection to the faculty. Two of them felt they could participate in solving the faculty's problems but only to an extent as they did not feel as much part of the family of the faculty. They all felt that they could easily get attached to another faculty especially one that was well managed and offered more prospects of growth. At the same time, they felt as part of the faculty based on the fact that the

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faculty was closely knit, met frequently, and made decisions based on consultation and participation. The responses indicate that all the staff interviewed had rather weak affection to the faculty and could actually be more attached to other faculties than this one. They had a score of 2.8 on this aspect of commitment. As such affective commitment in this faculty was rated as *weak*.

It is interesting to note that even with their weak affective commitment, they believed they were loyal to their faculty. They felt a fairly strong sense of moral obligation to the faculty. Despite the challenges the faculty faced and the fact that they did not like the work environment so much, they were still dedicated to their work, which suggests a strong sense of loyalty and obligation to the faculty. One indicated that he very much valued his students and would do all he could to give them the best. They all believed that they needed to have loyalty to their faculty as derived benefits from being members of the organization. Though it could seem contradictory to their outcome on affective commitment, their responses indicated that they had *fairly strong* normative commitment to the faculty. They had a score of 3.9 on this aspect of commitment.

Regarding *continuance commitment*, they all indicated that they were not ready to leave their positions at the faculty. Since together with their families they depended on this job, the cost of leaving without any other job opportunities planned would cause lots of disruptions and uncertainties in their lives. In addition, their terms of service in the current jobs were binding and would not allow them to leave easily. The serious consequences and high costs associated with leaving the faculty made staying with the faculty a necessity for them. While this could indicate strong continuance commitment, it is also important to note that the decision to stay is more based on personal considerations which may in effect not mean high commitment to the faculty. One however expressed that he had additional responsibilities in the faculty (i.e. examinations officer) which made it additionally hard for him to leave abruptly. This however does not indicate a personal

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consideration but commitment to the faculty. The fact that all of them do not want to leave the faculty and one has even stronger dedication to what he was doing at the faculty, and based on their overall score of 5.4 on this aspect, we would be inclined to rate the continuance commitment at this faculty as *very strong*. However, their intention to stay was predominantly based on high costs of leaving, which suggests that this commitment component may be somewhat overrated. It is therefore being rated as *fairly strong*.

The above outcome can be summarized as presented in Table 7.2 which generally depicts that (see last column on overall commitment) faculties led by deans with the *performance-driven goal-setters style* generally had a fairly strong commitment of staff. They seem to have a strong continuance commitment suggesting that they were more likely to continue staying with their faculties. However, this outcome is the result of 'high continuance' at the Faculty of Development and Strategic Studies, which as we indicated is somewhat overrated due to the fact that it is predominantly based on negative instead of positive reasons for staying. Therefore, our assessment of continuance commitment is 'fairly strong' (instead of strong as the scores indicates). Their lowest score (3.6) is on normative commitment which suggests that they did not have so much moral obligations to their faculties and thus did not care so much what would happen if they left the faculty. Generally, their commitment to the faculty was fairly strong.

Table 7.2 Staff responses to three aspects of commitment in the performance-driven goal-setters style

Performance- driven goal setters style	AC	NC	CC	Overall Commitment
Faculty of Education, University of Nairobi	Fairly Strong (3.9)	Strong (4.3)	Fairly Strong (3.9)	**Fairly strong (4.0)**
Faculty of Information Technology, Strathmore University	Strong (4.8)	Weak(3.0)	Weak (2.7)	**Fairly Strong (3.5)**
Faculty of Development and Strategic Studies, Maseno University	Weak (2.8)	Fairly strong (3.9)	Fairly Strong (5.4)	**Fairly strong (4.0)**
Overall Commitment	**Fairly Strong (3.8)**	**Fairly Strong (3.6)**	**Fairly strong (4.1)**	**Fairly Strong (3.8)**
For the discrepancy between judgement and score, please see the text above.				

7.3.3   Faculties led by deans with the empathetic pushers style

The faculties selected for this style were the *School of Information Sciences* at *Moi University* and the *Faculty of Education* at *Kenyatta University*. The deans who are *empathetic pushers* combine the *clan* and *market* quadrants. Based on the *clan* quadrant, they lead their faculties with a focus on flexibility, concern for people, shared goals and a focus on outcomes as is expected of *mentor* and *facilitator* roles of this quadrant. In addition, based on the market quadrant, they also focused on the external environment, results, competition, winning and productivity as is characteristic of the *producer* and *director* roles of this quadrant. These deans are therefore both people oriented and caring while at the same time competitive and

pushing for results. They deploy the four roles associated with these quadrants i.e. *mentor, facilitator, producer* and *director* roles.

7.3.3.1 School of Information Sciences, Moi University

Regarding *affective commitment* the three staff interviewed were very happy at the faculty and liked the work environment. They felt quite at home and enjoyed the years spent at the faculty. They all undertook part of their studies at the faculty and found the faculty a stimulating place to work in. They liked discussing the faculty with others especially the growth they had attained over the years, their academic programs, linkages and collaborations, the success of their students in the job market and linkages with the industry. The faculty had attracted students from many other countries in the region as it was the pioneer in this field. They all indicated that they participated in solving the faculty's problems in their various areas of responsibility. They all felt attached to the faculty and felt part of the organization. The faculty had a lot of personal meaning to them. In addition to the interview outcomes that indicated very strong affective commitment, they scored 5.5 on this component thus we rated their affective commitment as *very strong.*

On *normative commitment,* all three respondents felt that they would stay with their faculty due to their loyalty to the faculty. One of them had to say;

> "….I would not be happy to see all the efforts I have put in this faculty go down
>
> the drain in case I am not be there".

Their loyalty and obligation to the faculty was further strengthened by their recognition that some of the staff who had left to other institutions wanted to come back to the faculty. They felt that employees needed to put all their efforts in building their organizations and that they were loyal to the faculty. They felt that many things would still hold them in the faculty even if they got much better job elsewhere. Based on these outcomes and their overall score of 5.0, we rated normative commitment as *strong* in this faculty.

Regarding *continuance commitment*, all the staff interviewed from this faculty did not want to leave the faculty as the consequences of leaving would be very disruptive to their lives. One indicated that he had already been offered positions by two companies in the past but did not go. One of them was still a PhD candidate in the faculty making it even harder for him to leave. Two of them felt that their lives would be disrupted if they left because they had made investments around the university which would make it costly for them to leave. These responses suggest that they had a fairly strong continuance commitment. Even though one indicated that he already had a company in the town focused on knowledge management, he would still stay with the faculty and could only join the company if he had no other option but to leave. Leaving that faculty would cause him several disruptions especially to his family in case they would have to move to a new location to look for an alternative. Based on the above responses and their overall score (4.0), continuance commitment amongst these staff was rated as *fairly strong*. We note that he motives for staying are hard to judge; it seems however that their commitment is not predominantly driven by positive reasons (and therefore we rate the continuance commitment as fairly strong).

7.3.3.2 *Faculty of Education, Kenyatta University*

The staff interviewed from this faculty had different views regarding their affective commitment to the faculty. While they were generally proud of the faculty as the pioneer and most established faculty of education in the country, their affective commitment was varied. Two of the respondents had a strong emotional attachment to the faculty due to the fact that the faculty had lots of personal meaning to them. The youngest of the respondents was very happy at the faculty. One respondent felt that the workload was too much and the numbers of students were rising making it hard for him to cope. Under these circumstances, he could not give his best to the faculty. At the same time, he did not feel as part of the family of the faculty. The third one who was also the most senior of them, a professor, did not feel happy at the faculty and had already secured a new job as he did not feel that he fitted or attained job satisfaction in the faculty. He had been with the faculty for the past 17 years in different academic positions and wanted to

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leave the faculty due to several issues. He however did his best in his area of work. While he felt as part of the family of the faculty, he at the same time felt that the faculty was divided into two groups with one group feeling much more sense of belonging than the other. He thus had low emotional attachment to the faculty. Based on the interview outcomes and their overall score of 4.0 on this aspect, their affective commitment was rated as *fairly strong*.

Regarding *normative commitment* they felt some moral obligation and a sense of duty to the faculty but not that strong. Two of them felt that they could not be loyal to the faculty. They were not in the faculty because of loyalty as they could move to other organizations if they found better options. Actually one of them, as will be reported under continuance commitment, had already secured a better job elsewhere and was planning to leave soon. Another one felt that the field of higher education had become very competitive making it rather difficult for staff to have allegiance to one institution He believed that the institutions needed to change to gain the loyalty of their staff. These responses suggest that these staff were actually not loyal to their faculty though they were proud of the rich profile and tradition of the faculty. In addition to their overall score was 2.8, we rated normative commitment in this faculty as *weak*.

On *continuance commitment* two of the staff from the faculty felt they would be devastated if they lost their positions in the faculty. They perceived serious implications if they lost their positions. One said;

> "….I *would actually be shocked if that would happen. I do not know*
>
> *what I would do"*.

Both believed that the economic implications would cause disruptions to their lives as their livelihoods were dependent on these jobs. Their continued stay in the

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faculty was thus because of necessity though they felt they could have some options if they were compelled to leave. This suggests that these two staff could have had strong continuance commitment to the faculty. The one who had already secured a new job and would leave within the next few months had very weak continuance commitment. He had already given the university the required notice to leave the faculty. Their overall score on this aspect of commitment was 3.7. The combination of these two responses on continuance commitment made us regard continuance commitment in this faculty as *fairly strong.* Although it is hard to say whether the underlying motives for staying are predominantly driven by negative or positive reasons, we would argue that the staff does not predominantly have positive reasons for staying. When put together (as is in Table 7.3), the outcome from the two faculties suggest that the staff in the faculties led by deans with *empathetic pushers style* had strong commitment to their faculties. It is notable that they have quite strong affective commitment and generally fairly strong normative and continuance commitment.

Table 7.3 Staff responses to three aspects of commitment in the empathetic pushers style

Empathetic Pushers Styles	AC	NC	CC	Overall Commitment
School of Information Sciences, Moi University	Very Strong (5.5)	Strong (5.0)	Fairly strong (4.0)	**Strong (4.8)**
Faculty of Education Kenyatta University	Fairly strong (4.0)	Weak (2.8)	Fairly strong (3.7)	**Fairly strong (3.3)**
Overall Commitment	**Strong (4.8)**	**Fairly Strong (3.9**	**Fairly strong (3.9)**	Strong (4.2)

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7.4   Leadership styles and commitment in the faculties

In this section we present and discuss the effects of the three leadership styles of the deans on staff commitment in the faculties. The outcomes are presented in Table 7.4, which summarizes the outcomes of the previous tables 7.1, 7.2 and 7.3, to enable us to assess the impact of the three different styles on overall staff commitment in the faculties as well as on the three components separately.

Table 7.4 Leadership styles and faculty commitment

Leadership Style	AC	NC	CC	Overall Commitment
People Manager Style	Very strong (5.1)	Strong (4.2)	Strong (4.6)	Strong (4.6)
Performance- driven goal setters style	Fairly Strong (3.8)	Fairly Strong (3.6)	Fairly strong (4.1)	Fairly Strong (3.8)
Empathetic Pushers Styles	Strong (4.8)	Fairly strong (3.9)	Fairly Strong (3.9)	Strong (4.2)

From Table 7.4, based on the three styles, it is notable that the overall commitment of the staff in the faculties ranged from *fairly strong* (3.8) to *strong* (4.6). The *people manager style* impacted more strongly on the commitment of staff to their faculties than the other two styles. The staff in the faculties led by the deans who demonstrate this style had stronger commitment to their faculties compared to staff led by the deans demonstrating the other two styles. Looking at the three

components of commitment together, the overall outcome of commitment in the *people manager style* is strong (with an overall score of 4.6 on a scale ranging from 1 to 7). As we had noted in section 6.3.2 this style emphasizes aspects from the *clan* quadrant, which emphasizes people leadership functions such as trust and belongingness. Based on these outcomes, such leadership styles that promote cooperation amongst members, concern for people and sensitivity for customers or clients seems to lead to stronger commitment of staff to their faculties. Deans in such faculties lead faculty members to have a sense of family and loyalty to one another in pursuit of their shared cause. Such deans are supportive, facilitating and mentoring to their staff thus they eschews more commitment from staff.

While staff commitment in faculties led by a *people manager* is relatively strong in all the three components of commitment, it is particularly strong with respect to affective commitment (overall score of 5.1). This suggests that the staff identify with the goals of their faculty, are happy to be in the faculty and feel as part of the faculty family. They also demonstrate strong normative commitment, suggesting that they have strong feelings of loyalty to their faculty. They care about the faculty and feel that things may go wrong if they would leave. Their strong continuance commitment suggests that they either do not want to leave their faculty (e.g. because of high affection or loyalty) or that the costs associated with leaving the faculty are quite high. They have positive reasons to stay at the faculty, suggesting a strong commitment. This could suggest that this faculty provides a premium work environment that the staff cannot find in other employment possibilities, and it seems that the leadership style contributes to this.

In faculties led by deans who deploy the *performance-driven goal-setters style*, the outcome as depicted in Table 7.4 suggests that overall commitment of staff is *fairly strong*. Compared to the other two styles, the *performance-driven goal-setters style* elicits the lowest levels of commitment in the faculty staff, particularly with respect to affective commitment. This suggest that this style could be the least popular with

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the staff as it impacts least to their commitment. Of the three styles, this suggests that leadership styles that focus more on the market and competitiveness seem thus to be least in positively influencing the commitment of staff.

The staff in faculties led by deans with this style show fairly strong commitment on the affective and continuance components of commitment. They moderately identify with the goals of their faculties, do not feel so much as part of the family and do not have high identity and obligation to their faculties (affective commitment). The outcome on continuance commitment suggests that they do not feel a very strong need or desire to stay with the faculty. The reasons for continuance are mainly negative in the sense of facing negative consequences or costs associated with leaving the faculty. Their fairly strong normative commitment suggests that they have a sense of loyalty and moral obligation to their faculties, which might explain why they stay at the faculty although this wish is not very strong.

The *performance-driven goal-setters style* is based on the *market* quadrant of the CVF suggesting that leadership is mostly driven by results and competition. These deans perceive the external environment as hostile and competitive, making them to be competitive leaders who hold the faculty together with an emphasis on winning. Such deans are, in terms of the CVF, typically *producers* and *directors*. They would focus on results and performance of academic staff and foster a sense of faculty competitiveness to enable them perform better than others (producers). At the same time, they would take a lead in defining areas of responsibility for academic staff and make sure that all staff know the direction, objectives and goals of the faculty.

Staff commitment in faculties where the deans execute the *empathetic pushers style* was generally strong. Staff in these faculties have higher commitment than those in

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the faculties led by the in between *performance-driven goal–setters style,* but lower than commitment in the faculties led by the *people manager style.* The staff in these faculties show strong commitment in both affective and continuance domains. They however show moderate commitment in the normative component. This suggests that this style elicits strong identification with the faculty as a place where they feel at home. This might explain why the staff are keen to stay at the faculty, although high economic costs or consequences on staff who would like to leave the faculty could play a role as well. Although staff feel at home at the faculty, their loyalty towards it is relatively moderate.

The *emphatic pushers style* combines roles associated with the *clan* and *market* quadrants of the CVF. The fact that these are contradictory quadrants (with competing values) suggests that deans in this style have more behavioural complexity than the deans in the other two styles who focus mainly on roles of one quadrant. They combine the roles in the two quadrants which were demonstrated separately by the deans in the first two styles. They therefore frequently perform more roles and can thus lead their faculties in much more multifaceted ways than the deans in the first two styles. This outcome suggests that leadership styles that combine both market and clan characteristics elicit strong commitment of staff to their faculties.

The outcomes with respect to leadership styles and overall staff commitment supports the expectation that we have formulated in chapter 3 (and in section 7.1): the more a leadership style contains roles and values from the human relations quadrant (of the CVF), the higher the commitment of staff. The overall staff commitment in faculties led by deans with a *people manager style* is higher than the overall staff commitment in faculties led by deans with a *performance-driven goal setter style* or *empathetic pusher style*. The *empathetic pushers style*, which contains values of the clan quadrant as well, shows a higher level of overall commitment than the *performance-driven goal-setter style*, which has, compared to the other styles,

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less values of the clan quadrant. This could suggests that there could be relationship between leadership style and overall staff commitment.

Would this finding also hold if we looked at the three components separately? If we look at affective commitment, then we see the same pattern: the *people manager style* has the highest level of affective commitment of staff while the *performance-driven goal setters style* the lowest. Also with respect to normative and continuance commitment we observe that the people managers style has the strongest impact. The differences of these two commitment components for the performance-driven goal-setter and the empathetic pushers style are less obvious. With respect to both styles the normative and continuance component of staff commitment are fairly strong.

7.5 Discussion

The deans who lead their faculties based on the leadership styles associated with the clan quadrant seem to attain the best outcomes on staff commitment in their faculties. These outcomes are in tandem with the expectations that we developed at the end of chapter 3. In section 3.1.1 we discussed *transformative leadership* that relates closely to the mentoring and director roles associated with the *clan* quadrant. The *people manager style* seem to depict the characteristics of leadership in self-governing organizations where leadership is viewed as an emergent property of the group based on concerted action which is a product of conjoint activity. In such organizations people work together, pool their expertise and initiative and the outcome is always greater than the sum of their individual actions.

The *people manager style* relates to the characterization of universities as collegial organizations that emphasize non-hierarchical, co-operative decision-making with staff viewing themselves as a community of equals. The model is seen as more human, accommodative, gives personal attention and calls for more professional freedom, consensus and democratic consultation. The leader is expected to be

collegial, less to command than to listen, less to lead than to gather expert judgments, less to manage than to facilitate and less to order than to persuade and negotiate (Goodman, 1962). These characteristics are similar to those of the *clan* quadrant where this style falls. These are therefore the organizational characteristics that elicit the most commitment from faculty staff in Kenyan universities. It elicits the three aspects of commitments and does so for continuance commitment even without economic necessity or costs associated with leaving. It should be noted however that high scores for affective and normative commitment could be directly related to strong commitment. As we had presented in figure 2.3, these two components have unambiguous effects on commitment compared to the continuance aspect. For continuance commitment, however, high scores could also mean fear of leaving the organization due to economic consequences which may not necessarily mean high levels of commitment to the organization but just lack of alternatives.

 The outcome could suggest that leadership styles that focus on the *market* model do not result into quite strong commitment of staff compared to styles that focus on the clan model. Such styles that focus on competition and winning do not seem to sway as much commitment in the staff compared to the other two styles. It is further important to note that in the evaluation of the subjective norms of the deans, they perceived their important stakeholders to expect them to lead the faculties using styles inclined more towards the hierarchy and adhocracy quadrants.

While Meyer and Allen (1991) argue that the three components of commitment are distinguishable, other studies have suggested that they could be closely related. Most notably, the correlation between affective commitment and normative commitment has been viewed as quite strong (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002). Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolynytsky (2001) ascertained that affective commitment has the strongest and most favourable correlation with

attendance, performance and organization citizenship behaviour. Moreover, they argue that continuance commitment was unrelated or related negatively to organizational outcomes. Affective commitment is therefore expected to have the strongest positive relation to commitment, followed by normative commitment, while continuance commitment is expected to be unrelated to desirable work behaviours.

7.6   Summary

This chapter discussed the impacts of the three leadership styles of the Kenyan deans on the commitment of staff to their faculties. It presents the characteristics of the case faculties, a summary of the staff responses and a discussion of those outcomes. The *people manager style* leads to *stronger* commitment of staff (on all three commitment components), *empathetic pushers style* leads to *strong* commitment while the *performance-driven goal –setters style* leads to *fairly strong* levels of commitment. Thus, leadership styles based on the clan quadrant excite more commitment of the staff compared to the other two.

8 Summary of outcomes, conclusions and further reflections

This chapter summarise and provides a conclusion to this study. It begins with a discussion of the main outcomes of the study and then presents the conclusions. It finally discusses some reflections on the study and some aspects that could be explored further.

8.1 Research questions and context

This study explored the leadership styles of deans in Kenyan universities, why they adapt these styles in managing their faculties and the impacts of these leadership styles on staff commitment in the faculties. The aim of the study was to provide a better understanding of faculty leadership styles in Kenyan universities and how they impact on the commitment of staff in these faculties. The study set off from the assumption that leadership styles could have an impact on staff commitment. This would be important as it is generally believed that stronger commitment of staff could signify better organizational performance (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Lambert & Hogan, 2009; Mowday, 1979:8; Stum, 1999).

While leadership in universities can be executed from different organizational positions, this study focused on the deanship, a middle management position, which though important for the success of universities, has not received much research attention, especially in the Kenyan context. Universities are made up of different management levels, including middle management, all of which work to give the organization its entity and contribute to the overall performance of the organization. With increasing organizational challenges effective leadership in universities becomes even more important as has been evidenced by the literature on higher education in Kenya. Leadership, especially in complex organizations

such as universities, transcends the roles of executives and operates at other levels too.

While deans are important and have key roles in their faculties, not so much is known about how they lead their faculties and why they lead in that way. While there has been considerable research (Sifuna, 1998; Amutabi, 2003; Mwiria, 2003) on executive leadership in Kenyan universities, not much is known about deanship and other middle management levels in these universities. Due to the changes taking place in Kenyan universities, it is likely that the deanship in Kenyan universities has also changed but we do not know how and with what impacts on their faculties. The transformations in university governance and management in Kenya are intriguing thus stimulating a need for a better understanding of their impacts on university leadership at different levels including that of deans. While organizational performance can be attributed to several factors, the study takes staff commitment as one of the factors that could determine performance in universities. Leading from the middle, the position of deans, is even more demanding and involves several functions such as planning, management, acquiring resources, faculty development, development and review of academic programs, motivating and aligning others, research management, students' management, and internationalization activities amongst others. These can be daunting tasks and even more so in situations where the institution itself faces myriad challenges as in the Kenyan case. They have the demanding task of managing the requirements of their positions and the challenges of their contexts.

The study was guided by the following research questions;

    i.   *What are the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans?*

   ii.   *Why do Kenyan deans adopt these leadership styles in managing their faculties?*

  iii.   *What are the effects of the leadership styles of Kenyan deans on staff commitment in their faculties?*

8.2   Theoretical approach

The theoretical framework for this study consisted of two parts. The first part explains the leadership styles of the deans and was based on the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA and its extended version, Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)) which provides a plausible and widely used approach to explain leadership behaviour. The TPB explains behaviour by relying on *intentions, attitudes, subjective norms* and *perceived behavioural control*. The model views leadership behaviour as based on ones intention to perform or not to perform that behaviour and explains intentions by relying on *attitudes, subjective norms* (Ajzen & Fishbein 1980:62) and *perceived behavioural controls* (Ajzen, 1991). Attitudes are derived from beliefs and the consequences of performing the behaviour while subjective norms are derived from the expectations of the significant referents and the motivation to comply with their expectations. Both attitudes and subjective norms are traced by this model back to the person's beliefs. Based on the TPB, our assumption was that *i) the more positive a dean's attitude towards a particular style, the more likely it is that he will execute that particular style, ii) the more positive a dean's subjective norm towards a particular style, the more likely it is that he will execute that particular style, and iii) the higher the perceived behavioural control (less barriers) towards performing a particular style, the more likely it is that the dean will perform that particular style.* We used the Competing Values Framework (CVF) to specify our TPB model. This is mainly because the CVF specifies the leadership behaviours and roles that organizational leaders need to perform and against which we were to evaluate the leadership of the deans. Based on the four quadrants of the CVF, we identified the leadership roles that deans, just like other organizational leaders, are expected to execute for the success of their faculties.

The second part of our study was based on the Three Components Model (TCM) of Commitment which was useful in relating the impacts of the leadership styles of the deans to the commitment of staff in the faculties. It sees organizational commitment as based on three aspects i.e. *affective commitment, normative commitment* and *continuance commitment* (Meyer and Allen, 1984), all of which are important in evaluating commitment. *Affective Commitment* (AC) reflects emotional

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ties one attaches to an organization, involvement with the organization, its goals and their work in the organization making them to want to stay in the organization. *Normative Commitment* (NC) is based on obligations, loyalty and sense of duty that one feels for the organization and is even closer to a moral obligation to the organization. *Continuance Commitment* (CC), reflects the perceived social and economic costs related to leaving the organization (Wiener & Vardi, 1980:86; Rosseau, 1989; Allen & Meyer, 1997:45). An evaluation of the impacts of the leadership styles of the deans on these components of organizational commitment enabled us to establish the link between the leadership styles and commitment. The assumption was that high levels of commitment should in most cases lead to enhanced organizational performance. The deans' leadership styles could thus excite different levels of commitment which have effects on the performance of their faculties. Our hypothesis was that the more the deans lead their faculties based on the leadership styles associated with the clan quadrant the more they would attain better outcomes on staff commitment in their faculties.Our complete theoretical framework therefore postulates that *attitudes*, *social norms* and *perceived behavioural control* determine leadership style, and that leadership style determines staff commitment. The complete theoretical model is presented as Fig. 2.4.

8.3   Methodological considerations

The study adopted a mixed method approach. We used the survey design and complemented it with case studies. The survey was modelled in the form of a written questionnaire administered to the Kenyan deans. It was in accordance with the constructs of the TPB i.e. *attitudes*, *subjective norms* and *perceived behavioural controls*. The survey instrument thus had statements on the *beliefs*, *attitudes*, *subjective norms, perceived behavioural control* and *background factors* to determine the leadership styles of the deans. We used the CVF in combination with the TPB to specify the leadership roles expected of the deans in managing their faculties. As elaborated in section 3.2 the CVF clarifies the complex and paradoxical nature of organizational leadership through its four quadrants (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983;

Cooper & Quinn, 1993; Cameron & Quinn, 1999) each with two leadership roles resulting into the eight leadership roles (Quinn, 1988, Hoijberg, 1996). We used the Ordinary least-squares (OLS) regression in answering the second research question.

We complemented the questionnaire survey with case studies. Based on the three leadership styles of the deans we selected nine faculties for the case studies from which we selected three members of staff from each faculty who were then interviewed using an interview schedule (see Appendix E). While the questionnaires could enable us obtain information to establish and explain the leadership styles of the deans, the case studies enabled us to obtain information to explain the impacts of these leadership styles of the deans on staff commitment in the faculties. Since our Three Component Model (TCM) on commitment views commitment as composed of *affective*, *continuance* and *normative commitment*, the interview schedule had eight questions for each of these aspects of commitment. In addition to the interviews, we also scored the perceptions of the staff of their commitment to the eight items under each aspect of commitment based on a scale ranging from 1(very weak) to 7 (very strong). We have already presented literature (see section 4.2) which suggests that leadership styles have an impact on staff commitment and staff commitment could have an impact on organizational success or performance. A summary of the steps that were undertaken and the data analysis procedures is presented in table 4.3.

8.4   Summary of main outcomes

This section summarises the main outcomes of this study based on the research questions stated in section 8.1 and elaborated in section 1.5 of this study. It thus summarises the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans (first research question), why the deans demonstrate these styles (second research question) and the effects of these styles on staff commitment in the faculties (third research question).

8.4.1   Leadership styles the Kenyan deans

Regarding the first research question seeking to establish the leadership styles of the deans, we assessed the deans' performance of the eight leadership roles of CVF (as discussed in section 6.3.1). According to CVF, ideally effective leaders need to balance these contradictory roles. However, due to individual differences, organizational contexts and different constraints or barriers, leaders could emphasise on some roles more than others thus leading to certain dominant leadership styles. When presented with the eight leadership roles, the Kenyan deans perceived themselves as performing all the roles frequently. This overall outcome presented us with an overall performance or style of the dean which we referred to as the *master style.* According to CVF, leaders who strive to perform all these 8 roles (as the Kenyan deans perceived themselves to be doing) are referred to as *master managers* as they can ably manage the complexities of these contradictory and demanding roles. They would thus have what Quinn (1988) refers to as *behavioural complexity,* which is the ability to exhibit contrary and opposing behaviours. With such behavioural complexity, they can deal with the contradictions and complexities of their faculties to meet and integrate the paradoxical issues of organizational life (Denison, Hoijberg, and Quinn, 1995).

Based on the *master style*, the deans viewed themselves as performing the *director, facilitator* and *mentor* roles most frequently than the other roles. This suggests that they mostly viewed themselves as focussed on defining responsibilities in their faculties, building consensus and showing care for their faculty members. They least performed the *monitor* and *innovator* roles which according to the CVF implies that they do not view themselves as quite active in reviewing detailed reports or dealing with technical and detailed information nor as carefully comparing records and reports to detect any discrepancies, analyse written plans and work with technical information.

As we discussed in 6.3.1, the *master style* presents a rather generic and seemingly ideal leadership style, which though useful, does not say so much about the styles

by which Kenyan deans manage their faculties. As it is, this outcome could suggest that faculties in Kenyan universities are very well managed. However, literature on Kenyan higher education showed that this is not necessarily the case as many perceive adequate leadership as one of the challenges facing Kenyan universities. In this context we should, however, realize that the two observations are not necessarily at odds: because even though Kenyan dean's apparently adopt a master style, they may not actually have the skills and resources to do so successfully.

On the basis of a more nuanced analysis based on a two-step cluster analysis (see section 6.3), we were able to distinguish three leadership styles that characterize leadership by Kenyan deans: (i) the *'people manager style (ii)* the *'performance-driven goal setters style* and *(iii) empathetic pushers style.*

The *people manager style* was demonstrated by 25% of the deans and is based on the *clan* quadrant of CVF which focuses on people leadership functions. Leaders with such a style build trust, belongingness, staff participation and openness. It promotes flexibility, cooperation amongst staff members, concern for people and sensitivity for customers or clients. Leadership in such organizations is expected to create an environment comparable to an extended family where members and clients see each other as partners, where employees share same values, goals and beliefs. Leaders in these organizations have to be supportive, facilitating and mentoring to their staff. With respect to the CVF roles, the deans in this style frequently perform the *mentor* and *facilitator* roles. As mentors, they would have concern and attention for the personal needs of academic staff members of their faculties and also demonstrate explicit attention for the personal development of their staff. As facilitators, they would have a strong sense of community, make staff to feel at home and share with them organizational goals.

The *performance- driven goal-setters style* was exhibited by 43.3 %of the deans. This style has a strong focus on the *market* quadrant of the CVF which emphasizes on control and external focus with performance being associated with directing

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activities. Deans with this market oriented style would be mostly driven by results and competition and would look outwards of their organizations to deal with any external threats. They perceive the external environment as hostile and competitive making them to be hard driving and competitive leaders who hold the faculty together with an emphasis on winning. Deans in this style would typically be *producers* and *directors*. As *producers*, they would focus on results and performance of academic staff and foster a sense of faculty competitiveness to enable them perform better than others. As *directors*, the deans would take a lead in defining areas of responsibility for academic staff and make sure that all staff know the direction, objectives and goals of the faculty.

The third style demonstrated by Kenyan deans is the *empathetic pushers style* which was manifested by 31.7% of the deans. Unlike the first two styles which were based on roles from a single quadrant of the CVF, the deans in this style demonstrate roles associated with two quadrants of the CVF i.e. the *clan* and *market* quadrant. These are actually the two quadrants making up the first two leadership styles i.e. *people manager style* (clan) and *performance-driven goal-setters style* (market). While the first set of deans demonstrate these quadrants separately, the deans who deploy the *empathetic pushers style* combine these two quadrants. This suggests that they frequently perform more roles than the deans in the first two styles. This implies therefore that they have more behavioural complexity than the deans in the first two styles. They can thus lead their faculties in much more multifaceted ways than the deans in the first two styles. It is also notable that the quadrants that are combined by the deans in this style are actually direct opposites within the CVF model. This suggests that apart from having more behavioural complexity, these deans are also good at dealing with contradictions or competing values as these quadrants largely contradict each other in terms of the role expectations on the deans and thus the styles. These deans exhibit the *clan* quadrant emphasizes on flexibility, concern for people, shared goals and a focus on outcomes (i.e. the *mentor* and *facilitator* roles).They also exhibit roles of the *market* quadrant (*producer* and *director* roles). By combining these two quadrants, the deans are indicating that they

are both people oriented, caring while at the same time competitive and pushing for results. They do these by deploying the four roles associated with these quadrants i.e. *mentor, facilitator, producer* and *director* roles. These could be the roles that enable them address the challenges facing their faculties such as funding, quality of programs, capacity challenges, and staff and students' needs. It is thus notable that Kenyan deans lead their faculties by deploying three main styles mainly based on two quadrants (clan and market) of the CVF.

From the above and in regard to our first research question, the key outcome is that Kenyan deans perceive themselves as *master managers* who can balance the eight leadership roles of CVF. However, based on these roles, they demonstrate three dominant leadership styles i.e. the *people manager style,* the *performance-driven goal setters style* and *empathetic pushers style.*

8.4.2   Using the TPB to explain the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans

After establishing the leadership styles of the Kenyan deans, the second research question for this study was to explain why the deans deploy these styles in managing their faculties. As discussed in section 2.2 we used the TPB to explain the leadership styles of the deans. The TPB explains the leadership styles based on *attitudes, subjective norms* and *perceived behavioural controls* of the deans towards performing the styles. Our original assumption however is that with strong attitudes, strong subjective norms and with perception of no barriers, the deans would perform the styles.

Regarding the evaluation of the deans' attitudes towards the three styles, the outcomes presented in Table 6.4 indicate that they had positive attitudes towards the three styles. They however have the most positive attitude towards the *people manager style* followed by *empathetic pushers style*. They have the least evaluation of the *performance driven goal-setters style* suggesting that they would least perform this style. If attitude was the only determinant of behaviour then this would suggest

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that they would perform the styles. This corresponds to our hypothesis that had the assumption that with positive attitudes, deans were most likely to perform the leadership styles. As depicted in table 6.4, they actually demonstrate more positive attitude towards the *director* and *facilitator* roles which are associated with the *people managers style*.

Regarding their subjective norms (see Table 6.7), the deans demonstrated positive evaluation of the three styles. They perceived their important referents to expect them to perform the leadership roles in all the four aspects (quadrants of CVF) of faculty leadership i.e. *hierarchy, adhocracy, market*, and *clan* aspects of leadership. We identified their main referents to be central management, other deans, faculty academics and students. The outcome (see scores on Table 6.7) indicates that the deans viewed these referents to consider the *hierarchy* quadrant to be the most important for managing the faculties. This is followed by *adhocracy*, the *market* and finally the *clan* quadrants in order of strength of subjective norms. By assigning more importance to the *hierarchy* quadrant, they had more positive subjective norm towards leadership that emphasizes on *strong coordination and detailed organization of teaching and research*. The hierarchy quadrant is based on the *coordinator* and *monitor* roles suggesting that the deans had more positive subjective norms towards these roles as they believe their referents expect them to lead in this way. The next is leadership emphasizing *clear vision that embraces innovation and change*. This is within the *adhocracy* quadrant that contains the *innovator* and *broker* roles. They however had the least positive subjective norm towards leadership that emphasize *sense of collectivity with consensual decision making and much personal attention* which falls within the *clan* quadrant. The deans were more motivated to comply with the views of their *students* and *faculty academics* more than with *central management* and *other deans*. Students and faculty academics are therefore important in determining the leadership styles of the deans. The outcome here is that the deans generally had a positive subjective norm towards the leadership styles and would thus be expected to perform the styles based on their evaluation of the expectations of their important referents. It should be noted however (see section 6.5) that in some way,

there is a relationship between subjective norms and attitudes suggesting some tensions or cross-pressures between the two variables. These tensions suggest that subjective norms could thus have an influence on the attitudes of the deans.

The third determinant of the leadership styles of the deans is their *perceived behavioural control* which refers to the extent to which the deans have control of or face no significant barriers or constraints towards performing the leadership styles. Our evaluation of their perceived behavioural controls (see Table 6.9) demonstrated that half of the deans perceived no constraints or barriers towards executing the leadership styles while another half felt some barriers. Based on our model, half of the deans may not be confident enough to execute the leadership roles, even if they had positive attitudes and subjective norms towards those behaviours, due to the perceived barriers. They thus lacked the actual control to perform these behaviours. As shown in Table 6.9, the barriers were mainly related to *poorly developed information systems at the faculty*, *heavy workload*, *strong academic values that obstruct change, insufficient capacity of administrative staff* and *unclear and fragmented authorities within the school*. On the other hand, the ones who feel no barriers have control over the performance of the styles and are thus more likely to perform the styles.

So far, we note that the deans have positive attitudes and positive subjective norms towards the styles. Most of them also have strong perceived behavioural control towards performing the styles. This suggests that they have a strong likelihood of performing the leadership styles.

To determine the extent to which these three determinants of behaviour (attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) determined each of the leadership styles of the deans, we carried out regression analyses i.e. bivariate and multiple regressions. With regard to the master style, the bivariate regression

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showed that attitude explained most of the variance in this style (Adj. R^2 = 0.57) than subjective norm (Adj. R^2 = 0.43) which was also significant. Perceived behavioural control (Adj. R^2 = -0.02) did have a direct effect on the style. The model of the multiple regression explained the style better than the first one (Adj. R^2 = 0.61) but showed a decrease in the strength of both attitude and subjective norms suggesting a relationship between the two variables. This concurs with the postulation by Ajzen and Fishbein (2010) that while conceptually attitudes and social norms explain behaviour, they empirically can be inter-related. An investigation of the possible effect of perceived behavioural controls (as moderator or interaction variable) on the relationship between deans attitude and the master style showed that perceived behavioural control has the theoretically expected positive effect on the relationship between attitudes and the leadership style. This outcome corroborates our expectations from the TPB i.e. the relevance of attitudes and subjective norms as postulated in the TRA and that the effect of attitudes on the leadership style is contingent on the deans perceived behavioural control (see Figure 6.3).

The same steps as above were undertaken for the three leadership styles of the deans. For the *people manager style*, based on the bivariate regression analysis, attitude (Adj. R^2 = 0.32) explained slightly more variance in this style that subjective norms (Adj. R^2 = 0.30) while perceived behavioural controls did not have a direct effect on the style (Adj. R^2 = -0.001). The multiple regression again showed that the model explained more variance in the style (Adj. R^2 = 0.40) than in the first. Again the strengths of both attitude and subjective norms reduced when the two variables were combined in one model. An assessment of the impacts of perceived behavioural control of the deans on the relationship between the attitude of the deans and this style showed that there was no statistically significant effect. This suggests that the (non-) existence of barriers perceived by the deans does not change the effect of attitudes on the *people manager style*. As such, the style is best explained by the TRA model that relies on attitudes and subjective norms.

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The same was done for the *performance-driven goal-setters style* in which unlike in the first two styles, subjective norms (Adj. R^2 = 0.44) explained more variance than attitudes (Adj. R^2 = 0.38). Perceived behavioural control (Adj. R^2 = 0.01) again does not have a direct effect on this style. In this style, when the variables are used separately, the style is explained more by the perception of the deans of the expectations of the important referents i.e. subjective norms. As in the first two styles, the multiple regression model (Adj. R^2 = 0.51) best explains this style. On the assessment of the impacts of perceived bahavioural control on the relationship between attitudes and this style, it is notable that there is a positive effect of perceived behavioural control on this relationship as was expected. The outcome fits the TPB model.

In the *empathetic pushers style*, the outcome of the bivariate regression analysis showed that attitudes (Adj. R^2 = 0.50) explained more variance in this style than subjective norms (Adj. R^2 = 0.42) and that perceived behavioural controls did not have a direct effect on this style (Adj. R^2 = -0.02). The combined model of the regression analysis (multiple) explains the style better (Adj. R^2 = 0.57). The assessment of the effect of perceived behavioural control on the relationship between attitudes and the empathetic pushers style showed that there was the expected statistically positive effect. This style can also be explained by the TPB model.

A key outcome from the above regressions is that the leadership styles of the deans in Kenyan universities is mostly determined by the attitudes of the deans. This means that the deans' leadership styles are mainly based on their personal evaluation of the styles as leading to good or bad outcomes. It should be noted however that subjective norms are also significant in determining the styles but not at the same level as attitudes. It is only in one style (*performance-driven goal-setters style*) where subjective norms have more influence than attitudes. The deans are to some extent motivated to comply with the expectations of their significant

referents, but would rather make leadership choices based on their own personal evaluations. Though they do perceive some pressure from their social environments to lead their faculties in certain ways, this is superseded by their own attitudes. As mentioned earlier in this section, this behavioural complexity is a result of the cross-pressures and tensions that the deans experience in their own role orientations (attitudes) and the effects of the expectations of their important referents (subjective norms).

When we introduced perceived behavioural controls for all the styles, we note that it does not have direct impacts on the leadership styles of the deans. It is thus not significant in explaining the styles. In section 2.3.1, we presented the two ways (direct and indirect) by which perceived behavioural behavioural control could impact on behavior. Although about half of the deans perceive barriers to some extent, this does not prevent them from performing the leadership styles identified in this study. Thus, though barriers may be important, they do not explain the leadership styles of Kenyan deans. Our study however notes that in the case of most styles (i.e. *master style*, *performance-driven goal-setters style* and *empathetic pushers style*), perceived behavioral control has an indirect effect, as a mediating variable in the relationship between attitude and the respective style. It is only in the *people manager style* where we did not find a significant effect of perceived behavioural control on the relationship between attitudes and the style. The relationship is however in the expected direction but is only just not significant.

The positive impact of attitudes on the styles lessens when deans perceive barriers in executing the styles. This impact increases when the deans perceive less barriers in executing the style. We thus conclude that attitude is the main independent variable that explains the leadership styles exhibited by the Kenyan deans. Subjective norms also explain the styles but not at the same level as attitudes. It explains more variance in one of the three styles (*performance-driven goal-setters style*) than attitude. Subjective norms indirectly affect the leadership styles mainly

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through the deans' attitudes. Perceived behavioural control does not have a direct effect on the leadership styles but has some effect on the relationship between attitudes and the styles (except for the people manager style). As such the Kenyan deans deploy the three leadership styles in leading their faculties mainly based on their attitudes towards those styles.

8.4.3   *Leadership styles of Kenyan deans and staff commitment in the faculties*

Finally, we assessed the impacts of these leadership styles of the deans on staff commitment in their faculties. We relied on the Three Component Model of Commitment (TCM) which views organizational commitment as composed of three aspects i.e. the *affective*, *continuance* and *normative* commitment. Our expectation based on the characteristics of the styles (see section 7.1) was that the *people manager style* would lead to *stronger* commitment of staff while the *performance-driven goal-setters style* would lead to the least commitment. The outcomes were consistent with this expectation. Of the three leadership styles, the *people manager style* has the best impacts on commitment while the *performance-driven goal-setters style* has the least. The deans who deploy the *people manager* style evoke higher levels of commitment in their staff than the deans who deploy the *performance-driven goal-setters* and the *empathetic pushers style.*

The deans who lead their faculties based on the leadership styles associated with the *clan* quadrant (i.e. the people managers and the empathetic pushers) seem to attain the best outcomes on staff commitment in their faculties. These outcomes are in tandem with the expectations that we developed at the end of chapter 3 based on literature on leadership within universities as collegial organizations. We discussed *transformative leadership* that relates closely to the mentoring and facilitator roles associated with the *clan* quadrant. The *clan* quadrant is the one characterizing the *people manager style* which in our study, results into highest levels of commitment from staff. The people manager style seem to depict the characteristics of leadership in self-governing organizations where leadership is viewed as an emergent property of the group based on concerted action which is a product of conjoint activity. In such organizations people work together, pool their expertise

and initiative and the outcome is always greater than the sum of their individual actions.

The *people manager* style that leads to higher staff commitment thus relates to the characterization of universities as collegial organizations that emphasize non-hierarchical, co-operative decision-making with a staff viewing themselves as a community of equals. The model is seen as more human, accommodative, gives personal attention and calls for more professional freedom, consensus and democratic consultation. The leader is expected to be collegial, listening, less to commanding consultative and attending to needs of staff. These characteristics are similar to those of the clan quadrant where this style falls. They also fit well with our characterization of leadership in African contexts where we viewed leadership as generally consensual. These are therefore the organizational characteristics that elicit the most commitment from faculty staff in Kenyan universities.

The deans who lead based on roles combining market and clan quadrants i.e. the *empathetic pushers style*, elicit commitment levels stronger than in the *performance-driven goal –setters style* but not as much as the stronger levels of commitment in the *peoples managers style*. It would seem then that leadership styles that focus more on the market model do not result into very strong commitment of staff in Kenyan universities (compared to styles that focus on the clan model). These styles, as already discussed, emphasize on competition and winning in the market. It is however noted that deans perceive their faculty staff to expect them to lead with more focus on the market, but this turns out not to lead to high levels of commitment in the staff compared to the other two styles, particularly concerning affective commitment. Leadership behaviours associated with market tendencies are not very popular with the faculty staff. Interestingly, table 6.6 shows that the deans perceive faculty academics to prefer leadership that emphasizes the market component. This could suggest that, in the eyes of the deans, though staff would

desire the market component, when it is utilized in managing the faculty, it does not lead to enhanced commitment.

8.5   Some reflections for further research

This study has made several revelations into faculty leadership in Kenyan universities. As stated in the problem statement, not many studies have addressed this important aspect of higher education in Kenya. While that makes this study quite significant, it also points out that more research and reflections still needs to be done on deanship in Kenyan universities and even in other African contexts. Deans are increasingly becoming important in most aspects of university lives. One of the areas that could benefit from further exploration regards the theoretical approach used in the study. The Theory of Planned Behaviour which this study adopted is a robust theory which has been used extensively with much success in such studies. The theory is however not extensively used in African contexts. This meant that not much of the literature to support the deployment of this theory came from studies from Africa. While this is not theoretically problematic, it might have given much more theoretical relevance to the study.

Even though one of our key findings is that leadership styles of deans are more dependent on their attitudes than their subjective norms, it could be possible that subjective norms also play an important role in determining the leadership styles of the deans. This is mostly due to the important role of context and social dimensions in leadership in communal set ups such as is in Kenya. Subjective norms could have more impacts on determining the leadership styles of deans than reported. Since deans lead mainly according to the clan quadrant which is mainly people leadership, this suggests that deans would mostly lead according to the wishes of their key constituents. This could be more so in an African context where leadership is more consensual than personal as it looks from this study. Further research could also explore how leadership styles in combination with other factors, could impact on performance. While the different styles lead to different

impacts on commitment, it would be useful to further investigate how these levels of commitment relate to faculty performance.

In our methodology, we mainly relied on self-reports by the deans on our survey questionnaires. We already noted in section 4.3.2 some of the shortcomings of self-reports and also noted that if well undertaken, self-reports could be a very reliable source of data. While there is no much reason to conclude that there could have been many instances of desirability in the reporting, when we juxtapose some outcomes with existing literature, there emerge some disconnects. For instance, the outcomes of the self-reports by the deans indicate that they strive to perform in all the eight leadership roles of the CVF while literature documents that leadership is one of the main challenges facing universities in Kenya. This raises the question if there has not been some kind of wishful thinking when the deans are reporting on their leadership behaviors. Moreover, the many deans report that they face no major barriers in managing their faculties while there is literature documenting inadequate capacities, poor ICT, funding challenges among others which could present barriers to the deans. Obviously a 360 degree evaluation of the deans' leadership, thus including the views of stakeholders such as students and staff alongside the views of the deans, might have solved the 'self reporting' issue. Such an approach is however very challenging and would most likely have led to other issues, for instance, in terms of willingness to participate in this study.

Another area that could need further reflection is the evaluation of the effects of the different leadership styles on staff commitment. Relying on more respondents than the three interviewed per faculty could have been even more useful to the study. In future research the focus might also be shifted to studying effects of managerial leadership styles on objective indicators of organisational performance.

There could also be need for further exploration and interpretation of continuance commitment. This is a theoretically difficult form of commitment because it is based on rather negative state of mind which is different from the other two aspects of commitment. When one stays in an organization due to fear of the consequences of leaving, it might not necessarily denote a high level of commitment to the organization as the theory suggests. One may just have no options and thus stay with the organization due to such situations and not due to commitment. These ambiguities with continuance commitment need further exploration.

The outcome on the leadership styles demonstrate that the deans portray themselves as able to deal with behavioural complexities in managing their faculties. This suggests existence of cross-pressures and tensions between attitudes and subjective norms in determining the leadership styles. The two variables influence each other in some ways such that some attitudes could be as a result of the influence of social norms. In another vein, while attitudes and subjective norms seem to be the most important in determining the styles, perceived behavioural controls, though not having a direct effect on the styles, has some effect on the relationship between attitudes and some of the styles. The way deans perceived possible barriers to their execution of the styles would also benefit from more exploration. This is especially because most literature suggest that deans face several challenges in leading their faculties which could actually present rather enormous barriers to their execution of the styles than they depict in this study.

8.6   Conclusions and implications for faculty leadership in Kenyan universities

Leadership is one of the main challenges facing universities and even other organizations in Africa. Universities in Kenya are going through several transformations and challenges that have lots of implications on leadership. Most

of these are no longer the responsibilities of executive management of the universities but middle management, the position occupied by deans. In recent years, deans in Kenya are increasingly having expanded roles which were traditionally not their purview.

Based on the outcomes of this study, it seems that the Kenyan deans respond to this expansion of roles as they view themselves as *master managers* possessing the behavioural complexity to perform many if not all the roles of the CVF frequently. This could suggest, as we have discussed earlier, that the deans could be trying to do everything (all roles) to enhance their faculties. It would further suggest that deans as middle managers are playing an important role in the success of their universities. However the literature reviewed on Kenyan higher education suggests that the universities are not doing well in several respects, which could be due to weak leadership, or at least it seems at odds with the self-reported master manager leadership style. This could suggest that universities need to develop and shape the leadership capacities of the deans so that they do not do everything (perform all roles) but focus on the roles and styles that would result into more effectiveness for the university.

Arguably, literature on leadership in (traditional) universities suggest the prevalence of leadership roles from the clan quadrant which stresses consensus building in organisations. We see however in our study that the *market* quadrant also emerges strongly in the management of faculties in Kenyan universities, suggesting that a focus on external environment is strongly creeping into the management of universities in Kenya (see Mamdani, 2008). Several recent transformations in the Kenyan higher education sector might explain this (shift in) behaviour by the deans. It was also notable from Table 6.6 that in the eyes of deans staff expect such market oriented styles from their leaders. It is interesting to note that while in the eyes of the deans market-driven leadership is expected from them

by staff, people-oriented leadership styles lead to the strongest levels of staff commitment.

Our study reveals that in Kenya, students and academic staff were viewed by the deans as their main stakeholders whose perspectives mostly influenced the leadership styles of the deans (see the sections on subjective norms as one of the determinants of behaviour). In the deans' perception, university management and other deans are not as important to them as students and academic staff. This sheds an interesting light on the position of deans that has been described as 'being in the middle' of 'being caught between two fires', central management and faculty. Our study suggests that with respect to the deans balancing act, they opt to listen to the faculty and students more than to central management and their fellow deans. In terms of this 'double binding', the bond with faculty stakeholders i.e. students and staff, has to be strong.

On the impacts of the three leadership styles on the commitment of staff in the faculties led by the deans, the study revealed that all the styles led to relatively strong commitment of staff. Even in the challenging contexts in which Kenyan universities operate, it was interesting to note that generally the staff showed a strong sense of commitment. The *people manager style* had the best outcomes on the commitment of staff in the faculties. This is in tandem with our original premise that in the Kenyan context, leadership that focuses on the clan quadrant could lead to better impacts on staff commitment. This could suggest that the institutions could encourage their deans and other leadership positions to embrace this style of leadership for more commitment of staff. If commitment has the implied impacts on performance, then this style could enhance performance of the Kenyan universities.

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Appendices

Appendix A: **Survey questionnaire for deans**

|c|h|e|p|s|

Center for
Higher Education
Policy Studies

Leadership and management in Kenyan universities

Questionnaire for deans of faculties, schools and directors of institutes

in Kenyan universities

PhD research project

Jowi James Otieno

Center for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS)

School of Management & Governance

University of Twente, The Netherlands

The Center for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS) is a research institute of the School of Management and Governance, University of Twente, The Netherlands. It has an international reputation for its cutting-edge research and consultancy in the field of higher education, research and innovation studies. The PhD study by James Otieno Jowi (a lecturer at the School of Education, Moi University, Kenya) is part of one of the key themes of CHEPS' research programme "The transformation of higher education in the knowledge society". This PhD study is supervised by Prof. dr. Jürgen Enders and dr. Harry de Boer both of CHEPS. For further information please consult our website: http://www.utwente.nl/cheps.

This questionnaire contains mainly closed questions. You are kindly requested to tick the appropriate boxes as shown below.

☐ ☒ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

If you wish to correct or alter your answer, shade the wrong box completely as shown below and thereafter mark the correct box.

☐ ■ ☐ ☐ ☒ ☐ ☐

If you cannot respond to a question, please leave the box unmarked.

A few other different questions will have specific details on how to answer.

Your reference number:_002009

This reference number will only be used to identify the respondent in order to send you the research outcomes. After receiving the completed questionnaire, this page will be eliminated. I herewith confirm once more that your

answers will be dealt with confidentially and will neither be made available to any other person or organization nor will the outcomes in my dissertation be linked to particular persons.

Should you have any questions about this research project or this questionnaire please do not hesitate to contact me on otienojowi@yahoo.com or 0721 917 461.

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In the next question some behaviors that a dean might employ are listed. Please indicate how frequently you **actually** *do the following (range from 1 = 'never' to 7 = 'always')*

How often do you as a dean actually:	never			occasionally			always
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- come up with new inventive ideas regarding teaching, learning, research and management matters in the school/faculty/institute	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- protect continuity in the school/faculty/institute's day-to-day operations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- exert upward influence in the university to influence strategic decision making	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- carefully review detailed reports and crosscheck information in detail	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- focus on results and performances of academic staff and foster a sense of school/faculty/institute competitiveness to perform better than others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- facilitate consensus building in the school/faculty/institute's decision making	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

-       define areas of responsibility for academic staff   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

-       listen to the personal problems of academic staff members and make an effort to help them   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

-       minimize the disruptions in daily practices to have an untroubled school/faculty/institute   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

-       experiment with new concepts and procedures   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

-       encourage participative decision-making in the school/faculty/institute   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

-       make sure everyone in the school/faculty/institute knows where the school/faculty/institute is going in terms of objectives and goals   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

-       influence decisions made at higher levels in the university   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

-       carefully compare records, files and reports to detect discrepancies   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

-       see that the school/faculty/institute delivers on stated goals   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

-       show empathy and concern in dealing with academic staff members   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

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- work with technical data and information ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- approach and consult people at the higher levels of the university ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- set clear objectives for the school/faculty/institute and reinforce the vision of the school/faculty/institute's future ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- treat every school/faculty/institute member in a sensitive and caring way ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- keep a close track of what goes on in the school/faculty/institute (using control and monitoring systems) ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- solve school/faculty/institute problems in a creative and unconventional way ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- insist on intense hard work and high productivity and sincerely push the academic staff to meet the school/faculty/institute objectives ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- encourage academic staff members to share ideas with you and with the others ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- search for innovations and potential improvements and encourage others to generate new ideas ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- clarify school/faculty/institute policy priorities and future direction ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- persuasively present new ideas to the central management of the university ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- bring a sense of order to the school/faculty/institute ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- show concern for the needs of academic staff members ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- emphasize the school/faculty/institute's achievements of stated purposes ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- build teamwork among the academic staff members ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- analyze written plans and schedules ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

In running my school/faculty/institute, I think that		at all			some extent			important
		1	2 3	4	5 6	7		
- a good policy network inside and outside the university is …		☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐	☐		
- to the extent possible the standardization of work processes to establish coherence and predictability is …		☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐	☐		
- a strong sense of community, with staff feeling at home and sharing objectives is …		☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐	☐		
- having clear and undisputed school/faculty/institute objectives is …		☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐	☐		
- having concern for the personal needs of academic staff members is …		☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐	☐		
- statistical figures, elaborate documentation and management information systems are …		☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐	☐		
- creative policy making, having guts and being enterprising without fearing too much the consequences in case of 'failure' is …		☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐	☐		

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- academic staff members knowing and accepting the strategic direction and priorities of the school/faculty/institute is ….

☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- pushing academic staff to achieve ambitious, highly competitive school/faculty/institute goals is …

☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- formal rules and policies hold the school/faculty/institute together and that taking formal rules very seriously and doing things by the book is ….

☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- explicit attention for the individual staff members of the school/faculty/institute, his or her personal development and competences is …

☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- detailed monitoring and quality control systems for teaching and/or research is ….

☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- active engagement in formal and informal decision-making at the central level of the university is ….

☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- an ongoing encouragement for change and innovation in the school/faculty/institute, for instance by creating sufficient space and time for brainstorming, is …

☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- scanning of and marketing in higher education and research markets is …

☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

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- high staff commitment through consensus-based decision-making is … ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

To what extent are the views and opinions of …	at all		some extent			important
	1	2 3	4	5 6		7

- the <u>academics</u> of your school/faculty/institute important to you for the way in which you run your school/faculty/institute?   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- the <u>other deans</u> of your university important to you for the way in which you run your school/faculty/institute?   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- the <u>central management</u> of your university important to you for the way in which you run your school/faculty/institute?   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

- the <u>students</u> of your school/faculty/institute important to you for the way in which you run your school/faculty/institute?   ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐

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Below you will find two statements about your school/faculty/institute. For each statement, please divide 100 points among the following four alternatives, depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your school/faculty/institute. Give a higher number of points to the alternative that is most similar to your school/faculty/institute.

My school/faculty/institute emphasizes:

Points

- acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued. ___

- human development, high trust, openness, and participation persist. ___

- performance and stability, efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important. ___

- competitive actions and achievement, meeting targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant. ___

Total number of points   *100*

Success in my school/faculty/institute is defined on the basis of:

points

- having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator. ___

- the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people. ___

- winning in the market place and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is the most important. ___

- efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical. ___

Total number of points   *100*

How important are the following aspects for you in running the school/faculty/institute? (range from 1 = 'not important at all' to 7 = 'extremely important')

In running my school/faculty/institute, …	*at all* 1		*some extent*			*important* 7
	1	2 3	4	5 6		7
Being organized in the most efficient way is …	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐		☐
Compliance with rules and procedures is …	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐		☐
Having high levels of staff participation in strategic decision making is …	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐		☐
Contributing to personal development of staff (alternative: Having loyal and committed staff) is …	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐		☐
Developing plans with original, new ideas and concepts is …	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐		☐
Promoting change within the school/faculty/institute is …	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐		☐
Stimulating the staff's productivity (more/better output) is …	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐		☐
Having explicit policy goals that must be met is ….	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐		☐

Below you will find some eight descriptions of leadership roles, some of which we perceive could match your role. Nevertheless some might still match better than others.

RANK

I am people- and process-oriented. I manage conflicts and seek consensus. My influence is based on getting people involved in strategic decision making and problem solving. I pursue actively staff participation and openness in school/faculty/institute decision-making.

___

I am caring, empathic and aware of the needs of my staff and take care of them. My influence is based on mutual respect and trust. I actively pursue high staff morale and commitment.

___

I am unconventional and creative. I envisage change. My influence is based on anticipation of a better future for the school/faculty/institute and I generate hope in the school/faculty/institute. I actively pursue innovation and adaptation.

___

I am future-oriented in my thinking. My focus is on where the school/faculty/institute is going and I emphasize possibilities as well as probabilities. I spend a lot of time on strategic direction and continuous improvement of school/faculty/institute activities.

___

I am a technical expert and well-informed. I keep track of all details and contribute expertise. My influence is based on information control. I

actively pursue documentation and information management systems.   ___

I am dependable and reliable. I maintain structure and the flow of work. My influence is based on managing schedules and giving assignments. I actively pursue stability and control in the school/faculty/institute.   ___

I am aggressive and decisive. I am energized by competitive situations. Winning is my dominant objective and have a focus on external competitors and the school/faculty/institute's market position. I actively pursue goals and targets of the school/faculty/institute.   ___

I am task-oriented and work-focused. I get things done through hard work. My influence is based on intensity and rational arguments around accomplishing things. I actively pursue productivity in the school/faculty/institute.   ___

In the next questions we would like to know your assessment of the beliefs of academics, other deans of your university and central university management on how you perceive they would like to see the leadership of the school/faculty/institute? (range from -3 = 'very negative' to 3 = 'very positive')

I think that the academics of my school/faculty/institute see …	Very negative		Neutral		Very positive	I don't know
	-3	-2 -1	0	1 2	3	
• strong coordination and detailed organization of teaching and research from school/faculty/institute leadership as ……	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐	☐	☐
• school/faculty/institute leadership that encourages market-driven and results-oriented behavior of academics as ……	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐	☐	☐
• school/faculty/institute leadership actively creating a sense of collectivity with consensual decision-making and much personal attention as …	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐	☐	☐
• school/faculty/institute leadership having clear visions that embraces innovation and change as ……	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐	☐	☐

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I think that <u>the other deans</u> of my university see …	*Very negative*			*Neutral*			*Very positive*	*I don't know*
	-3	*-2*	*-1*	*0*	*1*	*2*	*3*	
• strong coordination and detailed organization of teaching and research from school/faculty/institute leadership as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• school/faculty/institute leadership that encourages market-driven and results-oriented behavior of academics as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• school/faculty/institute leadership actively creating a sense of collectivity with consensual decision-making and much personal attention as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• school/faculty/institute leadership having clear visions that embraces innovation and change as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

I think that <u>central university management</u> sees …	*Very negative*		*Neutral*			*Very positive*	*I don't know*
	-3	*-2 -1*	*0*	*1 2*		*3*	
• strong coordination and detailed organization of teaching and research from school/faculty/institute leadership as ……	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐		☐	☐
• school/faculty/institute leadership that encourages market-driven and results-oriented behavior of academics as ……	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐		☐	☐
• school/faculty/institute leadership actively creating a sense of collectivity with consensual decision-making and much personal attention as ……	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐		☐	☐
• school/faculty/institute leadership having clear visions that embraces innovation and change as ……	☐	☐☐	☐	☐☐		☐	☐

I think that <u>students</u> see …	*Very negative*	*Neutral*	*Very positive*	*I don't know*

	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

- strong coordination and detailed organization of teaching and research from school/faculty/institute leadership as …… ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐

- school/faculty/institute leadership that encourages market-driven and results-oriented behavior of academics as …… ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐

- school/faculty/institute leadership actively creating a sense of collectivity with consensual decision-making and much personal attention as …… ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐

- school/faculty/institute leadership having clear visions that embraces innovation and change as …… ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐☐ ☐ ☐

In the next question some constraints are listed that a dean might face in running a school/faculty/institute. Please indicate the extent to which you believe the statements on constraints are false or true to your situation (range from -3 = 'absolutely false' to 3 = 'absolutely true')

	Absolutely false				Absolutely true	
Within my day to day work as a dean, I face the following items	-3	-2	-1	1	2	3
▪ school/faculty/institute's information systems are not well developed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ academic values in my school/faculty/institute are very strong and are obstructing change	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ there are limited possibilities for me as a dean to make strategic decision at higher management levels	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ the school/faculty/institute culture is at odds with my values and views how to run a school/faculty/institute	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ my administrative support staff has insufficient capacity	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ I do not possess all the skills it takes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ authorities within the school/faculty/institute are	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

unclear and fragmented

- of the size and complexity of my school/faculty/institute ☐ ☐☐ ☐☐ ☐

- my workload is too high. ☐ ☐☐ ☐☐ ☐

- commitment and engagement of the school/faculty/institute academics is low in the sense that they foremost focus on disciplinary rather than school/faculty/institute matters ☐ ☐☐ ☐☐ ☐

- support and resources from central management are sufficient ☐ ☐☐ ☐☐ ☐

Personal background

Are you:	☐ male or ☐ female
What is your year of birth?	_____ *(year)*
Since when have you been in office as a dean?	_____ *(year)*

In which of the following fields have you earned your highest degree (academic background)

Agriculture	Education	Engineering	Health & welfare	Humanities & arts	Sciences	Social sciences	Business and law
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix B: Deans responses to the 32 behaviour statements of CVF

Ranks	Behaviours	Never	Sometimes	Always	Mean	Std. Dev
1	Director-set clear objectives for the school/faculty/institute and reinforce the vision of the school/faculty/institute's future	0	15	85	6.3	0.8
2	Facilitator-facilitate consensus building in the school/faculty/institute's decision making	0	18.3	81.7	6.1	1
3	Mentor-treat every school/faculty/institute member in a sensitive and caring way	0	20	80	6.1	0.9
4	Coordinator-protect continuity in the school/faculty/institute's day-to-day operations	3.3	15	81.7	6.1	1
5	Facilitator-encourage participative decision-making in the school/faculty/institute	0	21.7	78.3	6.1	0.9
6	Director-make sure everyone in the school/faculty/institute knows where the school/faculty/institute is going in terms of objectives and goals	1.7	20	78.3	6.1	0.9
7	Producer-see that the school/faculty/institute delivers on stated goals	1.7	20	78.3	6.1	1
8	Facilitator-encourage academic staff members to share ideas with you and with the others	1.7	21.7	76.7	6	1.2
9	Director-clarify school/faculty/institute policy priorities and future direction	1.7	23.3	75	6	0.9
10	Mentor-show concern for the needs of academic staff members	3.3	20	76.7	6	0.9
11	Producer-emphasize the school/faculty/institute's achievements of stated purposes	1.7	23.3	75	6	1.1
12	Coordinator-bring a sense of order to the school/faculty/institute	5	18.3	76.7	5.9	1
13	Mentor-listen to the personal problems of academic staff members and make an effort to help them	10	10	80	5.9	1.2
14	Mentor-show empathy and concern in dealing with academic staff members	1.7	26.7	71.7	5.9	1.4
15	Broker-exert upward influence in the university to influence strategic decision	5	21.7	73.3	5.9	1

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	making					
16	Director-define areas of responsibility for academic staff	6.7	18.3	75	5.9	1.3
17	Facilitator-build teamwork among the academic staff members	0	31.7	68.3	5.9	1
18	Broker-approach and consult people at the higher levels of the university	5	23.3	71.7	5.9	1.2
19	Innovator-search for innovations and potential improvements and encourage others to generate new ideas	1.7	30	68.3	5.9	1
20	Innovator-solve school/faculty/institute problems in a creative and unconventional way	1.7	30	68.3	5.8	1.1
21	Producer-focus on results and performances of academic staff and foster a sense of school/faculty/institute competitiveness to perform better than others	1.7	31.7	66.7	5.8	1.1
22	Monitor-carefully review detailed reports and crosscheck information in detail	10	16.7	73.3	5.8	1.2
23	Producer-insist on intense hard work and high productivity and sincerely push the academic staff to meet the school/faculty/institute objectives	5	28.3	66.7	5.8	1
24	Coordinator-minimize the disruptions in daily practices to have an untroubled school/faculty/institute	0	40	60	5.7	1.1
25	Broker-persuasively present new ideas to the central management of the university	1.7	38.3	60	5.7	1
26	Innovator-come up with new inventive ideas regarding teaching, learning, research and management matters in the school/faculty/institute	0	41.7	58.3	5.7	1
27	Monitor-analyze written plans and schedules	11.7	18.3	70	5.6	1.3
28	Broker- influence decisions made at higher levels in the university	6.7	31.7	61.7	5.6	1.3
29	Coordinator-keep a close track of what goes on in the school/faculty/institute (using control and monitoring systems)	3.3	41.7	55	5.5	1.3
30	Monitor-carefully compare records, files and reports to detect discrepancies	10	28.3	61.7	5.5	1.2
31	Monitor-work with technical data and information	8.3	35	56.7	5.3	1.3
32	Innovator-experiment with new concepts and procedures	13.3	41.7	45	5.1	1.4

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Appendix C: Subjective Norms of Deans.

Table 1: *Normative beliefs based on the four Leadership dimensions of CVF.*

Q: I think that the academics, the other deans, students, central university management see(s)

Four dimensions	Normative belief items
Hierarchy	strong coordination and detailed organization of teaching and research from faculty leadership
Firm (market)	faculty leadership that encourages market-driven and results-oriented behaviour of academic
Team (clan)	faculty leadership actively creating a sense of collectivity with consensual decision making and much personal attention
Adhocracy	faculty leadership having clear visions that embraces innovation and change

Table .2: *Statements on Deans Motivation to Comply with Important Referents*

Q: To what extent are the views and opinions of …

The academics of your faculty important to you for the way in which you run your faculty?
The other deans of your faculty important to you for the way in which you run your faculty?
The central management of your faculty important to you for the way in which you run your faculty?
The students of your faculty important to you for the way in which you run your faculty?

Equation: *Subjective norm*

$$SN_j = \sum_{i=1}^{3} n_j m_i, \ \ j = 1,2,...4$$

SN$_j$ subjective norms

n$_j$ normative beliefs that some referent j thinks one should engage in the behaviour

m$_i$.....motivation to comply with referent i

Appendix D: Statements on perceived barriers of deans

Q: within my day-to-day work as a dean, I face the following issues:

Faculty's information systems are not well developed.

Academic values (traditions) in my faculty are very strong and are obstructing change.

I have limited possibilities for being engaged in strategic decision making at the central management level.

The faculty culture is at odds with my values and views how to run a faculty.

My administrative support staff has insufficient capacity.

I feel bad when I lack skills to push work forward for better performance.

Authorities within the faculty are unclear and fragmented.

The size and complexity of my faculty*.

My workload is too high.

The academics of my faculty foremost focus on disciplinary rather than a faculty matters.

Support and resources from central management are insufficient*.

NB: Statements marked with * were not used in the analysis (see section 4.6.3)

The calculation is presented in this equation:

Equation: *Behavioural control*

$$BC = \sum_{i=1}^{11} \frac{CB_i}{11}$$

BC   behavioural control

CB_i control beliefs

Appendix E: Interview protocol for staff in faculties led by the deans selected for the case studies

Guiding Questions to Interview Protocol

    A. General Information

- Name…………………………………………………………………….
- University……………………………………………………………..
- Faculty/ Department…………………………………………………….
- Position…………………………………………………………………..
- Length of stay in the faculty…………………………………………
- Date of interview………………………………………………………
- Length of interview……………………………………………………
-

    B. Affective Commitment (ACS) Items

1. *Would you be very happy to spend the rest of your career in this faculty?*

    - *What is the reason for your answer?*

    - *What in this faculty makes you feel that way?*

    - *How satisfied would you be if you were to spend the rest of your career here? What would you achieve?*

2. *Would you enjoy discussing about your faculty with people outside it?*

    - *What would be the main message to others about your faculty?*

    - *Why would you enjoy discussing this with them?*

    - *Why do you think you are in such a situation?*

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- *Do you think other staff would say the same about the faculty?*

- *In your view what would you say about the leadership of your faculty to people outside? Do you have reasons for this?*

3. *Do you really feel as if this faculty's problems are your own?*
   - *Could you expound on your opinion?*
   - *Why do you feel this way?*
   - *What specific attributes/ characteristics of this faculty make you have these feelings?*

4. *Do you think you could easily become as attached to another faculty as you are to this one?*

-Why do you think so?

- If so, how would that faculty be different from this one?

- What are the main things that would motivate you to be (not) attached to another faculty and not this one?

- Do you think managing this faculty in a different way could make the difference? What would be the difference you would like to see for you to be more attached to your faculty?

5. *Do you feel as part of the family in your faculty?*

-What are some of the reasons why you have such feelings?

-Could it in a way be related to the way this faculty is run?

-If not what has been the role of the leadership of the faculty in your current feelings/perceptions?

-What type of leadership do you think could have made a difference?

- If so, what are the main things you like in the way this faculty is run?

6. *To what extent do you feel emotionally attached to this faculty?*
   - *Why do you think so?*

7. *Does this faculty have a great deal of personal meaning to you?*
   - *How do you support your opinion?*

8. *To what extent do you feel that the goals of this faculty are related to your own?*

C. Continuance Commitment (CCS) Items

1. *Are you afraid of what would happen if you quit your job in this faculty without having another one lined up?*
   - *Why do you think so?*
   - *What situation would you desire for you to change an opinion to leave?*
   - *Are you just bound to leave, whatever the case and regardless of what the consequences could be?*

2. *How hard would it be for you to leave your faculty now, even if you wanted to?*
   - *Could you give a reason for your answer?*
   - *In such a circumstance, (if hard) would you still want to leave?*
   - *(If easy to leave) What factors have contributed to your continued stay in this faculty?*
   - *Is the faculty run in a way that makes you feel like (not) leaving?*

3. *To what extent would your life be disrupted if you decided to leave your faculty now?*

    - *Would you then still leave the faculty in these circumstances?*

    - *Would the leadership of this faculty have done anything to change this?*

    - *What could it have been?*

4. *Would it be too costly for you to leave your faculty now?*

    - *Why do you think so?*

    - *If it were not so (or were so), would you have opted to leave the faculty?*

    - *What does it then imply for your further stay in the faculty?*

5. *To what extent is staying with your faculty much of a matter of necessity than desire?*

    - *Could you expound more on this?*

6. *If you were to leave this faculty, how many options do you think you will have to consider?*

    - *Could you tell me more about these options?*

    - *What makes them better than your current option?*

    - *Could you in anyway relate those differences to the management style of your faculty?*

7. *Do you think one of the few serious consequences of leaving this faculty would be the scarcity of available alternatives?*
   - *How do you know this?*
   - *Would you then still consider leaving even in these circumstances?*
   - *What do you think would be the impact of your leaving on this faculty?*
   - *How do you think the leadership of this faculty would react to your leaving? Has it been always concerned about you?*

8. *Is it true that one of the major reasons you continue to work for this faculty is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice- another organization may not match the overall benefits you have here?*
   - *What then are the main advantages/disadvantages of being in this faculty?*
   - *Do you think the leadership is doing its best/ could have done better on this?*
   - *If the leadership is not doing enough what do you think could have been important to include?*

D. Normative Commitment (NC) Scale Items

1. *From your experience, do people these days find it easy to move from one institution to another too often?*
   - *How do you know this?*
   - *How often does it happen in your faculty?*
   - *How would you explain this occurrence?*
   - *Do you think the same situation could be applicable to you?*

2. *Do you believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her institution/faculty?*

    - *Why do you believe so?*

    - *Does it then mean that you are (not) loyal to your faculty?*

    - *What does that mean in your relationship to the faculty?*

3. *Does jumping from institution to institution seem at all unethical to you?*

    - *Why is it so?*

4. *Is one of the reasons you continue to work in this faculty that you believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain?*

    - *If so why are you loyal to the faculty?*

    - *If not, why are you not loyal to the faculty?*

    - *Is there any relationship between this and the way the faculty is managed?*

5. *If you got another offer for a better job elsewhere would you feel it is not right to leave your institution/faculty?*

    - *If it is so, why will you feel it is not right to leave your institution?*

    - *If so, what are these that bind you so much to your institution?*

    - *If you would feel it is right to leave, what would motivate you to leave?*

6. *Do you believe in the value of being loyal to one institution/faculty?*

    - *To what extent is this loyalty?*

    - *What would you do….and what wouldn't you do for your organization?*

7. *Do you think things were better in the days when people stayed in one organization for most of their careers?*

-Do you think this has changed?

- If so, why do you think so?

8. *Do you think to be a "company man" or "company woman" is sensible anymore?*

E. Conclusion

- In five years' time, where do you think this faculty will be?

- What role do you think you will have to play in this?

- Will the faculty environment enable you to realize this?

- Do you have any other things you would like to comment on concerning this interview?

Appendix F: Letter to staff in the selected faculties requesting for interview opportunity on their commitment to the faculty

To: Name of Interviewee

Job position

University

Dear …………. (Name of Participant)

I am approaching you to seek your participation in a study that I am undertaking that concerns the staff commitment in selected faculties in Kenyan universities. I am a staff within the Faculty of Education at Moi University, Kenya. This study will contribute towards the completion of my PhD study at the Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS), University of Twente, Netherlands. Your faculty has been identified as a participant that could assist us with information for this study. I am aware that you could be quite busy but I kindly request that you grant me an opportunity to interview you. This is to enable me get more in depth information on your perceptions on your commitment to the faculty where you work. The interview will be semi-structured. Some guiding questions have been developed prior to the interview and are attached to this letter. However, during the interview there will be an opportunity for more discussions and follow up questions.

The interview should take place between 25th November and 20th December 2014. I will appreciate if you could let me know which date within this time frame would be suitable for you. It will take about thirty minutes of your valuable time. I would like to assure you that your responses will treated with confidentiality and used only for the purposes of this study. If you agree, please sign the attached consent form and send it back to me on jowij@anienetwork.org. You could also reach me on 0721 917 461 for any clarifications needed. I would appreciate if you could let me know the appropriate dates for carrying out the interview. Many thanks for your cooperation.

James Otieno Jowi

Faculty of Education, Moi University

Appendix G: CHEPS letter requesting the participation of Kenyan deans in the study

our reference	C8HdB088
direct number	+31 53 489 3263
email address	cheps@mb.utwente.nl
date	Enschede, …………..

Dean, School of……..
……………… University

Subject   Questionnaire on university middle management

We are approaching you to seek your participation in a study of the Center for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS) of the University of Twente in the Netherlands. It concerns a PhD study on the role of middle management in universities in Kenya and is conducted by James Otieno Jowi, a bright Kenyan doctoral student of our research center, and also a staff member at the School of Education, Moi University, Kenya. His PhD study is part of a large international research project on university management, including Indonesia, Kenya, Macedonia, Canada, the Netherlands and Australia and is supervised by Prof. Dr. J. Enders, Prof. Dr. V.L. Meek, Dr. L.C.J. Goedegebuure and Dr. H.F. de Boer.

CHEPS is a research institute of the School of Management and Governance of the University of Twente. It has a world-wide reputation for its research and consultancy in the field of higher education, research and innovation studies. Jowi's PhD study is part of one of the key themes of CHEPS' research programme "*The transformation of higher education in the knowledge society*". For further information please consult our website: http://www.utwente.nl/cheps.

We are well aware that you are likely to be very busy, but we would be very grateful if you would be willing to complete a questionnaire on university middle

management in Kenya. The questionnaire contains questions about the way you are running your faculty, school or institute and we anticipate that it will take no more than 20 minutes of your valuable time.

We acknowledge the importance of confidentiality and will thus ensure that the information will not be made available to any other person or organization. The research outcomes will nowhere be linked to particular persons (anonymity). Information will be reported with the utmost care not to reveal the identity of each respondent. Of course we would like to send to you the outcomes of our international study in due time.

The success of Jowi's PhD study will largely depend on your participation. Therefore, we would really appreciate your willingness to complete his questionnaire. If you would like to have more information on Jowi's research, please contact him on: 0721 917 461 or email otienojowi@yahoo.com.You may of course also contact us (j.enders@utwente.nl or h.f.deboer@utwente.nl).

Thank you very much for your time and consideration.

Deans in Kenyan Universities: Their Leadership Styles and Impacts on Staff Commitment

Leadership is an important factor in organizational success. This study analyses the leadership styles of deans in Kenyan universities and reveals that Kenyan deans lead their faculties by deploying three main leadership styles: **the people managers style, the performance-driven goal-setters style** and **the empathetic pushers style**. The study also addresses the effects of these leadership styles on faculty staff commitment and demonstrates that the people managers style leads to the best outcome on staff commitment while the **performance-driven goal setters style** has the least outcome on staff commitment. These outcomes are further explained based on some contemporary developments in Kenya's higher education.

|c|h|e|p|s| UNIVERSITY OF TWENTE.