JENNY NGO

HOW DEANS LEAD

AND MANAGE

THEIR FACULTIES

AT INDONESIAN

UNIVERSITIES

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DISSERTATION

to obtain
the degree of doctor at the University of Twente,
on the authority of the rector magnificus,
prof. dr. H. Brinksma,
on account of the decision of the graduation committee,
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by

Jenny Ngo

This dissertation has been approved by the promoters:

Prof. dr. J. Enders

Dr. H. F. de Boer

To all my family, especially to my mother, whose loving-kindness and courage are phenomenal; and to my late father, whose wisdom and patience continue to inspire me to this day.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I can imagine how some may have smiled or even scratched their heads when they read 'lions or lambs' as metaphors for the leadership qualities in the Indonesian deanship styles. In a leadership context, leaders' lion-like qualities symbolise strength, aggressiveness, competitiveness, and clear direction in terms of planning and goal-setting. In contrast, leaders' lamb-like qualities symbolise humility, family-likeness, group orientation, and consensus.

For this dissertation, 'lions' and 'lambs' are the secret codes for the completion of my PhD journey. In the process of writing of this dissertation, I faced difficult and challenging experiences that forced me to act as a lion. In wintry and turbulent times, I had to be strong, courageous, and highly motivated to persevere, write, and complete the dissertation. At the same time, I needed to have a heart full of compassion and to be as patient as a lamb to accomplish my academic goals. By writing the dissertation, I learned how to make my overwhelming challenges part of my glorious life.

It has taken a long time to write this dissertation. The realisation of this PhD thesis would not have been possible without the supervision, encouragement, and support of many individuals and organisations. Therefore, I ask in advance for forgiveness if I miss to acknowledge some people or organisations. I owe you nonetheless.

First, I would like to express my deep appreciation to my promoter Prof. dr. Jürgen Enders and my supervisor Dr. Harry de Boer for their constructive criticisms, fruitful feedbacks, and scholarly guidance. I would like to acknowledge Harry's invaluable advice, unflinching encouragement, and ceaseless support given me throughout the entire years of my PhD journey. I would forever remain grateful for your great contributions. I would like to thank Jürgen, particularly in the final years of my PhD, for bringing more 'spices' to balancing and blending 'flavours' in my dissertation.

It is equally important to extend my gratefulness to all other members of CHEPS who showed me a warm welcome and generous hospitality as part of a big CHEPS family that made me feel like I was home. I thank each and every one of you without exception!

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APBN	State Budget (*Anggaran Pendapatan Belanja Negara*)
BAN-PT	National Accreditation Board for Higher Education (*Badan Akreditasi Nasional*)
BHMN	State-Owned Legal Entity (*Badan Hukum Milik Negara*)
CVF	Competing Values Framework
DGHE	Directorate General of Higher Education (*Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi* (DIKTI))
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HEI	Higher Education Institutions
HELTS	Higher Education Long-Term Strategy
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IPB	Bogor Institute of Agriculture (*Institut Pertanian Bogor*)
ITB	Bandung Institute of Technology (*Institut Teknologi Bandung*)
KOPERTIS	Coordination for private HEIs (*Koordinasi Perguruan Tinggi Swasta*)
MONE	Ministry of National Education
MPR	People's Consultative Assembly (*Majelis Permusyawaratan Rakyat*)
MSAI	Management Skills Assessment Instrument
NPM	New Public Management
OCAI	Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument
RAA	Reasoned Action Approach
SNMPTN	National Entrance Examination for public HEIs (*Seleksi Nasional Masuk Perguruan Tinggi Negeri*)
PASW	Predictive Analytics SoftWare (Statistical Analysis)
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour

UGM   Gajah Mada University (*Universitas Gajah Mada*)

UI   University of Indonesia (*Universitas Indonesia*)

UNAIR   Airlangga University (*Universitas Airlangga*)

UMPTN   Entrance Examination for Public Higher Education (*Ujian Masuk Perguruan Tinggi Negeri*)

UPI   Indonesia University of Education (*Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia*)

USU   University of North Sumatera (*Universitas Sumatera Utara*)

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CHAPTER

Introduction

"It is easier to go down a hill than up, but the view is from the top."
Arnold Bennet (1867-1931)

This study focuses on how deans at Indonesian universities lead and manage their faculties in the dynamic and challenging context of the Indonesian higher education system and its recent reforms. In this chapter, the purpose, focus, and context of the study are described. First, the research questions, theoretical perspectives and conceptual frameworks, and methodology are introduced. Then a visualisation of the dissertation is presented. The chapter ends with an overview of the conceptual terms and definitions used in the study.

1.1   RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Indonesian higher education has experienced significant changes over the last decade. In particular, the Asian financial crisis in the middle of 1997 and the fall of the Suharto government in 1998 have had an impact on higher education. During those periods, it became clear that the government's centralised approach was outdated and needed serious revision. In 1999, the government published an

overall strategy for decentralisation and enhancement of local autonomy in many sectors, including (higher) education. In line with these new policies, the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) issued two new regulations: one related to the changes in the administration of higher education institutions (HEIs) and the other to establish public universities as legal entities called *Badan Hukum Milik Negara* (BHMN). As a result of these new regulations, from 2000 onwards seven public HEIs have become autonomous universities[1], and these HEIs are expected to become more entrepreneurial and innovative. To deal with the globalisation of higher education, the MoNE and the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) produced the Higher Education Long Term Strategy (HELTS) IV for the period 2003-2010. This strategy focuses on higher education issues such as quality and relevance, access and equity, and autonomy and is likely to leave a lasting imprint on Indonesian institutions.

Indonesian higher education institutions need to shift their role from conventional learning institutions to entrepreneurial research-based institutions (De Boer and Goedegebuure 2009). In such a complex and dynamic context, the autonomous universities are encouraged to establish corporate-style governance structures. They are supposed to create new fund-raising systems and to improve their services in order to successfully compete in education markets. Autonomous universities have also become responsible for the appointment of their Rector and personnel. They are also supposed to be more accountable to the public at large.

Private universities have also had to improve their university management (DGHE 2008) in order to compete in higher education markets. These universities have had to work more intensively to find external funding sources and to diversify their existing income streams. In terms of university management, private universities are run as business institutions, although they are subject to government regulation and policy. The reforms encouraged private universities to improve their university governance by strengthening their strategic planning capacity (e.g. increasing the number of undergraduate and graduate programmes) and their human resources (e.g. recruiting qualified academics and skilled non-academic staff).

In short, Indonesian higher education reform has forced both autonomous and private universities to restructure their internal university governance to become

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[1] Autonomous university status means that a university is given the right of self-governance as the Indonesian government increasingly withdraws its public financial support and, in some respects, exits from regulating the internal management and governance of the university (see Chapter 5 for more details).

more entrepreneurial. These new types of internal university governance are likely to affect the institutions' leadership and management.

In line with the new governance of Indonesian universities, faculties are also likely to move in a more entrepreneurial direction. This suggests that, as the head of a faculty, deans are now expected to provide administrative as well as academic leadership, including management of finance, personnel, services and facilities. In contemporary Indonesian universities, deans now have a comprehensive work portfolio in which traditional and new responsibilities are combined. This development has been described in the international literature as a move from being the housekeeper of the faculty to being an executive manager (Wolverton et al. 2001; DiFronzo 2002; De Boer and Goedegebuure 2009; Thomas and Fragueiro 2011). Their new role includes responsibility for:

- identifying new sources of revenue (due to less state support), attracting (more) external funds and, consequently, more collaboration with multinationals, national, and private corporations (Ahmad 2008; Wimbarti 2008);
- developing research programmes (Warsa 2003; Ahmad 2008);
- developing and implementing (new) academic teaching programmes;
- cultivating opportunities for research and student learning (Warsa 2003; Ahmad 2008);
- attracting more students in the global market place as one of the sources of funding (e.g. student tuition fees) and competing with other faculties within and/or outside the university to win block grants (Verheul 2002; Welch 2007);
- facilitating the development of human capital (academic and administrative staff) and physical facilities; and
- engaging in institution-wide decision-making (as part of a university management team).

From this list of responsibilities, deans play a vital role in the university and their functioning impacts on both the faculty and the institution. However, not much is known about how these important players manage their responsibilities or how they run their faculties. This will be the focus of our study. Our objective is, therefore, to investigate and better understand managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities.

Based on this research objective, the main research question of this study is defined as:

What kind of managerial leadership styles do deans at Indonesian universities exhibit? How can these styles be explained?

To answer this main research question, five sub-questions are defined as follows:
1. How do we understand human behaviour?
2. What does leadership and management mean, and which theoretical concept is useful for exploring the management and leadership styles of deans?
3. How do we measure and operationalise the study's conceptual frameworks for empirical analyses?
4. What are the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities?
5. Which factors explain the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities?

1.2   THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

To analyse the main research question in more detail, we first need to find the driving forces behind a dean's managerial leadership style. A style is the way in which something is done, said, or performed. In this study, we see a style as a set of behaviours. The first step is, therefore, understanding human behaviour. What drives a person to act in a particular way?

To explore behaviour and, consequently, managerial leadership style, we use the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980), the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen 1985, 1991), and the Reasoned Action Approach (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). TRA is known as a volitional behavioural model. Theoretically, volitional behaviours refer to behaviours that people perform because they intend to perform them (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980). The volitional behavioural model assumes that individuals intend to perform a certain behaviour when they have a positive attitude towards this behaviour and when they believe that salient others think they should engage in such behaviour. However, not all behaviours are wholly under volitional control. Having a positive attitude and positive subjective norms may not be sufficient reasons to drive a behaviour. Information, skills, opportunities, and other resources are required to perform the behaviour in question. Considering these additional reasons, we also use TPB and RAA to introduce the construct of perceived

behavioural control in addition to the two other constructs: attitudes and subjective norms. These two theories of TPB and RAA assume that individuals intend to perform a behaviour when they have a positive attitude towards the behaviour, positive subjective norms for the behaviour, and strong perceived behavioural control over the behaviour. We present and discuss these theoretical models in Chapter 2.

The next step is to look at management and leadership approaches. What is leadership? What is management? These and related questions are addressed through a literature review of leadership and management publications. Based on this review, we conclude that, for this study, we need not sharply distinguish between management and leadership. Deans both lead and manage. An analytical distinction between the two would not add value and would make our analysis unnecessarily complicated. For this reason, we use the term 'managerial leadership styles'. In the literature, an evolving series of leadership theories exist including great man and trait theories, behavioural theories, situational and contingency theories, and transactional and transformational theories. In Chapter 3, we review these theories and address a variety of management and leadership styles. We argue that, for the purposes of this study, Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Framework (CVF), which classifies eight managerial leadership roles, is the best fit. The CVF is based on two axes: a vertical axis from flexibility to control and a horizontal axis reflecting internal to external focus. These axes create four quadrants, each representing a primary orientation of an organisation (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy). Each quadrant has two managerial leadership roles. The advantage of this framework is that it is comprehensive, widely applied and tested, and seen as one of the major frameworks in the field (Quinn and Cameron 1983; Quinn and Rohrbaugh 1983; Quinn 1988; ten Have et al. 2003 in Cameron et al. 2006).

This CVF is used to operationalise the general behavioural models presented in Chapter 2, and forms the basis of the theoretical framework of this study. The basic representation of this theoretical framework is shown in Figure 1.1.
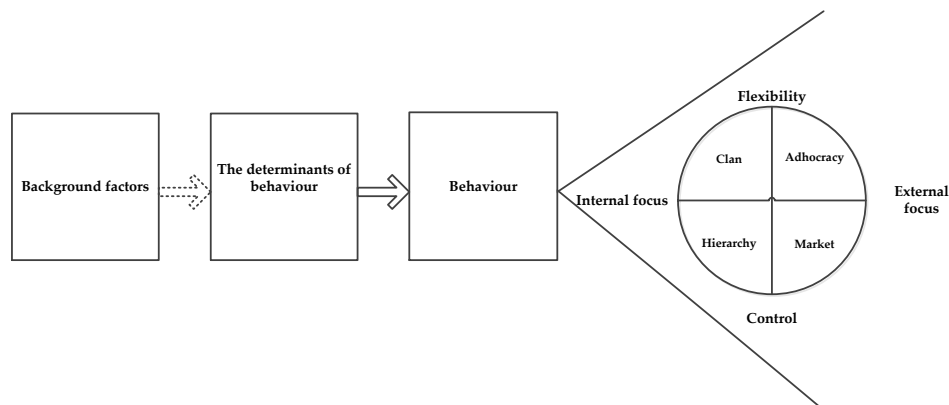
Note: Dotted arrow indicates the possible influence of background factors on the determinants of the behaviour. Solid arrow indicates the direction of influence of the determinants of the behaviour on the behaviour itself.

Figure 1.1   A Basic Representation of the Research Model for this Study

1.3   RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This study combines a number of different methodologies including descriptive, exploratory, and explanatory research techniques. We begin by exploring and describing managerial leadership styles of deans in Indonesian universities and then investigate why deans have a particular style. To collect our data, we developed a written survey to be completed by Indonesian deans, our unit of analysis. This research approach measures managerial leadership behaviour through self-reporting.[2] Although we realise that this way of measuring behaviour may have pitfalls, we argue in Chapter 4 that these pitfalls do not necessarily apply to this study (because, for one reason, the alternative 360 degree approach faces similar problems).

The written questionnaire comprises the key variables of our theoretical framework (such as behaviours, attitudes and subjective norms). Instead of a limited number of in-depth case studies, we chose a widely disseminated questionnaire to generalise our findings and provide a general picture of deans' behaviour. Written questionnaires were sent via post to 443 deans selected via a stratified and simple random sampling technique from an estimated population of 960 deans from 120 accredited universities.[3] A total of 218 completed

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[2] A method which asks respondents to report their own behaviour, feeling, attitude or belief.

[3] See Chapter 4, section 4.2 for more detailed information.

questionnaires were received. This represents 49% of our sample and 23% of the total population. A follow-up questionnaire, consisting of questions about perceived behavioural control, was sent via fax to all 218 respondents. A total of 75 completed follow-up questionnaires were received, representing 34% of the respondents from the first questionnaire. Based on the statistical analysis for both surveys, we conclude that we have a representative sample of the geographical spread in Indonesia.[4]

This study aims to identify managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities. To achieve this, the operationalization of variables in the research model starts from investigating management behaviours based on the CVF. Based on the set of behavioural items, eight managerial leadership roles were classified and measured. As a result from the classification of these roles, managerial leadership styles of deans were identified. Consequently, deans were asked to respond to a set of items that measure management behaviours derived from the CVF. These processes are defined as a 3-1 concept (see Chapters 3 and 4).

This study also focuses on factors that explain the deans' styles. Therefore, the next step is to measure the determinants of styles. According to the theoretical model used for the study, the determinants are attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. To measure attitudes, deans were asked to respond to a set of items that measure behavioural beliefs and evaluation of outcomes. To measure subjective norms, deans were asked to respond to a set of items that measure normative beliefs and motivations to comply. To measure perceived behavioural control, deans were asked to respond to a set of items that measure control beliefs.

Since other factors may influence attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, in our study, organisational culture, management skills, and demographic factors were selected as background factors. In addition, we used the CVF-related instruments to measure organisational culture and management skills. The operationalization of the study is presented and explained in more detail in Chapter 4, section 4.3.

This study employs statistical analysis (PASW 18) for describing and measuring the data. Descriptive and cluster analyses were used to explore and identify the patterns of managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities. Correlation and multivariate analysis, including bivariate and multiple linear regression techniques, were used to investigate the relationships between

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[4] *Ibid*. and see also Table 4.1 for the dissemination of and response to the questionnaires.

variables in the model. Based on Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) volitional behavioural model, the relationship between styles, attitudes and subjective norms was examined. Based on the non-volitional behavioural model (Ajzen 1985; Fishbein and Ajzen 2010), the perceived behavioural control variable was added to our analysis. A more detailed description of our data analysis appears in Chapter 4, section 4.4.

1.4   OUTLINE OF THE DISSERTATION

This dissertation has nine chapters (see Figure 1.2). The first two chapters of the dissertation, after this introductory chapter, provide the theoretical perspectives and conceptual frameworks for the study. Chapter 4 outlines the research design of the study, how the data is collected and analysed, and describes how the key concepts of this study have been operationalised. Chapter 5 provides an introduction to the empirical findings. It presents the context—higher education in Indonesia—within which deans have to function. The next three 'empirical' chapters deal with the findings of this study. In Chapter 6, we describe the behaviours, roles, and styles of deans at Indonesian universities. Descriptive analysis of attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and background factors appears in Chapter 7. Chapter 8 explores, to what extent, the styles presented in Chapter 6 can be explained. Chapter 9 summarises and concludes the findings of this study as well as discusses and interprets the findings of the study from various angles.

| Chapter 1 | Introduction |

Conceptual frameworks

| Chapter 2 | Theory of Reasoned Action |
| Chapter 3 | Leadership and Management |

| Chapter 4 | Design and Operationalisation of the Study |

Research context

| Chapter 5 | Indonesian Higher Education |

Empirical analyses, answering the research questions of the study

| Chapter 6 | Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans at Indonesian Universities |

| Chapter 7 | Descriptive Analysis of Attitudes, Subjective Norms, Perceived Behavioural Control and Background Factors | Chapter 8 | Understanding the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans |

| Chapter 9 | Summary, Conclusions, and Reflections |

Figure 1.2   An Outline Visualisation of this Dissertation

1.5   CONCEPTUAL TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Several conceptual terms are used in this study. An overview of the major conceptual terms and definitions are presented in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1   *An Overview of the Major Conceptual Terms and Definitions*

Concept	Definition
Academic dean leadership	An integration of organisational roles which covers various aspects of leading and managing in simultaneous harmony and tension.
Behaviours	Observable events.
Managerial leadership role	A set of behaviours reflecting one set of managing roles based on the CVF.
Managerial leadership style	A configuration of the eight managerial leadership roles based on the CVF.
Volitional behaviours	Behaviours that people perform because they intend to perform them.
Non-volitional behaviours	Behaviours that people perform when they have positive attitudes towards them and positive subjective norms for them and when they believe that they do have control over them.
Attitude towards the behaviour	The person's judgement that performing the behaviour is good or bad, that guides the person to be in favour of or against performing the behaviour.
Subjective norms	The person's perception of the social pressures to perform or not perform the behaviour in question.
Perceived behavioural control	The extent to which people believe that they are capable of performing a given behaviour and that they have control over its performance.

2

CHAPTER

Theory of Reasoned Action

"Generally speaking, individuals will intend to perform a behaviour when they evaluate it positively and when they believe that important others think they should perform it."
Ajzen and Fishbein (Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behaviour, 1980, p. 6)

The theory of reasoned action (TRA), outlined by Ajzen and Fishbein in 1980, is a well-known and widely-used theoretical framework for predicting and explaining social human behaviour. As we explain in this chapter, it also appears promising for investigating how deans lead and manage their faculties. This chapter starts with Section 2.1 which presents and discusses the TRA in greater detail. Next, Section 2.2 presents and discusses the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen 1985) and the 'latest version' of the reasoned action approach (RAA) (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). Section 2.3 describes and explains the behavioural models of this study. The last section 2.4 summarises and concludes this chapter.

2.1   THE THEORY OF REASONED ACTION (TRA): A MODEL OF VOLITIONAL BEHAVIOUR

In the 1970s, Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen developed a theoretical framework in which human behaviour is explained by the intention to act in a particular way. In proposing that behaviour is under the control of intentions, this model limits itself to volitional behaviours, that is, behaviours that people perform because they intend to perform them (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980). Behavioural intentions are regarded as "the indications of a person's readiness to perform a behaviour" (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 39). Behavioural intentions are, according to the TRA, greatly influenced by attitudes towards personally performing the behaviour and subjective norms towards the behaviour as the proximal cause of the behaviour itself. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980, p. 6) argue that "a person's intention is a function of two basic determinants, one personal in nature and the other reflecting social influence." Theoretically, attitudes and subjective norms influence behaviour by their influence on intentions.

The theory assumes that the relative importance of these determinants, attitudes and subjective norms, differs between people and situations. This means that for some people in some situations, attitudes are more important in explaining behavioural intentions, while for others subjective norms are the most important factor. In some cases, behavioural intentions are mainly based on attitudes with subjective norms having hardly any effect. In other cases, the opposite might be true. There are no general guidelines for the distribution of the weightings.

As depicted in Figure 2.1, the TRA model assumes that (a) volitional behaviour is determined by (behavioural) intention to engage in the behaviour; (b) (behavioural) intention is determined by attitudes towards the behaviour and subjective norms; (c) attitudes towards the behaviour are determined by behavioural beliefs and evaluation of salient outcomes; and (d) subjective norms are determined by normative beliefs and motivation to comply with important referents.
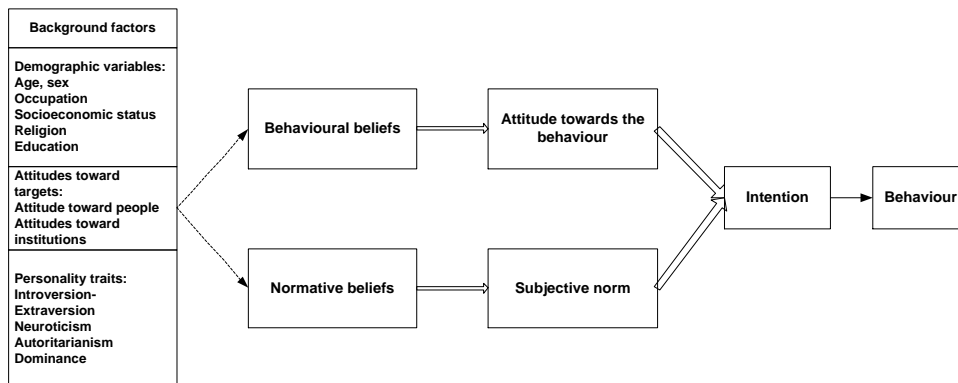
Note: the dotted arrows represent possible explanations for observed relations between background actors and behavioural and normative beliefs.

Figure 2.1   A Representation of the TRA (adapted from Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, Figure 7.1, p. 84)

The TRA is a model of the immediately proximal causes of volitional behaviour that is inherently a reasonable (causal-link) model (Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p. 172). It is known as a model of cognitive processes in which "people *form* their intentions by thinking about their attitudes and subjective norms, *form* their attitudes by thinking about the consequences (positive or negative) of their behaviour, and *form* their subjective norms by thinking about significant others' approval or disapproval of their behaviour" (Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p. 173). The factors mentioned above—beliefs, attitudes, subjective norms, intentions and behaviours—are the key factors in the TRA. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) argue that, background factors only indirectly affect behaviour. The beliefs people have and how they are evaluated could be influenced by background factors (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 224). Thus, while acknowledging that background factors could potentially influence an individual's beliefs, the TRA does not address the origins of these beliefs (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 25). If one wished to investigate the sources that influence beliefs, then such background factors should be taken into account. In the remainder of this section we will address the four main components of the TRA: behaviour, (behavioural) intentions, attitudes, and subjective norms.

Behaviour. The first step in understanding behaviour is to identify the behaviour. But what is behaviour? This simple, but not easily answered, question is important because the identification of behaviour influences the conceptualisations and measurements of the other components of the explanatory model.

Behaviours are observable events (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 29). The key element is action. Conceptually, a behaviour can be defined as either a single act (a specific behaviour performed by a person) or a behavioural category (a set of actions). "A behavioural category differs from a specific behaviour in that its action element is generalised to include an array of different behaviours that comprise or define the behavioural category in question" (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 324). Single actions can be directly observed, whereas "behavioural categories cannot be directly observed. Instead, they are inferred from single actions assumed to be instances of the general behavioural category. Dieting (a behavioural category), for instance, must be inferred from such behaviours as eating, drinking, or taking diet pills" (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, p. 31). To identify an action more precisely, Fishbein and Ajzen also argue that it is useful to distinguish three other elements with respect to behaviour: target, context and time. In our study, for instance, a dean negotiates (action) a contract (target) with the university's executive board (context) in the last month of the year (time). This refers to a single action of a dean which can be directly observed, while brokering refers to a behavioural category in which one of the actions is negotiating.

In defining a behaviour, Fishbein and Ajzen (2010, p. 30) also suggest that "each of a behaviour's four elements—action, target, context and time—can be defined at various levels of generality or specificity." As mentioned earlier, theoretically behaviours can be defined at the most specific level as a single action. Behaviours can also be defined at the most general level as a behavioural category, for example 'brokering' (action) and "it is possible to generalise target and context to the point where these elements are left unspecified, and the time element can also be left unspecified by considering, for example, whether a person ever performed the action under consideration" (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 38). Regarding brokering as a behavioural category, we can broaden the target (e.g. other kinds of brokering tasks), the context (e.g. with university or company's board) and the time (e.g. years of deanship service).

"No matter how broadly or narrowly a behaviour is defined in terms of its target, action, context and time, the most fundamental question we are trying to answer is why people do or do not perform the behaviour of interest" (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 34). To answer this question, Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) suggest taking into account the varieties of behavioural criteria (dichotomies, frequencies and magnitudes) that may help obtain a suitable measure of a behaviour. For example, we could assess whether a dean did or did not fix a contract with the university's executive board last month (dichotomous criterion); how often a dean fixed a contract (frequency criterion) and how many contracts a dean fixed within a given period of time (magnitude criterion). From this, we can determine

that "a behavioural criterion always involves an action" (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 38). This stipulation is needed as "people sometimes fail to distinguish between behaviours and occurrences that may be the outcomes of those behaviours" (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, p. 29). For example, "losing weight is not a behaviour but a goal that can perhaps be achieved by performing behaviours associated with dieting or exercising" (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 38). Moreover, "goal attainment depends not only on the behaviours performed by an individual but also on other factors that may not be under the individual's volitional control" (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 323). In our example, the dean's negotiation (behaviour) could lead to a signed contract with the executive broad (outcome), but this also depends on the behaviours of the negotiating partners. At the same time, signing a contract is also a behaviour that leads to an outcome (the signed contract). In the next chapter, we describe in detail what kind of behaviour we have investigated in this study.

(Behavioural) Intention. Intentions are indications of a person's readiness to perform a behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 39). It refers to something that people try, plan or are willing to do. Although Fishbein and Ajzen, as well as several other researchers, convincingly demonstrate a high correlation between behavioural intention and actual behaviour, the intention-behaviour relationship is not perfect—otherwise it would not make any sense to separate them. We will discuss this issue in the next section.

Attitudes towards the behaviour. Attitudes towards the behaviour refers to the person's judgement that performing the behaviour is good or bad …" (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, p. 6) that guides the person to be in favour of or against performing the behaviour. In the example of our negotiating dean, the dean has an idea of the potential effects (costs and benefits) of fixing the contract, weighted by his personal beliefs. He may believe, for instance, that the contract will boost his prestige, will financially benefit the faculty, will cause academic resistance in the faculty or will mean a lot of work for him. Some of these effects will be perceived as bad or good, important or unimportant, pleasant or unpleasant. Evaluated together they lead to his attitudes towards negotiating with the executive board.

The TRA quantifies attitudes by multiplying the expected outcomes of the behaviour times the evaluation of these outcomes. Attitudes towards the behaviour in terms of expected outcomes and their evaluations can be expressed in the following equation:

$$A = \sum b_i e_i$$

Where A is the attitude towards the behaviour; b_i is the behavioural belief i; e_i is the evaluation of outcome i.

To explain this equation in detail, we use one of Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) examples as follows. Table 2.1 illustrates a woman's salient beliefs about using birth control pills measured on 7-point scales ranging from -3 to +3. The woman has five expected consequences of using the birth control pills. 'Using birth control pills causes me to gain weight, is convenient, enables me to regulate the size of my family, gives me guilt feelings and regulates my menstrual cycle.' If the woman is extremely certain (+3) that using the birth control pills causes her to gain weight and gaining weight makes her feel quite bad (-2), then this belief has a strength of -6. Based on the results (-6), the woman has a negative belief about using birth control pills causing her to gain weight.

It can be seen from Table 2.1 that the woman's belief is slightly certain (+1) that using the birth control pills regulates her menstrual cycle; however, she sees regulating her menstrual cycle is extremely positive (+3). The result of the multiplication of her belief (+1) and her evaluation (+3) is +3. This means that the woman has a positive belief about using birth control pills and regulating her menstrual cycle. This is calculated for each salient belief and then the outcomes are summed to assess the overall beliefs (positive versus negative) of her attitudes towards using birth control pills. In this example, the woman has a positive attitude towards using birth control pills (with a total of +2).

Table 2.1   *Determining a Woman's Attitude about Using Birth Control Pills*

My using birth control pills	Outcome Evaluations	Belief strength	Products
1. causes me to gain weight.	-2	+3	-6
2. is convenient.	+1	+3	+3
3. enables me to regulate the size of my family.	+2	+2	+4
4. gives me guilt feelings.	-1	+2	-2
5. regulates my menstrual cycle.	+3	+1	+3
		Total	+2

Source: Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, Table 6.2, p. 66

Subjective Norms. Subjective norms refers to the person's perception of the social pressures … to perform or not perform the behaviour in question (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, p. 6). For example, the dean negotiating a contract with the university executive board might believe that the academics of his faculty will strongly disagree with the contract and will not want him to sign. He may also

believe that deans from other faculties do not want him to sign the contract too, while most of the students, he believes, would be in favour of signing the contract. The effect of the dean's perception of the views of others depends on his motivation to comply with these others, as well as his perception of their views. In forming subjective norms, a person takes into account the normative expectations of others who are important to him and not every possible referent will be regarded as relevant or important. What is regarded as salient varies between people, situations and behaviour. For some kinds of behaviour colleagues may be perceived as relevant, while for some other behaviours these referents may be seen as irrelevant.

The TRA weights subjective norms by multiplying the person's perceived opinions of the important referents about performing or not performing the behaviour with the person's motivation to comply with the opinions of the referents. Finally, the product of each normative belief and the subject's corresponding motivation to comply are summed. The relationship between subjective norms and normative beliefs can be shown in the following equation:

$$SN = \sum n_j m_j$$

Where SN is the subjective norm; n_j is the normative belief that some important referent j thinks one should perform the behaviour; m_j is the motivation to comply with important referent j.

To explain this equation in detail, we use an example from Ajzen and Fishbein (1980). Table 2.2 illustrates a woman's normative beliefs about having an abortion measured on 7-point scales ranging from -3 to +3. With respect to having an abortion, the woman could be asked to list referents in response to the following question: If you considered having an abortion, are there any individuals or groups who, according to your view, think you should or should not perform this behaviour?

Table 2.2 shows the woman's normative beliefs for five salient referents. If she believes that her husband feels very strongly (+3) that she should have an abortion and she is strongly (+3) motivated to comply with her husband, then the belief as perceived by the woman will contribute significantly to her perceived subjective norms. This is indicated through a high positive score (+9). Based on her perception of her husband's opinion, the woman has a positive 'push' towards having an abortion. With respect to another referent, her church, she believes that the church holds the opinion that she should not (-3) have an abortion. She is slightly motivated to comply with the church's opinion on this

matter (+1). For this referent, her normative belief is -3. This means that for this referent, she has a negative normative belief about having an abortion. It can be seen from Table 2.2 that she is not at all motivated to comply with her brother and it seems that she does not know what her brother's beliefs are regarding her having an abortion (so this will not impact her intentions). After measuring the perceived beliefs and motivations to comply for all referents, the products are summed to assess the overall normative beliefs or perceived subjective norms. In this example the woman has positive perceived subjective norms about having an abortion (with a total of +3).

Table 2.2   *Determining a Woman's Subjective Norms about Having an Abortion*

Referents	Normative belief	Motivation to comply	Products
My husband	+3	+3	+9
My mother	-1	+1	-1
My church	-3	+1	-3
My brother	0	0	0
My doctor	-1	+2	-2
		Total	+3

Source: Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, Table 6.6, p. 74

2.1.1   Importance of the TRA

Based on their research in the 1960s and 1970s (e.g. Fishbein 1963, 1967), Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) published a book: *Belief, Attitude, Intention, and Behaviour: An Introduction to Theory and Research*. In 1980, Ajzen and Fishbein comprehensively presented and advocated their reasoned action approach in a book titled *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behaviour*. Since their publication, the reasoned action approach "has stimulated a great deal of empirical research; at last count, well over 1,000 empirical papers based on the reasoned action approach have appeared in professional journals" (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. xvii). The approach has been used in a wide variety of disciplinary fields, including social psychology of health and safety, environment, consumer behaviour, social behaviour and personality, marketing, education and health care studies.

Furthermore, the TRA has also been used to investigate, among other things, behaviours with respect to attitudes toward food (Sparks 1994), household recycling and compositing intentions (Taylor and Todd 1995), brand loyalty (Ha 1998), condom use (Sneed and Morisky 1998), hotel marketing strategy (Buttle and Bok 1996), distance education courses (Becker and Gibson 1998), students' intentions to study or not to study science (Stead 1985), business schools'

intentions to offer e-commerce degree programs (Dodor et al. 2007), attitude research in science education (Crawley and Koballa 1994), elementary teachers' beliefs about joining a professional science teachers' organisation (Meadows and Koballa 1993), dental hygiene (Fried et al. 2001), contraceptive behaviour (Doll and Orth 1993), tobacco chewing (Gerber et al. 1988), testicular cancer self-examination (McClenahan et al. 2007), blood donation (Giles et al. 2004), seat-belt use (Thuen and Rise 1994), and voting behaviour (Singh et al. 1995).

Undeniably, Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) model for understanding and predicting a human behaviour has gained credence. It has been widely applied in many fields. Nevertheless, the various components of the model deserve further attention. The model has also been subject to criticism. In the next subsection, we will address the various components in greater detail. First, we address the relationship between intention and behaviour. Does intention really explain behaviour as the theory suggests? Second, we take a closer look at the effects of attitudes and subjective norms upon intentions (and indirectly upon behaviour).

Intention and Behaviour Relations
The relation between intention and behaviour, a key relationship in the TRA, has been widely investigated . Considerable evidence in support of the good relation between intention and behaviour has accumulated in a variety of empirical studies (see Table 2.3). Ajzen and Fishbein (1973) reviewed 10 empirical tests, finding that the correlation between behavioural intention and behaviour ranged from 0.211 to 0.970 (based on Table 1, p. 45). Sheppard et al. (1988) examined the

Table 2.3   *Empirical Studies Showing Good Relations Between Intention and Behaviour, Between Attitude, Subjective Norm and Intention*

Empirical Meta-Evaluation and single Studies Showing Good Relations			
Researcher	*Topic of study*	*Intention-behaviour relations*	*Attitude + subjective norm-intention relations*
Ajzen and Fishbein (1973)	A detailed review of 10 empirical tests of the theory.	The correlation between behavioural intention and behaviour ranges from 0.211 - 0.970, $p < 0.01$ (based on the data presented in Table 1, p. 45).	"The multiple correlation of attitude toward the act, and normative component, on behavioural intentions in these 10 studies was 0.808. It is obvious therefore, that the theory provides highly accurate predictions of behavioural intentions" (p. 49).
Sheppard et al. (1988)	The theory of reasoned action: A meta-analysis of 87 past research studies.	"Based on the data presented in Table 1 (p. 332), a frequency-weighted average correlation for the I-B relationship was 0.53. This correlation is based on 87 separate studies with a total sample of 11,566 and is significant at the 0.01 level" (p. 336).	"Based on the data presented in Table2 (p. 334), a frequency-weighted average correlation for A+SN-I relationship was 0.66. This correlation is based on 87 separate studies with a total sample 12,624 and is significant at the 0.001 level" (p. 336).
Van de Putte (1991) (in Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p. 176)	A meta-analysis based on 113 articles.	"His mean *r* for predicting behaviour from intention was 0.62."	"His mean *R* for predicting intention from attitude and subjective norm was 0.68."
Albarracin et al. (2001)	A meta-analysis of condom use.	"The weighted mean correlation between intention and future behaviour was 0.45" (p. 156).	"In the current meta-analysis, the multiple correlation coefficient when regressing intentions on attitudes and norms was 0.70" (p. 157).
Pomazal and Jaccard (1976)	Testing blood-donating behaviour.	The intention-behaviour correlation was 0.59 (based on the data presented in Table 1, p. 322).	"The multiple correlation of attitude toward the act and social norm with behavioural intention was also highly significant ($R = 0.53$, $p < 0.01$)" (p. 322).
Fishbein and Stasson (1990)	Predicting training session attendance.		The motivation (intention) to attend training was predicted accurately from attitudes and subjective norms ($R = 0.76$, $p < 0.001$).
Bagozzi et al. (1992)	Predicting consumer's coupon usage.	"The direct effect of I on B was positive and significant ($\beta = 0.47$, $t = 5.80$) which is consistent with the theory of reasoned action" (p. 513).	"The standardized coefficient is positive and significant for the A-I ($\beta = 0.48$, $t = 5.58$)" (p. 512). "Furthermore, the direct effect of A on B was also positive and significant ($\beta = 0.22$, $t = 2.41$)" (p. 513).
De Boer (2003)	Predicting behaviour of academics.	A strong causal positive relationship between intention and behaviour ($R^2 = 0.59$).	Intentional behaviour explained by attitude and a 'third, research specific variable', and to a lesser extent by perceived subjective norms.

effectiveness of the behavioural models by a meta-analysis in which they looked at 87 studies. The outcomes of their meta-analysis support the contention that intentions are strong predictors of behaviour. Other studies on the TRA also confirm this intention-behaviour relation (e.g. Albarracin et al. 2001; Van den Putte 1991 in Eagly and Chaiken 1993; De Boer 2003; Bagozzi et al. 1992; Fishbein and Stasson 1990; Pomazal and Jaccard 1976).

While many studies demonstrate a strong link between intention and behaviour, other research projects suggest that the relation between intention and behaviour is (very) weak (see Table 2.4). Based on several studies in the field, Wickler (1969, cited in Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p. 156) concluded that at best a weak relation exists between intention and behaviour. Others, such as McQuarrie and Langmeyer (1987) and Gooding (1994), drew the same conclusion: if there is a relationship there is only a weak link between intention and behaviour. In their study of predicting consumer spending on home computers, McQuarrie and Langmeyer (1987, p. 157) concluded that "intentions are incapable of serving as proxies for future behaviour." Gooding (1994, p. 276) also pointed out that the relation between consumers' hospital choice intentions and actual choice behaviour is weak.

Table 2.4   *Empirical Studies Showing Weak Relations Between the Intention and Behaviour, Between the Attitude, Subjective Norm and Intention*

Empirical Meta-Evaluation and Single Studies Showing Weak Relations			
Researcher	*Topic of study*	*Intention-behaviour relations*	*Attitude + subjective norm-intention relations*
Wicker (1969), (in Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p. 156)	A review of 42 experimental studies of attitudes and behaviours.		"…the correlation between attitude and behaviour was as high as 0.30. The average correlation appeared to be about 0.15."
McQuarrie and Langmeyer (1987)	Predicting consumer spending on home computers.	"The conclusion of this study is that verbally expressed intentions are of limited usefulness in predicting subsequent behaviour at the individual level. Certainly they are incapable of serving as proxies for future behaviour" (p. 157).	
Gooding (1994)	Predicting hospital choice behaviour.	"… and their expressed intentions regarding future hospital choice for that same level of treatment indicates the weakness of the link between intentions and actual behaviour" (p. 276).	

There are some explanations for the occasional weak relation between intention and behaviour. First, time, or timing, can play a role, for example, intentions may change before they have led to the intended behaviour. This means that the time period between intention and behaviour needs to be as short as possible. Second, the strength depends on the correspondence between intention and behaviour and stability of the intention. If there is no or hardly any correspondence (e.g. specific intentions predicting general behaviour) the link between the two can be insignificant. Finally, particular barriers may prevent the transformation from intention into behaviour. We will address this last issue when we present the extended model of the TRA.

To summarise, without downplaying the outcomes of studies that question the correlation between intentions and behaviours, we believe that a large number of evaluations and empirical studies demonstrate convincing support for the assumption that intention predicts behaviour well, particularly if we take disturbing factors such as time, correspondence, and barriers into account.

Attitudes, Subjective Norms and Intention (Behaviour) Relations

Do attitudes and subjective norms affect intentions? Many studies in various fields have been conducted to measure the relation between attitudes, subjective norms and intentions (see Table 2.3). Sheppard et al. (1988) evaluated the relations between attitudes, subjective norms and intentions, looking at 87 studies. The results of this meta-evaluation show a significant relationship between attitudes, subjective norms and intention. Ajzen and Fishbein (1973, p. 49) reported on a review of 10 empirical tests that attitudes and subjective norms are good predictors of intentions ($R = 0.808$). Albarracin et al. (2001, p. 157) conducted a meta-analysis on condom use and the results indicated that there is a significant relationship between attitudes, subjective norms and intentions ($R = 0.70$). Another evaluation study by Van den Putte (1991, in Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p. 176), based on 113 TRA-articles, also indicated that attitudes and subjective norms predict intentions ($R = 0.68$). Other studies by De Boer (2003), Bagozzi et al. (1992), Fishbein and Stasson (1990), and Pomazal and Jaccard (1976) also support the suggestion that attitudes and subjective norms are good predictors of intentions.

Much more research on the attitude, subjective norm-intention relation has been conducted within the TRA, for example, research on condom use among Filipina commercial sex workers (Sneed and Morisky 1998); on brand loyalty (Ha 1998); on cheating behaviour in college (De Vries and Ajzen 1971); on ethical decision making and computer use (Loch and Conger 1996); on moral behaviour (Vallerand et al. 1992); and on union formation intentions (Billari and Philipov

2005). The findings are supportive of the theory indicating that attitudes and subjective norms predict intentions.

Since nothing is perfect, there are also some studies that contest the validity and consistency of the relationship between the two predictors (attitudes and subjective norms) and behaviour. La Pierre's classic study (1934 in Eagly and Chaiken 1993) investigated the relationship between attitudes and behaviour. La Pierre and his two Chinese students visited 251 hotels and restaurants and asked for service. In only one case they were refused service. Six months later, he sent a questionnaire asking "will you accept members of the Chinese race as guests in your hotels and restaurants?" From 128 replies, 92 per cent of the restaurants and 91 per cent of the hotels answered negatively. The study indicates that people's verbal report of their attitudes might not be a very good predictor of their actual behaviour. A meta-analysis study conducted by Wicker (1969) reviewed 42 experimental studies that assessed attitudes and then included an observation of related behaviours (see Table 2.4). Wicker (1969 cited in Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p. 156) found that "the average correlation between attitude and behaviour appeared to be about 0.15 (low or weak)."

Taking these notions into account, most of the studies mentioned in this subsection support the claim of the TRA that attitudes and subjective norms are good explanatory variables for behavioural intentions. However, the TRA has attracted other criticisms over the years. In the next section, we will deal with these criticisms.

2.1.2   Criticisms of the TRA

There are two categories of criticism of the TRA. First, there are general critical comments. Second, there are criticisms of the completeness of the TRA, which suggest that other variables should be taken into account to explain intentions and behaviours.

We will first deal with the general criticisms. The underlying behavioural assumptions of the TRA have been questioned. The TRA presumes that people are able to cope with lots of information. It suggests a calculative mode of human operation. But there are often limits to people's capacity for information handling. People do not establish attitudes based on complete information, but rather on a limited number of relevant factors. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) agree with the concept of limited information capacity and argue that people establish their attitudes based on their most important beliefs (salient beliefs) and that this does not undermine the logic of the TRA. Another general criticism is of self-reported

behaviour. Obviously self-reported behaviour may be different from actual behaviour, particularly when reporting socially sensitive behaviours. If the behaviour is not socially sensitive, there are no obvious reasons to assume there will be a discrepancy between self-reported and actual behaviour. We think that leadership and management of faculties is not a sensitive issue, although self-assessment of one's performance is likely to differ from peer-review of that performance (see Chapter 4).

Besides these general critical remarks on the TRA, there have been many attempts to expand the theory by adding variables. Table 2.5 lists some of the criticisms of the TRA, many of which question the limited number of variables used. Each of these criticisms will be discussed.

Schwartz and Tessler (1972) argued that perceived moral obligation, representing people's personal beliefs about right and wrong, should be included in the model. They assumed that measuring personal moral obligation along with attitudes and subjective norms can improve the prediction of behaviours. Instead of having two determinants, they propose using these three determinants to explain behaviour. Gorsuch and Ortberg (1983, p. 1025) also argued that it makes sense to incorporate moral obligations as a separate explanatory factor in the TRA. It is because moral obligations are more highly correlated with intention than attitudes and social norms. "Originally, Fishbein included a moral value component (measured as a "perceived moral obligation" to behave in a certain way) along with attitudes and social norms to predict intentions (Fishbein 1967). Subsequently, this component was dropped from the model because it was supposedly only an alternative measure of intention (Ajzen and Fishbein 1970)" (Ortberg et al. 2001, p. 490).

Other researchers suggested that self-identity should also be used as a variable for explaining or predicting intention (Biddle et al. 1987; Charng et al. 1988; Granberg and Holmberg 1990). Bentler and Speckart (1979) indicated that past behaviour can directly explain future behaviour and should also be an explanatory variable. Triandis (1977, 1980) suggested that habits and behavioural intention explain behaviour. Liska (1984) also challenged the volitional nature of the behavioural model by arguing that the TRA limits its model to simple actions like voting, church attendance and so on. She believes the TRA has difficulties in predicting behaviours that require resources, cooperation or skills. As discussed earlier, Sheppard et al.'s (1988) meta-analysis of 87 studies proved that intentions, attitudes and subjective norms are good predictors of behaviour. They, however, found that the predictive ability of the theory of reasoned action is limited if the behaviour is not under full volitional control.

Table 2.5   *Criticisms of The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA)*

Criticisms of TRA		
Researcher	*Proposals of additional variable(s) in the TRA model*	*Description*
Schwartz and Tessler (1972)	Personal beliefs.	"…that it is a mistake to drop personal normative beliefs from the model, … The performance of the model as a mediator of external variables in the current study did little to support its sufficiency" (p. 235).
Gorsuch and Ortberg (1983)	Moral obligation.	"… the moral obligation component significantly predicted behavioural intentions" (p. 1026). Based on the data presented in Table 1 (p. 1027), the correlation of moral and intention on tax refund is 0.20 ($p < 0.001$) and on Sunday service is 0.07 ($p < 0.001$).
Biddle et al. (1987)	Self-identity.	"… it does seem clear that for some issues, samples and types of behaviour, both understanding and predicting of behaviours will be improved by models that take account of preferences, own norms, self-identities and intentions" (p. 336).
Granberg and Holmberg (1990)	Self-identity and prior behaviour.	"Given our results, we feel confident that self-identity and prior behaviour do not only exert an effect on behavioural intention but also affect behaviour directly" (p. 52)
Bentler and Speckart (1979, 1981)	Past behaviour.	"It is clear that attitudes and past behaviour account for a highly significant degree of variability in drug consumption behaviour of young adults …" (1979, p. 461).
Triandis (1977, 1980)	Habits.	"In Triandis's model, behaviour is a joint outcome of behavioural intention and habit" (in Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p. 180).
Liska (1984)	Restriction of the model to volitional behaviour.	The model excludes behaviours that require "skills, abilities, opportunities and the cooperation of others" (p. 63). "… research suggests that intention is not a necessary and sufficient cause of behaviour. People frequently do not do what they intend to do, but are constrained by a lack of resources and opportunities" (p. 71)
Sheppard et al. (1988)	Limitation of the model to volitional behaviour.	"Therefore, actions that are at least in part determined by factors beyond individuals' voluntary control fall outside the boundary conditions established for the model. Whenever the performance of some action requires knowledge, skills, resources, or others' cooperation, or necessitates overcoming environmental obstacles, the conditions of the model cannot be met. In such cases, the person may not be able to perform the action, even if the intention to do so is strong" (p. 326).

Experiences, previous behaviours, and habits are likely to have an impact on behaviour. Fishbein and Azjen (1975, p. 15) agreed on this, but argued that such experiences have an impact on peoples' cognitive maps (learning). Knowledge is (partially) based on experience. They, therefore, play a role in a person's belief system and are already part of the TRA. They are embedded in a person's views, beliefs and evaluations. Based on this argument, they see no reason to add a variable such as previous behaviour or habits to the TRA.

We also believe that there is no reason to have moral obligations as a separate variable. We would argue that such obligations are part and parcel of a person's attitudes and subjective norms. In the evaluation of beliefs, for instance, a person is likely to use his moral views and judgments. If we were investigating a moral situation (Gorsuch and Ortberg 1983), it might be useful as a variable. Since we believe this is not the case in our study, we will not use moral obligations as a separate variable.

Finally, we agree with the suggestion that the TRA is not complete as long as it focuses just on behaviour under volitional control. It seems right to assume that resources are required to convert intentions into actual behaviour or that barriers may prevent such a conversion. The capacity to convert intention into behaviour depends basically on two things: the competency of the person and the barriers in the person's environment. To question the idea of behaviour being under volitional control, Ajzen (1985) and Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) have developed an extended model of the TRA. This model will be described in the following section.

2.2 THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR AND REASONED ACTION APPROACH: A MODEL OF NON-VOLITIONAL BEHAVIOUR

In the previous TRA section, we discussed the two major determinants of intentions and behaviours: attitudes towards the behaviour and perceived subjective norms. However, these two determinants may not sufficiently explain people's intentions to perform a specific behaviour where the behaviour is not under complete volitional control. Ajzen (1985) proposed adding one determinant, perceived behavioural control, to attitudes and subjective norms. This approach is called the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) which substantially extends the Ajzen-Fishbein model of TRA. The TPB model is, therefore, known as a model of non-volitional behaviour. That is, behaviours that people perform when they have positive attitudes towards them and positive

subjective norms for them and when they believe that they do have control over them. Lately, Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) have reconciled their different models and published their third joint book entitled *Predicting and Changing Behaviour: the Reasoned Action Approach* long after their 1980 book, *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behaviour*. In their new book, they describe the current status of their theoretical approach which comprises three main determinants: attitudes towards the behaviour, perceived subjective norms and perceived behavioural control to explain behaviours of interest. In addition to attitudes and perceived subjective norms, they have an extra major determinant: perceived behavioural control. They call their new approach reasoned action approach (RAA).

Both TPB and RAA assume that "once attitudes, perceived norms, and perceived behavioural control have been formed they are directly accessible and available to guide intentions and behaviour" (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 21). The following Figure 2.2 illustrates the TPB and RAA.
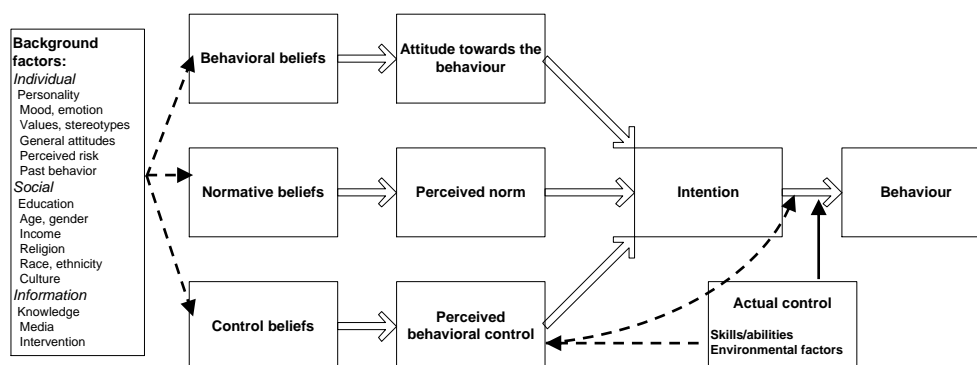
Figure 2.2 A Representation of the TPB and RAA (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, Figure 1.1, p. 22)

In a slight change from the conceptual model of the TRA, the TPB and RAA suggest that "intention is the best single predictor of behaviour but it is also important to take skills and abilities as well as environmental factors (i.e. behavioural control) into account" (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 21). People are assumed to perform a behaviour because they have positive intentions to do so, they have the skills and ability to perform the behaviour and they face no environmental constraints that prevent them from carrying out their intentions. Figure 2.2 indicates that people will intend to perform a behaviour (and thus perform it) if they have positive attitudes towards the behaviour, they perceive

social pressure to engage in the behaviour and they believe that they have control over performing the behaviour. The TPB and RAA also acknowledge the potential importance of background factors that may or may not influence behavioural, normative, and control beliefs. Whether particular background factors do or do not affect a given belief is an empirical question. However, the theories suggest that by identifying the origins of these beliefs, we can conceptually deepen our understanding of a behaviour's determinants. In the previous section, we have already discussed the two predictors of intention and behaviour: attitudes and subjective norms. Therefore, in the following subsection we will explain the third determinant, perceived behavioural control, and its role in the model in more detail.

2.2.1   Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC)

Perceived behavioural control (PBC) is defined as "the extent to which people believe that they are capable of performing a given behaviour, that they have control over its performance" (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, pp. 154-155). It is theoretically explained by control beliefs which have to do with the perceived presence of factors that may facilitate or impede performance of a behaviour (Ajzen 1985; Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). "These control beliefs may be based in part on past experience with the behaviour, but they will usually be influenced by second-hand information about the behaviour, by the experiences of acquaintances and friends, and by other factors that increase or reduce the perceived difficulty of performing the behaviour in question" (Ajzen 1991, p. 196). According to the theories, "perceived behavioural control is assumed to take into account the availability of information, skills, opportunities, and other resources required to perform the behaviour as well as possible barriers or obstacles that may have to be overcome" (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 155). Conceptually, "the more resources and opportunities individuals believe they possess, and the fewer obstacles or impediments they anticipate, the greater should be their perceived control over the behaviour" (Ajzen 1991, p. 196). Theoretically, this construct of perceived behavioural control is similar to Bandura's concept of self-efficacy. Bandura's (1997, p. 3 cited in Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 155) "perceived self-efficacy refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments."

The framework proposes that perceived behavioural control may influence behaviour in two ways (see Figure 2.2). First, perceived behavioural control influences behavioural intention to perform the behaviour of interest (shown by the solid arrow in Figure 2.2). The model assumes that "people intend to engage

in behaviours to the extent that they believe that they have control over them, that is, to the extent they have confidence in their ability to perform the behaviour" (Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p. 187). Second, perceived behavioural control may also have a direct impact on the behaviour (shown in the dotted arrow in Figure 2.2). "Concerning the direct link between control and behaviour, Ajzen maintained that it is actual control, not perceived control, that is most relevant. Actual control, which encompasses factors such as availability of opportunities and resources that are prerequisites for engaging in the behaviour, is distinguishable from perceived control because an individual's perceptions of control may not be entirely accurate" (Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p. 187). For example, a dean may perceive a good deal of control over the signing of a new contract but he may be unable to perform the behaviour because of the disapproval of the executive board. The disapproval is seen as the actual control.

Since it is very difficult to assess actual control over the behaviour of interest or what constitutes it, Ajzen (1985) and Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) use perceived behavioural control as "a proxy for actual control" and argue that "it is possible that people's perceptions of their control over a behaviour accurately reflect their actual control" (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 64). Furthermore, Fishbein and Ajzen (2010, p. 65) suggest that "when people lack control (i.e. when they are incapable of performing the behaviour), it is unlikely that the behaviour will be carried out. However, knowing that individuals have a high level of control by itself does not tell us whether the behaviour will or will not be performed."

Perceived behavioural control is measured by multiplying each control belief (c) by the perceived power (p) and the resulting products are summed as shown in the following equation:

$$PBC = \sum c_k p_k$$

Where PBC is the perceived behavioural control; c_k is the beliefs that control factor k will be present; p_k is the power of factor k to facilitate or impede performance of the behaviour and the sum is over the number of salient control belief.

2.2.2   Empirical Studies of Perceived Behavioural Control

Many empirical studies have been conducted on perceived behavioural control as an additional predictor of intentions and behaviour. Table 2.6 lists some of the studies that define perceived behavioural control and describe the important relations between attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control on the one hand and intentions or behaviours on the other hand.

Schiffter and Ajzen (1985), for example, examined the relations in their study on predicting weight reduction. The result of the study shows a statistically significant relation between intention and perceived behavioural control with a regression coefficient 0.30 ($p < 0.01$). Further, "perceived control was found to have a partly independent effect on weight loss that was not mediated by intention" (Schiffter and Ajzen 1985, p. 850). The previously mentioned meta-evaluation study of condom use by Albarracin et al. (2001) demonstrates a strong relation between intentions and perceived behavioural control with a mean correlation of 0.45. Ajzen and Madden (1986) in their two experimental studies on attending college lectures and getting an A in a college course concluded that the additive component of perceived behavioural control greatly improves the prediction of intention of attending class ($R = 0.68$), and also of getting an A grade ($R = 0.65$ for the wave 1 period and $R = 0.64$ for the wave 2 period). Moreover, the regression coefficient of perceived behavioural control to intentions of attending class and of getting an A grade are higher. Kraft et al. (2005) also indicated that perceived behavioural control is a strong predictor of intention of recycling ($\beta = 0.54$, $p < 0.001$) and of exercise ($\beta = 0.65$, $p < 0.001$). Hrubes et al. (2001) in their study on predicting hunting behaviour concluded that perceived behavioural control accounts for predicting hunting intention ($\beta = 0.07$, $p < 0.05$).

In contrast, some empirical studies indicate that perceived behavioural control does not explain behaviour. Ajzen and Madden (1986) found that there is little evidence for a direct link between perceived behavioural control and class attendance ($\beta = 0.11$, $p > 0.01$). They also found that there is no relation between perceived behavioural control and behaviour of getting an A grade (wave 1, $r = 0.11$, $p > 0.01$). In their meta-analysis on condom use, Albarracin et al. (2001) reported that perceived behavioural control correlates with condom use (weighted mean correlation = 0.25, $p < 0.0001$) but its impact is very small ($\beta = 0.05$). Further, Hrubes et al. (2001) found out that perceived behavioural control fails to predict hunting behaviour ($\beta = 0.05$, $p > 0.05$).

Table 2.6 *Empirical Studies of Perceived Behavioural Control*

Researcher	Topic	Definition of perceived behavioural control (PBC)	Additive effect of PBC on intentions (A+SN+PBC-Intention)	Perceived control – Intention relationship	Perceived control – behaviour relationship
Schifter & Ajzen (1985)	Predicting weight reduction	"… the respondent's belief in her ability to reduce weight over the 6-week period" (p. 850).	"… intention to lose weight correlated significantly with attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control (…), and the multiple correlation was 0.74 (p. 846)	PBC afforded fairly accurate prediction of weight loss intention (the regression coefficient for perceived control was 0.30, $p < .01$. (p. 846)	"Perceived control was found to have a partly independent effect on weight loss that was not mediated by intention" (p. 850) (regression weight = 0.20, $p < 0.10$, p. 847)
Ajzen & Madden (1986)	Attending college lectures	"… factors that could prevent college students from attending their classes." (p. 462)	"… the addition of perceived behavioural control greatly improved the model's predictive power ($F(3, 165) = 46.16$, $p < 0.01$). (…) the multiple correlation increased from 0.55 to 0.68, $p < 0.01$" (p.463)	"Perceived behavioural control had a strong effect on intentions to attend class" (p. 465) ($r = 0.57$, $p < 0.01$, based on Table 1, p. 464)	"Regression coefficient of perceived behavioural control on behaviour was not significant (0.11, $p < 0.01$) (…) there was little evidence for a direct link between perceived behavioural control and actual class attendance…" (p. 465)*
Ajzen & Madden (1986)	Getting an "A" in a college course: Wave 1 (beginning of semester)	"… the factors that might help or prevent college students from getting an A in the course." (p. 466)	"… introduction of perceived behavioural control on the second step improved the prediction of intentions from 0.48 to 0.65 ($p < 0.01$)" (p. 468).	"Moreover, perceived behavioural control was found to have a significant effect on intention" (p. 468), based on Table 2, $r = 0.44$, $p < 0.01$ (p. 469)	"In terms of predicting attained grades, however, perceived behavioural control was of no value" (p. 468) based on data in Table 2, $r = 0.11$, $p < 0.01$ (p. 469)*
Ajzen & Madden (1986)	Getting an "A" in a college course: Wave 2 (end of semester)	"… the factors that might help or prevent college students from getting an A in the course." (p. 466)	"… and the increased predictability of intentions (from 0.49 to 0.64) due to perceived behavioural control was highly significant" (p. 471)	Based on data in Table 4 (p. 470), perceived behavioural control predicts intention ($r = 0.45$, $p < 0.01$)	Based on data in Table 4 (p. 470), perceived behavioural control predicts behaviour ($r = 0.38$, $p < 0.01$)

Albarracin et al. (2001)	A meta-analysis of condom use	"a) participants can use condoms if they want to do so, b) using condom is up to them, and/or c) using condom is easy or difficult." (p. 145)		Perceived behavioural control predicted intentions on condom use (r. = 0.45, p < 0.0001)" (p. 146)	"Pbc did not contribute significantly to condom use (r. = 0.25, p < 0.0001)" (p. 142)*
Hrubes and Ajzen (2001)	Predicting hunting behaviour	"… the difficulty of engaging in hunting…" (p. 5)	Attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control were significant determinants of intentions (R= 0.93, p < 0.01, based on data in Table 3, p. 19)	Perceived behavioural control predicted intention on hunting (b= 0.07, p < 0.05, based on data in Table 3, p. 19)	Perceived behavioural control failed to predict behaviour (b= 0.05, p > 0.05 based on data in Table 3, p. 19)*
Kraft et al. (2005)	Undertaking regular exercise and recycling drinking cartons	"… pbc could be conceived of as consisting of two separate but interrelated constructs, namely self-efficacy and controllability" (p. 493)		"Pbc was a strong predictor of intention, both recycling (β = 0.54) and exercise (β = 0.65)" (p. 489)	
Billari and Philipov (2005)	Predicting fertility intentions	"The perception of constraints and on the ability to overcome them influences the decision to perform a certain behaviour" (to have (another) child (p. 5)	"… attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control are significant determinants of fertility intentions" (p. 10)	"The only exception is perceived behavioural control, which has no significant effect for both genders on the transition to first birth (female (1.04; male 1.07, p > 0.05, based on data in Table 2, p. 15)**	

* No significant relation between PBC and behaviour

** No significant relation between PBC and intention

In the preliminary study of Billari and Philipov (2005, p. 15) on predicting fertility intentions, "perceived behavioural control does not seem to be relevant as it has no effect on the intentions of either gender to have a first child" (based on data in Table 2, female (β = 1.04, $p > 0.05$) and male (β = 1.07, $p > 0.05$). Billari and Philipov (2005, p. 7) assumed that "young and childless adults may care less about the role of control than people who are already parents." Eagly and Chaiken (1993, p. 189) questioned the causal link between perceived behavioural control and intention because "it suggests that people intend to engage in actions or to attain goals merely because they have control over them." They argued that controllability does not influence intention to engage in a negatively evaluated behaviour. Students, for example, have fully control over shouting loudly in school libraries but their controllability would not encourage them to do so (negatively evaluated behaviour). Perhaps they would shout loudly in the libraries if controllability was combined with their desire to do so. The sufficiency of the TPB model is, therefore, questioned.

In addition to the lack of support from some studies for the explanatory power of perceived behavioural control, more questions have been raised. These questions are similar to the questions raised with respect to the TRA (previous behaviour and moral obligations). As we have already discussed these issues in the previous section, we will leave them aside here. The outcomes of the previous studies provide us with a mixed picture. Perceived behavioural control can be an important explanatory factor for intention, but this is not necessarily the case. However, we do not see sufficient grounds to exclude perceived behavioural control from our theoretical reasoning. We will, therefore, use the concepts of the TRA with a modified construct to explain the deans' styles.

2.3   THE BEHAVIOURAL MODELS OF THE STUDY

The Behavioural models used for this study are presented in Figure 2.3. The volitional behavioural model (shown in the blue box) is based on the TRA (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980). The non-volitional behavioural model (shown in the red box) is based on the TPB (Ajzen 1985) and RAA (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). The key variables used in our research are styles, attitudes towards the styles, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. The relationships between these key variables are represented by the solid arrows in Figure 2.3, indicating the direct influence of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control to styles. The relative weights of these determinants may vary from one person to another. The dotted arrows in Figure 2.3 indicate the possible explanations for observed relations between the background factors and the attitudes, subjective

norms, and perceived behavioural control. From the theoretical point of view, the background factors will have an effect on the styles only to the extent that they influence the determinants of the styles.
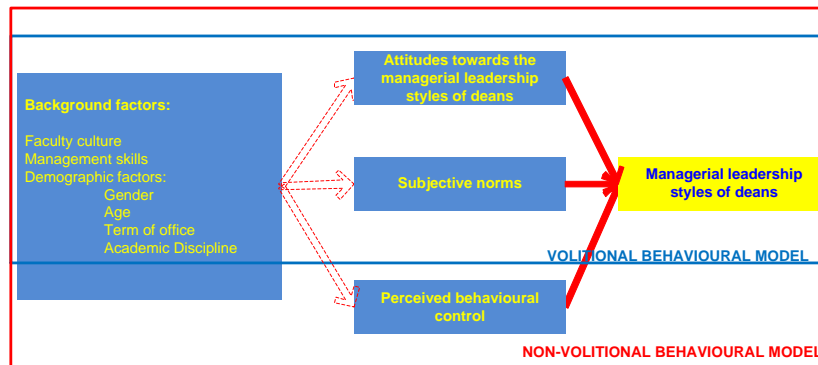
Note: The dotted arrows indicate the possible explanations for observed relations between background factors and determinants of managerial leadership styles of deans. The solid arrows indicate the direct influence of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control to managerial leadership styles of deans.

Figure 2.3   A Representation of the Behavioural Models for this Study

In the remainder of this section, we briefly outline some decisions we have made with respect to our research models. First, in our research models, the dependent variable is a 'style'. Given our research question, we are interested in the way deans manage their faculty. We assume that sets of managing behaviours (according to the theories, they refer to behavioural categories) represents a particular style. In Chapter 4, where we operationalise our research models, we will explain that deans' managing behaviours (or actions) will be measured by means of a survey and that this in turn will provide us with information on the styles deans have (see also Chapter 6 where the results are presented). We measure the managing behaviours of deans and later combine them in our empirical analyses into a set of managing behaviours representing a managerial role that we call a managerial leadership style of deans.

Second, in both research models, intentional behaviour (or intention to exhibit a style) is left out. The main reason is that previous research using theories of reasoned action and planned behaviour suggests a strong relationship between intention and behaviour and, therefore, leaving out intentions will not harm the outcomes of this study and will 'simplify' its execution. Most studies that question the relationship between intention and behaviour point to additional factors that may have an effect, such as behavioural control variables. This is

precisely why we have decided to use both the volitional and the non-volitional models; in the latter behavioural control variables are taken into account. Perceived behavioural control is regarded as a proxy for 'actual control', a factor that has been mentioned as being important in explaining behaviour. "Because the determination of actual control by environmental events makes it very difficult to assess, Ajzen used perceived control as a proxy for actual control and argued that ordinarily people's beliefs about their degree of control are at least moderately accurate" (Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p. 188).

Third, our research models follow the reasoning of Azjen and Fishbein that background factors do not have a direct impact on behaviour. Therefore, since we are interested in describing and explaining behaviour, there is no decisive reason to include background factors in our research. However, Fishbein and Azjen (2010) argue that background factors are likely to colour norms and beliefs. Hence, we have included organisational culture, management skills, and demographic factors (i.e. gender, age, term of office and academic discipline) as background factors in the study. We assume that these background factors may influence people's beliefs manifested in their attitudes (behavioural beliefs), subjective norms (normative beliefs), and perceived behavioural control (control beliefs).

2.4   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter, we have discussed the key theories to understand the deanship styles at Indonesian universities. We discussed Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) theory of reasoned action (TRA), which is known as a model of volitional behaviour and a model of cognitive processes. The TRA suggests that behaviour is explained by intentions to act in a particular way. According to this model, intentions to engage in the behaviour are greatly influenced by attitudes towards the behaviour and subjective norms as the proximal cause of the volitional behaviour itself. This model also assumes that people form their attitude towards a behaviour by having a positive or negative evaluation of the behaviour and form their subjective norms for a behaviour by thinking about significant others' perceptions (approval or disapproval) of their behaviour.

The TRA's conceptual framework has stimulated many empirical studies in various fields. Despite its plausibility, the TRA has also attracted some criticisms, particularly of volitional behaviour. Ajzen (1985) enlarged the model by adding perceived behavioural control to attitudes and subjective norms. He referred to his extended model as the theory of planned behaviour (TPB), which takes into

account non-volitional behaviour. Maintaining the TRA's model, this extended model assumes that people also form control beliefs that facilitate or impede their intention to carry out the behaviour. Conceptually, once attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control have been formed, they are directly accessible as predictors of intentions and behaviours of interest. This extended model has also been empirically tested through many studies in different fields.

However, the TPB has been criticised for relying on actual control, when it is unclear what it is and how to evaluate it. Recently, Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) have outlined the reasoned action approach (RAA). The model comprises three major components: attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. In combination, the three components form a behavioural intention to perform or not to perform the behaviour in question. Conceptually, this new approach is the same as the TPB's approach. Importantly, in their new book, they reaffirm that their framework does not assume rationality, but assumes a reasonable, consistent, and automatic process from beliefs about engaging in the behaviour of interest.

For our study, we use models that are slightly different from the existing theories (see Figure 2.3). In our behavioural models, first, we use both the volitional model and non-volitional behavioural model. Second, we use perceived behavioural control as a proxy for actual control, as the theories suggest. Third, we measure managing behaviours of Indonesian deans. Fourth, we do not include (behavioural) intention.

In conclusion, the volitional behavioural model, adapted from the TRA model, is used to investigate the relationship of attitudes and subjective norms to managerial leadership styles of deans. We expect that when deans have a positive or favourable attitude towards a style and believe that their important others think they should demonstrate this style, they will be more likely to demonstrate this style. The non-volitional behavioural model, adapted from the TPB and RAA models, is used to investigate the relationship of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control to managerial leadership styles of deans. We expect that the more favourable the deans' attitudes towards a style, the more positive their perceived subjective norms for the style, and the greater the deans' perceived behavioural control, the more the deans will demonstrate this style. Further, we expect that deans who come from different backgrounds may have different attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control.

3

CHAPTER

Leadership and Management

"We want our organisations to be adaptable and flexible, but we also want them to be stable and controlled. We want growth, resource acquisition, and external support, but we also want tight information management and formal communication. We want an emphasis on the value of human resources, but we also want an emphasis on planning and goal setting."

Robert E. Quinn (Beyond Rational Management, 1988, p. 49)

This chapter deals with the highly contested concepts of leadership and management. We all have a perception of what leadership means, but there is hardly any agreement on what it is or should be. Without intending to solve this problem, we will clarify what we mean by leadership and management in this study. First, we address definitions and concepts of leadership in general and in higher education such as academic deanship in particular. Then we discuss leadership and management theories followed by leadership styles. Next, we extensively discuss leadership and management behaviours based on Quinn's Competing Values Framework (1988) as the heart of our leadership model. The final section summarises and concludes the chapter.

3.1   LEADERSHIP: DEFINITIONS AND CONCEPTS

Leadership is a phenomenon that we know when we see it but which is still difficult to describe (Bennis 1989). "It is such a mysterious process, as well as one that touches everyone's life" (Yukl 2009, p.19). People often perceive leadership as a critical factor in ensuring successful change (McRoy and Gibbs 2009). For example, people describe the 'inspiring' leadership of Gandhi, the 'great' emperor Julius Caesar, the 'iron lady' Margaret Thatcher, the 'charismatic' leadership of Obama. Leadership is "essential in order to create vision, communicate policy and deploy strategy" (Davies et al. 2001, p. 1026).

In scientific research, huge numbers of books, articles, reports, and research papers have been written on the subject of leadership. Military strategists, behavioural scientists, administrators, politicians, sociologists, economists, biologists, and educationalists, to name a few, have discussed the subject in various forms and defined the term 'leadership' from their own perspective. Over 7,000 books, articles, or presentations on leadership were published in 1990 (Hogan et al. 1994) and over 350 definitions of leadership have been produced (Bennis and Nanus 1997). Obviously, researchers are still struggling with the question of what leadership is. A fully agreed definition is not available. As a first step in our understanding of leadership, we present and discuss some representative definitions of leadership from the past 100 years (see Table 3.1). Although it is an impressive list, the overview is just an attempt to summarise some of the major commentary on this issue.

Table 3.1   *Some Representative Definitions of Leadership from the Past 100 Years*

Researcher	Definition of leadership
Mumford (1906, p. 218)	"A universal function of association."
Moore (1927, p. 124 cited in Bass 1990, p. 12)	"The ability to impress the will of the leader on those led and induce obedience, respect, loyalty and cooperation."
Bogardus (1934, p. 3)	"The personality in action under group conditions. (…). It is interaction between specific traits of one person and other traits of the many, in such a way that the course of action of the many is changed by the one."
Tead (1935, p. 20)	"The activity of influencing people to cooperation toward some goal which they come to find desirable."
Davis (1942, p.27 cited in Rost 1991, p. 49)	"The principal dynamic force that motivates and coordinates the organisation in the accomplishment of its objectives."
Cartwright and Zander (1953, p. 538)	"The performance of those acts which help the group achieve its objective."

Hemphill & Coons (1957, p. 5)	"The behaviour of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal."
Tannenbaum et al. (1961, p. 24)	"Interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specialised goal or goals."
Fiedler (1967, p. 36)	"By leadership behaviour we generally mean the particular acts in which a leader engages in the course of directing and coordinating the work of his group members."
Stogdill (1974, p. 15)	"Leadership is the initiation and maintenance of structure in expectation and interaction."
Filley (1978, p. 52 cited in Rost 1991, p. 59)	"The ability of an individual to establish and maintain acceptable levels of satisfaction and job-related performance so that organisation needs are met as well."
Holander (1978a, p. 1)	"A process of influence between a leader and those who are followers."
Katz and Kahn (1978, p. 528)	"An influential increment over and above compliance with the routine directives of the organisation."
Hopper (2009, in speech, Washington, D. C., February 1987)	"Leadership is a two-way street, loyalty up and loyalty down. Respect for one's superiors; care for one's crew."
Hersey and Blanchard (1988, p. 86)	"Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation."
Bennis (1989, p. 139)	"Leadership revolves around vision, ideas, direction, and has more to do with inspiring people as to direction and goals than with day-to-day implementation."
Bass (1990, p. 19)	"The interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and of the perceptions and expectations of the members."
Zaleznik (1992, p. 126)	"Leadership requires using power to influence the thoughts and actions of other people."
Conger (1992, p. 18)	"Leaders are individuals who establish direction for a working group of individuals who gain commitment from these group members to this direction and who then motivate these members to achieve the direction's outcomes."
Schein (1992, p. 2)	"The ability to step outside the culture … to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive."
Rost (1991, p. 102)	"Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes."
Bolman and Deal	"The essence of leadership is not giving things or even

(1995, p. 102)	providing visions. It is offering oneself and one's spirit."
Kouzes and Posner (1995, p.30 cited in Haman 2000, p. 1)	"The art of mobilising others to want to struggle for shared aspirations."
Bass (2000, p. 21)	"Move followers to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of their group, organisation or community, country or society as a whole."
House (2004, p. 15)	"The ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisations of which they are members."
Maxwell (2007, p. xviii)	"Leadership is influence-nothing more, nothing less."
Yukl (2009, p. 30)	"Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective effects to accomplish shared objectives."

Over the past 100 years most definitions of leadership have suggested that leadership can be actual or potential. Actual leadership refers to giving guidance or direction, whereas potential refers to the capacity or ability to lead. Some definitions refer to a process ('how to lead') where others point to leadership characteristics ('what makes a good leader'). A number of definitions see leadership as relational, as in the relationship between leader and followers. Interaction and communication are important aspects here. In such relationships, leaders have the potential to influence followers, for instance, through persuading and motivating others. Such influence is, according to some of the definitions, exerted to reach a common goal. Effectiveness and coherence are important in these processes of goal setting and achievement. Some definitions mention particular characteristics that distinguish between leaders and non-leaders such as 'having a vision' or having the 'ability to build trust'. There are many other characteristics that supposedly define a 'good leader'. "Some definitions are more useful than others, but there is no single 'correct' definition that captures the essence of leadership"(Yukl 2009, p. 26). Nevertheless, from the listed definitions, we can define leadership as "the focus of group processes, as a matter of personality, as a matter of inducing compliance, as the exercise of influence, as particular behaviours, as a form of persuasion, as a power relation, as an instrument to achieve goals, as an effect of interaction, as a differentiated role, as initiation of structure, and as many combinations of these definitions" (Bass 1990, p. 11).

At its core, leadership "involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted over other people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and

relationships in a group or organisation" (Yukl 2009, p. 21). We, therefore, believe that wherever leadership is found—in academic settings (e.g. in this study), in business environments, in non-profit organisations, in community, or even in family, it will fall within these core processes.

3.1.1   Leadership and Management

"There is a continuing controversy about the difference between leadership and management" (Yukl 2009, p. 24). Are leaders managers, are managers leaders? Some argue that leadership and management are two different concepts (Hoy and Miskel 2008; Sadler 2003). For example, in the literature, some scholars (e.g. Mintzberg 1973; Bass 1990; Kotter 1990; Rost 1991) view the concepts of leadership and management as distinct processes or roles (Yulk 2009).

Mann (1965 cited in Bass 1990, p. 383) proposes that "leaders facilitate interpersonal interaction and positive working relations; they promote structuring of the task and the work to be accomplished. They plan, organise, and evaluate the work that is done." Hoy and Miskel (2008, p. 420) state that "administrators emphasise stability and efficiency, whereas leaders stress adaptive change and getting people to agree about what needs to be accomplished. Mahoney, Jerdee and Carroll (1965 cited in Bass 1990, p. 383) propose that "managers plan, investigate, coordinate, evaluate, supervise staff, negotiate, and represent." Kotter (1990 cited in Hoy and Miskel 2008, p. 420) proposes that "administrators plan and budget, organise and staff, and control and solve problems; leaders establish direction, align people, and motivate and inspire." For Zaleznik (1977 cited in Bass 1990, p. 386), "leaders, but not managers, are charismatic, they attract strong feelings of wanting to be identified with them and intense interpersonal relations. Leaders send out clear signals of their purpose and mission; managers tend to be more ambiguous or silent about their purpose."

In the words of Drucker (1955) and Bennis and Nanus (1985), leadership is 'doing the right things' and management is 'doing things right'. The differences between leadership and management can also be defined by means of the well-known distinctions of transformational and transactional behaviour (Spreitzer and Quinn 1996). Leadership is transformational, based on change, while management is transactional, based on reward and punishment. Transformational leadership is concerned with bringing followers to their full potential (Bass and Avolio 1990), while transactional leadership is concerned with satisfying basic follower needs through rewards for performance (Bass 1985). Kotter (1990) defines leadership as

coping with change and envisioning the future and management as coping with complexity, planning, and budgeting. For Zaleznik (1977), "leaders, who are more concerned with ideas, relate in more intuitive and empathetic ways" (cited in McCrimmon 2006, p. 2). Maccoby (2000) notices that leadership is a relationship and management is a function. The word 'lead' means 'to go from', while the word 'manage' means 'to handle'.

The overall impression we get from these descriptions of leadership and management is that they differ from each other, at least analytically. Leading is related to influencing, motivating, communicating, inspiring and directing followers. Managing concerns planning, budgeting, evaluating, organising, and controlling. Leadership generates changes in the long term, while management produces short-term results. This suggests a sharp distinction between leadership and management.

However, others, such as Grove (1986) reject such distinctions, stating that "the effective manager must have the clarity of purpose and motivation of the effective leader" (cited in Bass 1990, p. 386). Gardner (1986b) also disagrees with the distinction. Gardner (1986b) states that

> Every time I encounter an utterly first-class manager he turns out to have quite a lot of leader in him … even the most visionary leader will be faced on occasion with decisions that every manager faces: when to take a short-term loss to achieve a long term gain, how to allocate scarce resources among important goals, whom to trust with a delicate assignment (p. 7 cited in Bass 1990, p. 386).

For classical management theorists like R. C. Davis (1942), Urwick (1952), and Fayol (1916), as cited in Bass (1990, p. 384), "the functions of manager-leader in a formal organisation were orderly planning, organising and controlling." Furthermore, K. Davis (1951 cited in Bass 1990, p. 384), the prescription for business leaders was the same as for managers—to plan, organise, and control an organisation's activities." This implies that in practice the differences between the two concepts are not always easily observed. As concluded by Leithwood and Duke (1999 cited in Hoy and Miskel 2008, p. 420), "justifying a conceptual distinction between leadership and management is difficult."

In conclusion, some theorists believe that leaders and managers are different; other theorists believe that they have the same function in an organisation. The terms seem to be intertwined. They are sometimes used as synonyms, sometimes as distinct entities As suggested by Yukl (2009, p. 24), "nobody has proposed that

managing and leading are equivalent, but the degree of overlap is a point of sharp disagreement."

Definition of Academic Dean Leadership for the study

For this study, we acknowledge the analytical differences between leadership and management. Leaders play different roles than managers. Leaders lead with 'power-with' to get compliance from their followers to do the right things. Managers use 'power-over' to get their followers to do things right. Rather than argue about the amount of overlap between leadership and management, we will use both terms to refer to deans who lead and manage faculties in which they are expected to exert leadership to meet the expectations of employees and organisations (Quinn 1988). As suggested by Yukl (2009, p. 26), "success as a manager or administrator in modern organisations also involves leading."

The purpose of our study is to investigate managerial leadership styles at the faculty level of Indonesian universities. In the literature, research on academic leadership is still limited (De Boer and Goedegebuure 2009). However, leadership in institutions of higher education has begun to attract interest from researchers (e.g. Wolverton et al. 2001; Gmelch and Wolverton 2002; Meek, Goedegebuure and De Boer 2010). In their study on dean leadership, Gmelch and Wolverton (2002, p. 5) state that "academic leadership is the act of building a community of scholars to set direction and achieve common purposes through the empowerment of faculty and staff."

In our study, we define academic dean leadership as an integration of organisational roles which covers various aspects of leading and managing in harmony and tension. A comprehensive leadership approach, integrating the two concepts of leading and managing, is required to achieve this definition of leadership.

3.2 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

The various definitions of leadership and management presented in the previous section are forerunners of a range of leadership and management theories. These different theories can be categorised into a number of major types. Van Seters and Field (1990) present an overview of the phases through which leadership theory has evolved (see also Sadler 2003). Early leadership theories focused on qualities distinguishing leaders from followers. The second phase is referred to as the 'influence era' and recognised that leadership is a relational process. In this stage,

the emphasis was on power relations and persuasion. The third phase emphasises behaviour patterns and differences between leaders in what they actually do. The 'situation era' was the fourth phase and stressed the context in which leadership is practised. The next phase was the 'contingency era', which argued that effective leadership was dependent on behaviour, personal and situational factors. The other phases mentioned by Van Seters and Field (1990) are the 'transactional era' (stressing role differentiation and social interaction), the 'role development era' (arguing leadership resides sometimes in the subordinate rather than the leader), the 'culture era' (leadership should focus on creating and changing cultures), and the 'transformational era' (change management and visionary aspects are regarded as crucial aspects of leadership). The following paragraphs briefly discuss the theories that exemplify these stages.

Great Man theories assume that great leaders are born and not made. According to these theories, "leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, destined to lead" (Bolden et al. 2003). For example, Winston Churchill is considered to be a great man who led Britain to victory in 1945 (Bass 1990; Hoy and Miskel 2008). The great man theories explained "leadership on the basis of inheritance" (Bass 1990, p. 38). The concept of great man leadership was linked with breeding in which "the survival of the fittest and intermarriage among them produces an aristocratic class that differs biologically from the lower classes" (Bass 1990, p. 38). Great man leaders often came from "the aristocracy, as few from lower classes had the opportunity to lead" (Changingminds, Online).

Trait theories are a set of theories related to the Great Man theories. The basic concept of the trait theories is that a leader is born with inherited traits. Traits are seen as "general personal characteristics" (see Kohs and Irle 1920; Bernard 1926; Bingham 1927; Tead 1929; Page 1935; and Kilbourne 1935 as cited in Bass 1990, p. 38). Research suggests that many traits are related to effective leadership. Guilford (1959), for instance, states that every person has a unique personality, a particular configuration of characteristics, which makes him different. Bird (1940 in Bass 1990) listed 79 types of trait based on 20 psychologically oriented studies. Stodgill (1974 in Bolden et al. 2003) identified more than 10 types of the main leadership traits characterising great leaders.

According to Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991), the key leadership traits are drive, motivation, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, and knowledge of the business. Such traits will help the leader to be successful in developing visions, realising organisational ambitions, and implementing strategies. However, many researchers, such as Stogdill (1948), argued that such traits are not universal in effective leadership and that the context and situation

within which leaders are leading matters as well. One might, therefore, argue that trait theories may be, not wrong, but at least limited in their approach. The main problem is that they tend to solely focus on leadership characteristics while ignoring context. For instance, the relationship between leaders and subordinates may have an impact on the leader's effectiveness as well.

Other organisational factors are also likely to play a role (e.g. Yang and Shao 1996). As Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991, p. 48) argue, some research offers evidence that "effective leaders are different from other people in key aspects, while at the same time other research shows that certain traits alone do not guarantee good leadership performance." We agree with Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991, p. 59) that, given the "unrelenting job with enormous pressures and grave responsibilities" most leaders have, "it would be a profound disservice to leaders to suggest that they are ordinary people … Maybe the place matters, but it takes a special kind of person to master the challenges of opportunity." This does not necessarily mean that leaders are born that way.

Behavioural theories received great attention after the publication of The Human Side of Enterprise by Douglas McGregor in 1960 (Bolden et al. 2003). His great leadership work, concerning Theory X and Theory Y managers, influenced all behavioural theories. In contrast to the Great Man and Trait theories, Behavioural theories focus on what leaders actually do instead of on what qualities they have (Sadler 2003). The basic assumption of behavioural leadership theories is that leaders can be made. People can also learn to be successful leaders (Changingminds, Online). This theory centres on how leaders act. It focuses on two elements of behaviour, "the structural element of the job" and behaviour concerning "the needs of employees" (Bogardus 2007, p. 38). This theory has attracted most attention from practitioners (managers) and has become very popular.

The related **Situational** and **Contingency theories** are the next major types of leadership theories. **Situational theories** argue that effective leadership is dependent on the situation in which it is exercised. Different situations call for different forms of leadership. This rejects the notion, often relied on in trait and behavioural theories of leadership, that there is one best way of leading. In some situations, leaders may require an autocratic style, in other situations, they may require a participative style. These situational assumptions were criticised for "being two dimensional and not allowing for the multifaceted situations that occur in the real world of business" (Bogardus 2007, p. 40).

Contingency theories refine the situational approach and argue that effective leadership varies according to context. They try to identify the situational variables which best predict effective leadership styles in a particular situation. They argue that "leaders should play different roles and change their styles to fit a given situation" (Yang and Shao 1996, p. 523). This implies that leaders who "are very effective at one place and time may become unsuccessful either transplanted to another situation or when the factors around them change" (Changingminds, Online). The notion is that successful leadership traits are context-dependent. This makes contingency theory different from situational theory.

Finally, transactional and transformational theories of leadership, which have behavioural aspects. **Transactional theories** emphasise "the importance of the relationship between leader and followers, focusing on the mutual benefits derived from a form of 'contract' through which the leader delivers such things as rewards or recognition in return for the commitment or loyalty of the followers" (Bolden et al. 2003, p. 6). They are based on the principle of a fair social exchange in which leaders provide their followers with a sense of direction and recognise their needs and efforts. In exchange, through mutual regard and two-way influence, followers provide the leader with responsiveness to their efforts (Changingminds, Online).

According to Bass (1985), a transactional leader considers the relationship between him and his subordinates as a transaction in which followers' needs are met if their performance meets the explicit or implicit contract with the leader. Bass recognises the objectives of his organisation and knows what actions must be taken by the subordinates to achieve those objectives. He clarifies the role and task requirements to the subordinates so that they are confident in their roles. He also recognises the subordinates' needs and wants, but makes it clear to them that the satisfaction of these is dependent upon the effort they make to achieve the organisation's objectives. Although it has critics, this type of leadership is still popular among managers. Much research highlights its limitations—it assumes that people are highly motivated and driven by money (or other kinds of reward) and ignores emotional factors and social values (Changingminds, Online).

In 1978, James MacGregor Burns (cited in Bolden et al. 2003, p. 14) published his book 'Leadership' which developed the concept of 'transforming leadership', "a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents." Burns (1978 cited in Bass 1990, p. 53) "presented the new paradigm of the transformational as opposed to the transactional leader."

Transformational theories are strongly focused on change and the role that leadership plays, or should play, in envisioning and implementing the transformation of organisational performance (Bolden et al. 2003). 'Leading to change' is the credo (Bass 1990). Transformational leaders are those who create a new vision of an institution's future. Because of their personal charisma, they induce followers to higher levels of performance and motivate them to support changes desired by the leader (Bass 1990). A transformational leader is more likely to acquire the image of being charismatic. Burns' transformational leadership (1978 in Bass 1990) assumes that a leader who is associated with a higher moral position will motivate and lead people to follow him. A leader with this leadership style prefers working collaboratively to working individually. To Burns (1978 cited in Bass 1990, p. 53), leaders can be "either transformational or transactional, but the paradigm was modified by Bass (1985a, 1985b), who proposed that transformational leadership augments the effects of transactional leadership on the efforts, satisfaction, and effectiveness of subordinates." Transformational leaders take actions to "optimise development, not just performance" (Bolden et al. 2003, p. 16).

3.3   LEADERSHIP STYLES

Each of the theories above provides a different perspective on leadership styles. Those theories become the basis for many different analyses of the interactions between leaders and followers, which may provide a deeper understanding of the way in which managers and leaders are able to influence the employees through their styles.

What is style? According to Bass (1990, p. 27), styles are "the alternative ways that leaders pattern their interactive behaviour to fulfil their roles as leader." Further, Guirdham (1999 cited in Guirdham 2002, p. 541) asserts that style is "the consistent pattern of behaviour that you exhibit when you attempt to influence other people." The classic theory identifies three styles: autocratic (authoritarian), democratic (participative) and laissez-faire. Leaders with an autocratic style usually dictate to their followers without consultation. Leaders with a democratic style normally involve their followers in decision-making. Leaders with a laissez-faire style commonly "abdicate their leadership role, participating in decision-making on the same level as their followers" (Guirdham 2002, p. 541). That is, the leaders allow their followers to make decisions.

Bogardus (1918 in Bass 1990), distinguishes four types of organisational and institutional leaders, that is, the autocratic type, the democratic type, the executive type, and the reflective intellectual type. Weber (1947 in Bass 1990) classifies three types of leaders: bureaucratic leaders, patrimonial leaders, and charismatic leaders. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958 cited in Bass 1990, p. 28) define managerial styles along an authoritarian-democratic continuum: "the leader who announces the decision, the leader who sells the decision, the leader who consults before deciding, the leader whose decisions are shared, and the leader who delegates the decision-making."

McGregor's (1960 cited in Quinn 1988, p. 80) Theory X assumes that people must be "coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment" and Theory Y assumes that "people are willing to exercise self-direction and self-control in the pursuit of goals to which they are committed and for which they are rewarded." Based on the dichotomies of the Theory X and Theory Y Managers, others identified many dichotomous management styles, for example "democratic-autocratic, participative-directive, relations oriented-task oriented, and consideration-initiating structure" (Quinn 1988, p. 81).

Blake and Mouton (1964 in Bass 1990; Sadler 2003) develop a Managerial Grid model, one of the most popular explanations of management styles. This grid explains the characteristics of different leadership styles based on two aspects of leadership: concern for people and concern for production (task). The nine-level grid generates five main leadership styles: 9,1—Tough-minded, no nonsense production-prodder (minimum relationship and maximum task orientation), 1,9—Country-club leader (maximum relationship and minimum task orientation), 1,1—Laissez-faire, abdicator of responsibility (minimum either relationship or task orientation), 5,5—compromiser (moderate relationship and moderate task orientation), and 9,9—Integrator of task accomplishment with trust and commitment from followers (maximum relationship and task orientation).

Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-worker theory (1967) offers a continuum ranging from task-focused to people-focused leadership. Fiedler (1967 in Bogardus 2007), suggests that the degree of influence a leader has is situational, dependent on the quality of relationship between the leaders and members of the workgroup (leader member relations), the degree of task structure and the degree of leaders' power position. For Fiedler (1967 cited in Bass 1990, p. 46), "the effectiveness of a task-oriented and relations-oriented leader is contingent on the demands imposed by the situation." The Hersey and Blanchard Model of Leadership (1968 cited in Bogardus 2007, pp. 39-40) describes leadership in terms of "the maturity level of the followers" and describes "four styles of leadership in different

circumstances: telling, selling, participating, and delegating." Zaleznik (1974 as in Bass 1990), classifies two types of leader, that is, charismatic leaders and consensus leaders.

James MacGregor Burns (1978 cited in Quinn 1988, p. 82) "clearly differentiated transactional leadership from transformational leadership." For Burns, as cited in Quinn (1988, p. 8), transactional leaders are "instrumentally oriented" while transformational leaders "inspire people to transcend their self-interests for the sake of the larger collectivity, and they stimulate the higher-level needs that people might have." According to Bass and Avolio (1994 cited in Bolden et al. 2003, p. 16), transformational leaders perform five styles: "idealized behaviours (living one's ideals), inspirational motivation (inspiring others), intellectual stimulation (stimulating others), individualised consideration (coaching and development), and idealised attributes (respect, trust, and faith)."

Leavitt (1986 cited in Bass 1990, p. 28) groups managers according to their stylistic emphasis: "pathfinders (creative and visionary), problem solvers (analytic, quantitative and oriented towards management controls), and implementers (political and stress consensus, teamwork and good interpersonal relationships)." Eight effective managers are defined by Cribbin (1981 cited in Bass 1990, p. 28): "the entrepreneur, corporateur, developer, craftsman, integrator, and gamesman." Yulk (1989 cited in Bass 1990, p. 33) classifies leaders based on their functions: "networking, supporting, managing conflict and team building, motivating, recognising and rewarding, planning and organising, problem solving, consulting and delegating, monitoring, informing and clarifying." Mintzberg (1973) classifies managerial behaviours according to their roles: interpersonal (the figurehead, leader and liaison), informational (the monitor, disseminator and spokesman), and decisional (the entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator). Luthans and Lockwood (1984 in Quinn 1988) identify categories of managerial activities. The categories are planning/coordination; decision making/ problem solving; disciplining/ punishing; processing paper work; monitoring/ controlling performance; exchanging information; managing conflict; motivating/ reinforcing; training/ developing; staffing; interacting with outsiders; and socialising/ politicking (cited in Quinn 1988, p. 89; also in Luthans et al. 1988, Table 1, pp. 152-153).

In an empirical study reported in The Harvard Business Review, Goleman (2000, pp. 82-87) identifies six leadership styles; namely, the coercive style ("do what I tell you"), the authoritative style ("come with me"), the affiliate style ("people come first"), the democratic style ("what do you think?"), the pacesetting style

("do as I do, now"), and the coaching style ("I believe in you, I'm investing in you, and I expect your best efforts").

From the discussion above, it is clear that each leadership theory produces its typologies of leaders based on their functions, roles, and behaviours. However, "it is possible to encapsulate many of these typologies into the autocratic versus democratic dichotomy. The autocratic type correlates with the directive type and the democratic type correlates with the participative or considerate type" (Bass 1990, p. 33). It can also be seen that a leader having an autocratic style would be task-oriented, whereas one having a democratic style would be people-oriented.

We assert that in the real world, organisations or companies "face the problem of needing to both manage and lead, to be both people and task focused, to meet the assumptions on both sides of the above differentiations" (Quinn 1988, p. 81). Dichotomies in leadership styles can make people think that autocratic leaders are more important for leading organisations than democratic leaders or vice versa and that people-oriented managers are more important than task-oriented managers or vice versa. "We accept the need for management and reject the need for leadership or vice versa" (Quinn 1988, p. 81). There is also controversy over whether there is one ideal set of traits for leadership or whether effective leaders should be able to perform different roles at the same time.

We also assert that in leading, mutually exclusive but complementary traits can be distinguished. As Yang and Shao (1996, p. 523) argue, such a broad concept of leadership presents "conflicting expectations that managers should meet in different circumstances, and it shows how these different leadership roles can coexist … to maximise … performance." Therefore, in a real organisation, a leadership approach that "simultaneously conceives of both orientations as positive and desirable" (Quinn 1988, p. 81) is required. In leadership and management theories, Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Framework (CVF) is known for its integrated framework that describes four perspectives on and defines eight managerial leadership roles in organising. We consider that the CVF approach best fits the study. This CVF approach will be presented in detail in Section 3.4.

In a wide-ranging review of leadership and management literature, we conclude that there are two classic and universal concepts of leadership and management: task- and people-orientations. With respect to these two orientations, a huge number of studies have investigated and found that a multitude of control variables could potentially influence leadership styles. The following subsections will discuss empirical studies that have investigated the impact of some control

variables on leadership styles. These studies are used as our supporting and guiding theories to investigate the possible indirect links between the control variables (used in our study) and managerial leadership styles (see Chapter 2).

3.3.1   Studies of Leadership Style

Cultural differences and leadership style

"Leadership exists in all societies and is essential to the functioning of organisations within societies"(Ardichvili and Kuchinke 2002, p. 102). However, Den Hartog et al. (1999 as cited in Ardichvili and Kuchinke 2002, p. 102) argue that "the attributes that are seen as characteristic of leaders may vary across cultures." Reviewing the cross-cultural research by Chen (2001), El Kahal (2001), and Hofstede (1980, 1991), Lok and Crawford (2004, p. 323) acknowledged that "there are significant differences in national culture characteristics between eastern and western cultures." Hofstede (Online) supports this view, indicating that, for example, America is an individualist society and Indonesia is a collectivist society. Furthermore, Hofstede (Online) suggested that the sort of leadership valued in the Netherlands is, for example, seen as a weakness in the United States, where feminine leadership is seen as a strength. Thus, differences in leadership styles are found not only between the East and the West (for instance, between Indonesia and the US) but also between individual countries within the West (for instance, between the US and the Netherlands). These three countries were selected as country references reported in this study because they reflect different cultural traditions.

This is apparent in Hofstede's (Online) research where, in power distance, Indonesia scores 78, while the US and the Netherlands score 40 and 38, respectively. This indicates that Indonesian leaders prefer hierarchy and are "directive, management controls and delegates" (Hosftede, Online, Power Distance-Indonesia, para. 2). In contrast, American and Dutch leaders prefer a direct communication and a participative approach of interaction and decision-making.

On the individualism index, Indonesia scores 14, the US scores 91, and the Netherlands scores 80. Indonesia, with a score of 14, is a collectivist society. "In Collectivist societies people belong to 'in groups' that take care of them in exchange for loyalty" (Hosftede, Online, Individualism-Indonesia, para. 1). On the other hand, the US and the Netherlands, with a high score on this dimension, belong to Individualist societies. American and Dutch managers are highly

independent of their workplace, preferring freedom, autonomy and individual time.

On the masculinity/ femininity index, Indonesia scores 46, the US scores 62, and the Netherlands scores 14. The Netherlands, with a low score of 14, is a feminine society. Dutch managers strive for consensus and conflicts are resolved by compromise and negotiation. On the other hand, Americans, with score of 62, are masculine societies which are driven by competitions, achievement and success. Indonesia is in between and considered a "low masculine society". In Indonesia, status and visible symbols of success are important but it is not always material gain that brings motivation. Often it is the position that a person holds which is more important to them…" (Hosftede, Online, Masculinity/ Femininity-Indonesia, para. 2).

On the uncertainty index, Indonesia scores 48, the US scores 46, and the Netherlands scores 53. Based on the score, the US is described as uncertainty accepting, meaning that American society "tends to be more tolerant of ideas or opinions from anyone and allows freedom of expression" (Hosftede, Online, Uncertainty Avoidance-US, para. 2). Indonesia has a medium low preference for "avoiding uncertainty" (score of 48). This suggests that Indonesian society "tends to permit the exchange of views without loss of face…" (Hosftede, Online, Uncertainty Avoidance-Indonesia, para. 2). "The Netherlands scores 53 on this dimension and thus exhibits a preference for avoiding uncertainty" (Hosftede, Online, Uncertainty Avoidance-Netherlands, para. 2). Different from Indonesians, Dutch societies "have an inner urge to be busy and work hard, precision and punctuality are the norm, innovation may be resisted, security is an important element in individual motivation" (Hosftede, Online, Uncertainty Avoidance-Netherlands, para. 2).

Another extensive study of leadership across cultures is the Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) study. It is probably the most extensive study, involving over 150 researchers from 62 countries (Dickson et al. 2003). Dorfman et al. (in press) as in Dickson et al. (2003) analyse the GLOBE dataset which contains responses from 17,000 middle managers from approximately 825 organisations in 62 nations. The GLOBE study indicates that there is a relationship between culture and leadership styles. It shows that:

> … in relative terms, the Anglo, Germanic and Nordic clusters score particularly high on the endorsement of Charismatic/Value-Based leader attributes … Southern Asian, Confucian Asian and Latin American clusters find team-oriented leadership to be particularly

> critical for effective leadership … The Germanic, Anglo and Nordic clusters were particularly supportive of participative leadership" (cited in Dickson et al. 2003, p. 753).

Management skills and leadership style

Unlike (organisational) culture, "the relationship between leadership style and management skills has received little attention in the literature" (Burke and Collins 2001, p. 246). Davis et al. (1996 cited in Burke and Collins, 2001, p. 246) found that "a manager should be able to develop and coach subordinates, communicate clearly, resolve conflicts, analyse problems, and make sound decisions. A manager must also be able to respond to work challenges in a positive way, use time efficiently, and delegate work."

A study by Tracey and Hinkin (1998 cited in Burke and Collins, 2001, p. 246) found that "transformational leadership was correlated with the following management practices: clarifying, inspiring, supporting, and team building." In a recent study by Temel et al. (2011, p. 11233) "a high correlation was found between leadership behaviour and communication skills." Andersen Consulting (now Accenture) (1999 cited in Sadler 2003, p. 133), identified three competencies for effective global leaders: "personal mastery, providing organisational leadership by creating internal and external networks of influence, including alliances and partnerships as well as formal acquisitions and mergers, building organisational and individual competence by seeking and using differences of thought, style, and culture around the globe." These studies lead us to our assumption that management skills may lead Indonesian deans to form different beliefs about the demonstration of their leadership style.

Gender differences and leadership style

A large number of studies have investigated the relationship between leadership styles and gender. Some studies conclude that there are no gender differences in leadership styles. For example, in their study of the careers of 78 of the most senior women in corporate America, Morrison, White, and Van Velsor (1987 cited in Sadler 2003, p. 137) "did not find any significant differences between men's and women's styles." Dobbins and Platz (1986, p. 118 cited in Hooijberg and DiTomaso 1996, p. 6), in a meta-analysis of 17 studies on gender differences, found that "male and female leaders exhibit equal amounts of initiating structure and consideration and have equally satisfied subordinates." Further, "the differences between the sexes blur if one contrasts women and men who already have achieved status as leaders. Once they are legitimated as leaders, the

preponderance of research suggests that women actually do not behave differently from men in the same kind of positions" (Bass 1990, p. 725).

Some studies do find evidence of gender difference in leadership styles: a feminine style of leadership, "characterised by greater willingness to listen, and being more empathetic and people oriented" versus a masculine style of leadership, characterised by being more aggressive "in the pursuit of goals" (Sadler 2003, p. 137). 'Ways Women Lead' by Rosener (1990) points out that:

> The men are more likely than the women to describe themselves in ways that characterise what some management experts call "transactional" leadership … The men are also more likely to use power that comes from their organisational position and formal authority. The women respondents, on the other hand, described themselves in ways that characterise "transformational" leadership" (p. 120). …Women are more likely than men to say they make people feel important, included, and energised (p. 122).

In a study by Eagly and Johnson (1990 cited in Hooijberg and DiTomaso 1996, p. 6) "women were found to use a more participative, democratic leadership style and men a more autocratic, directive style." In another study conducted by Eagly, Karau, and Makhijami (1995 cited in Hooijberg and DiTomaso 1996, p. 6) "men were found to be more effective when the roles were defined as masculine, while women were found to be more effective in less masculine roles." Book (2000), Helgesen (1990) and Rosener (1995), as cited in Eagy and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001, p. 4), have claimed that "the leadership styles of women and men are different, mainly along the lines of women being less hierarchical, more cooperative and collaborative, and more oriented to enhancing others' self-worth."

Burke and Collins (2001, p. 250) report that "female managers are more likely than male managers to report practising transformational behaviour, the most effective leadership style. Female managers are also more likely to state that they use contingent reward behaviour, the second most effective leadership style. Finally, female managers are less likely than male managers to report practicing management-by-exception, the least effective management style."

Age differences and leadership styles

Some researchers have investigated the relationship between leadership styles and age. Vroom and Pahl (1971 cited in Moore and Ruud 2006, p. 8) suggested that "older managers in an organisation may have a greater commitment to

maintaining the status quo than younger managers and less favourable attitudes towards taking risks." Kabacoff and Stoffey (2001, p. 9) investigate age differences in organisational leadership and find that "compared with younger leaders, older leaders are more likely to study problems in light of past practices in order to ensure predictability, and minimize risk." Furthermore, Kabacoff and Stoffey (2001, p. 9) argue that "older leaders were described as accommodating more to the needs and interest of others and being willing to defer performance on their own objects to assist colleagues with theirs. They were described as demonstrating more of an active concern for other people and their needs by forming close and supportive relationships with others. Finally, older leaders were described as showing loyalty to their organization and respecting the opinions of others in authority to a greater degree than their younger counterparts."

Work by Oshagbemi (2004, p. 14) indicates that "younger and older managers have different profiles in their consultative and participative leadership styles. Older managers consulted more widely and favour more participation in comparison with younger managers." Further, he points out that "the two groups of managers both practice directive and delegative leadership styles at about the same degree. On the leadership behaviour, only idealised influence shows a significant F-test between younger and older managers while the other measures show remarkable similarities between the two age groups." A similar study by Le Hang Nguyen and Thi Luu Nguyen (2012, Abstract, para. 1), indicates that the "older manager is more autocratic in decision-making process, more consultative in employees' opinion and more participative in employees' performance in comparison with the younger manager."

Terms (tenure) of office and leadership styles

Several studies have also examined the relationship between term of office (tenure) and leadership styles. Moore and Rudd (2006, p. 14) determined that tenure in Extension leadership position(s) was one of the predictors of transformational ("collectively explained 13% of the variance") and transactional leadership ("collectively explained 28% of the variance") styles. In their study of upper echelons perspective, Hambrick and Mason (1984 cited in Moore and Ruud 2006, p. 8) proposed that "the more tenure the leaders of an organization have, the more likely they are to have a greater commitment to maintaining the status quo." Similarly, in their study of top management and innovations in banking, Bantel and Jackson (1989, p. 120) found that team tenure was "significantly correlated with innovation," while CEO tenure was not significantly correlated with innovation. Their findings, as cited in Moore and Ruud (2006, p. 8), suggest

that "the more tenure of the top management team within the independent financial institutions they studied had, the more likely they were to resist innovation and organizational change."

In contrast, Spotanski and Carter (1993 cited in Moore and Ruud 2006, p. 8) reported "no significant difference in leadership styles of agricultural education department executive officers when grouped by years of experience in the leadership position." In a study conducted with community college presidents, Wen (1999 cited in Greiman et al. 2007, p. 96) found that "there was no relationship between leadership style and number of years at their present position."

Academic disciplines and leadership styles

Since there are still few studies on academic leadership, studies that investigate the impacts of academic discipline on leadership styles are also limited. Del Favero (2006) investigates the relationship between academic discipline and cognitive complexity in administrative behaviour. She (2006, p. 281) indicates that "the effects of discipline cannot be discounted in framing studies of administrators' perceptions of their leadership context and the behaviour which necessarily flows from those perceptions." More specifically, she identifies that deans in applied and low consensus fields exert more socially-oriented administrative behaviours than those in pure and high consensus fields. In her thesis, Way (2010, p. 98) points out that "deans trained in disciplines that are classified as low-consensus applied fields are more likely to favour a Collegial style approach, …"

3.4   THE COMPETING VALUES FRAMEWORK (CVF)

Quinn and Hall (1983 cited in Bass 1990, p. 49) construct "an integrated theory of leadership on the basis of perceptual and cognitive dimensions as the flexibility versus the control of leaders and the internal versus the external focus of leaders." This theory is known as the Competing Values Framework (CVF). The CVF developed by Quinn and associates (Quinn and Cameron 1983; Quinn and Rohrbaugh 1983) is intended to deal with the complex and paradoxical roles of leaders and managers. Leaders must focus on goal attainment and be task-oriented and at the same time, they must have concern for employees and be people-oriented. Such orientations are potentially in conflict with each other.

These competing orientations are one of the strengths of the conceptual framework of the CVF.[5]

Due to its conceptual strengths, the framework has been widely used to study leadership roles or styles of executives and to investigate organisational effectiveness (Quinn and Rohrbaugh 1983; Quinn and Cameron 1988). Since the 1980s, "the CVF has been applied to a wide range of organisational research including the investigation of organisational culture, leadership styles and effectiveness, organisational development, human resource development, and quality of life" (Cameron and Freeman 1991; DiPadova and Faerman 1993; Quinn and Kimberly 1984; Quinn and MacGrath 1985; Quinn and Spreitzer 1991; Zammuto and Krakower 1991 cited in Kalliath et al. 1999, p. 144). Cameron et al. (2006, p. 5) confirm that the CVF has been studied and tested in organisations for "more than 25 years by a group of thought leaders from leading business schools and corporations." Moreover, ten Have et al. (2003 cited in Cameron et al. 2006, p. 5) note that the CVF "has been named as one of the 40 most important frameworks in the history of business." The CVF has, therefore, empirically proven its capability to analyse "a broad array of human and organisational phenomena" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 5). Identifying "the underlying dimensions of organisation that exist in almost all human and organisational activity is one of the key functions of the Competing Values Framework" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 7). In the remainder of this chapter we will discuss the CVF in detail.

3.4.1   The CVF Framework

The Competing Values Framework is so named because "the criteria within the four models (quadrants) seem at first to carry conflicting messages" (O'Neill and Quinn 1993, p. 5). The CVF, as shown in Figure 3.1, is constructed around two axes or dimensions that "express the tensions or 'competing values' that exist in all organisations. Graphically, one dimension can be drawn vertically and the other drawn horizontally—resulting in a two-by-two figure with four quadrants" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 8). The vertical axis reflects the degree of flexibility and ranges from full flexibility and adaptability to full control and stability. The horizontal axis concerns organisational focus which ranges from internal focus to external focus. Combined, these two axes form four quadrants representing four major aspects of the framework. Each aspect contains two leadership roles. The aspects and roles are the Clan aspect containing facilitator and mentor roles, the Adhocracy aspect containing innovator and broker roles, the Market aspect

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[5] The conceptual strengths of the CVF will be explained in Section 3.4.3.

containing producer and director roles, and the Hierarchy aspect containing monitor and coordinator roles. The CVF does not exclude any of the theoretical approaches but takes them all on board.

Flexibility

MENTOR INNOVATOR

CLAN (Collaborate)

ADHOCRACY (Create)

FACILITATOR BROKER

Internal focus

External focus

MONITOR PRODUCER

COORDINATOR DIRECTOR

HIERARCHY (Control)

MARKET (Compete)

Control
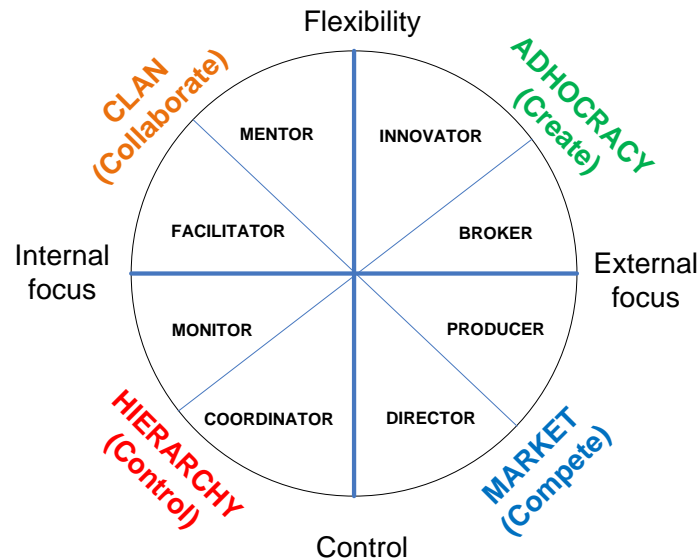
Figure 3.1   The Competing Values Framework

Each aspect and role has a polar opposite. Any point of one side of the aspect or role is in perpetual tension with any point opposite to the aspect or role. The aspects and roles within the quadrant are not opposites, but on a continuum. Empirically, it is not impossible to perform behaviours at two opposite points in the framework. This means that leaders may play innovator and coordinator roles at the same time. These aspects and roles within the CVF are described and explained in the following subsection.

3.4.2   Aspects and Roles Within the CVF

The Clan aspect sits in the upper-left quadrant, representing a flexible and internally focused organisation. The Clan (or Human Relations) is based on cohesion and morale with an emphasis on human resources and training. In this aspect, cohesion and morale are viewed as a means of increasing the value of human resources. The overall orientation of this aspect is to collaborate or do things together (Cameron et al. 2006). People are not seen as isolated individuals, but as cooperating members of a common social system. Organisational

leadership should motivate its employees by providing good facilities and an enjoyable working environment. People are motivated by job satisfaction and social environment. The assumption is that satisfied employees are committed and dedicated which is presumed to result in better job performance.

There are two types of leadership role that fit this human relations aspect: the facilitator and the mentor. The facilitator emphasises morale and cohesion. Facilitators value interpersonal skills and strive to achieve organisational goals through process. They are supposed to be experts on mediation and problem solving. They facilitate interaction by being process-oriented and are expected to build cohesion and team work as well as to manage interpersonal conflict. The mentor emphasises sensitivity and consideration. Mentors value the development of individuals and try to achieve organisational goals by being open and fair. They are supposed to be good at skill building and human resources development. They show consideration by being caring and empathetic. In summary, leaders who are strong in the Clan quadrant might be seen as "patient, caring, selfless, authentic, sensitive, and principled" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 64).

Opposite to the Clan is the Market aspect (or Rational Goal), located in the lower-right quadrant where control and external focus are the key dimensions. The overall orientation of this aspect is to compete or do things fast. The model is famous for labelling this the Firm mode, emphasising market-orientation. Its mode of organising stresses profit and rational action. It assumes that people are motivated by financial rewards. Planning and goal setting are viewed as a means of achieving productivity and efficiency. When tasks are clarified and objectives are set by an organisation, its employees are ready to take action. The organisation's effectiveness depends on being successful competitors and being customer-oriented.

The leadership types that fit this aspect are producer and director. The producer emphasises focus and accomplishment. Producers value motivation and productivity and strive to achieve organisational goals through stimulating workers to accomplish tasks. As producers, leaders are expected to motivate their subordinates to raise production and to achieve the organisation's goals. Producers value responsibility and completing assignments. In other words, they initiate action by being task-oriented and work-focused. The director emphasises direction and planning. Instrumental rationality is important. Directors value goal clarification and decisiveness and attempt to achieve organisational goals through establishing objectives and defining clear roles and tasks. They are skilled at giving instructions. Directors provide structure by being decisive and

directive. In summary, leaders who are strong in the Market quadrant might be seen as "powerful, bold, challenging, assertive, connected, and task-oriented" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 65).

The Adhocracy aspect (or Open Systems) is placed in the upper-right quadrant, stressing flexibility and an external focus. It focuses on adaptability and readiness, growth, resource acquisition and external support. The overall orientation is to create or do things first. In this aspect, people are not controlled but inspired. People, together with their organisations, must interact with their external environment for survival. They have to adapt through innovation. They also have to be ready to grow by gaining resources and being creative. In short, this aspect focuses on the effects that environment has on the organisation and its performance. The organisation's effectiveness rests on innovation and capacity to change.

With respect to leadership, two types fit the adhocracy aspect: the innovator and the broker. The innovator emphasises expansion and adaptation. As innovators, they value imagination and innovation and attempt to reach organisational goals through creativity and vision. They are supposed to be good at facilitating change and transformation. They envision change by being creative and clever. Brokers emphasise organisational growth and resource acquisition. Brokers value image and reputation and strive to achieve organisational goals through influence and persuasiveness. As brokers, they are expected to be a good representative or spokesperson for the organisation. They are good at negotiations and presentations. They obtain resources by being resource-oriented and politically astute. In summary, leaders who are strong in the Adhocracy quadrant might be "visionary, optimistic, and enthusiastic. Because of an emphasis on discovery, these people might be adaptive, receptive, and willing to explore and learn" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 65).

Opposite to the Adhocracy aspect is the Hierarchy aspect (or Internal Process), situated in the lower-left quadrant where control and internal focus are the key dimensions. The overall orientation of these hierarchies is to control or do things right. This aspect stresses measurement, documentation, and information management. It defines an effective organisation as a healthy organisation when information flows smoothly and conflicts are reduced. These processes will bring stability and control for the organisation, which will enhance efficiency and effectiveness. This aspect functions well when the tasks to be done are clearly understood by people and when time is not the most important factor to accomplish these tasks.

Again two types of leadership fit the aspect, the monitor and the coordinator. Monitors value measurement and documentation and strive to achieve organisational goals through rational and technical analysis. As monitors, leaders are expected to be sensitive to what is going on in the unit, to monitor subordinates, and to check rule and procedural compliance. Monitors are supposedly good at problem solving and information management. They are technical experts in collecting and analysing information. Coordinators highlight structure and stability. Coordinators value reliability and continuity, and try to achieve the goals of the organisation by control and evaluation. They value maintaining the organisational structure, coordinating staff schedules, and handling technical and logistical matters. Coordinators are good at administrative duties. They maintain structure by being dependable and reliable. In summary, leaders who are strong in the Hierarchy quadrant might be seen as "logical, realistic, and practical. These reliable and dependable people might be described as secure, assured, and consistent" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 65).

3.4.3   Strengths of the CVF

The CVF offers both conceptual and practical advantages for thinking about and practising managerial leadership in organisations. In this subsection, we discuss its conceptual advantages, then its practical advantages.

The CVF has several conceptual advantages. First, the CVF makes perceptual biases clear. As described earlier, most leadership and management theories differentiate between social behaviours, for example, autocratic and democratic leaders, people-oriented and task-oriented management styles, transformational and transactional leadership (see Chapter 3, section 3.3). As a consequence, most leaders or managers tend "to hold one set of values to be positive and uplifting while the opposite is defined as negative and diminishing" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 64). The CVF "makes clear that there are perceptual biases that influence how we see social action. These are reflected in the oppositional nature of the framework" (Quinn 1988, p. 85). "The competing values framework reminds us that even though diagonal quadrants are competing or conflicting, both values are desirable and both create positive values" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 65). The oppositional natures of the models and roles in the framework "are not opposites in a mutually exclusive sense like short and tall. Empirically it is possible to engage in behaviours at two opposite points in the framework" (Quinn 1988, p. 85). Thus, the CVF does not treat one model or one role "as desirable and the other as not, or we (the CVF) concentrate on one and ignore the other entirely" (Quinn 1988, p. 87).

Second, the CVF makes values explicit. "Leadership prescriptions often suggest only one aspect of a more complex set of paradoxical leadership attributes—i.e. leaders should be caring (not confrontational), visionary (not pragmatic), confident (not humble), engaging (not autonomous)" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 82). In contrast, the CVF has "no assumed right answer, no one best way to manage" (Quinn 1988, p. 88). The CVF (Quinn 1988, pp. 87-88) "does not impose values" but it makes values explicit. The juxtaposition of each element with its opposite in the framework makes its meaning "even clearer than it usually would be and the values surrounding both elements are made more explicit." Consequently, these explicit values will help leaders and managers "carry around implicitly and ensure that other values are also considered in a positive way." The CVF "extends beyond seeing only tension in opposing perspectives by guiding the integration of positive opposites" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 65). "These positive opposites are brought to mind by highlighting the tensions inherent in the diagonal quadrants of the framework" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 82).

Third, the CVF provides a dynamic focus. The explicit values which are competing in a cognitive sense allow for dynamic tension in the CVF. As we know that, in the real world, "organisations are usually not without tension, neither are managers", therefore, "many diverse kinds of behaviours are expected, and these are, at minimum, distant, at maximum, competing" (Quinn 1988, p. 88). This dynamic tension allows for the fact that "a manager may engage in a set of behaviours reflecting one set of values at one point and in an entirely different set of values at another point" (Quinn 1988, p. 88). The CVF creates "continua with each end labelled by an opposing or contradictory value" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 65).

Finally, the CVF provides consistent categories. The CVF is consistent and dynamic. It is consistent because "the CVF helps identify a set of guidelines that can enable leaders to diagnose and manage the interrelationships, congruencies, and contradictions among these different aspects of organisations" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 6).

When we look at Table 3.2, comparing the three other major theories of managerial leadership roles of Quinn (1988), Luthans and Lockwood (1984), and Yukl (1981), we see that "a maximum of two entries are provided for each role from each author" (Quinn 1988, p. 88). Luthans and Lockwood see the broker role from Quinn as interacting with outsiders and socialising/politicking; and Yukl describes this role as representation and external monitoring. The producer role does not exist in the theories of Luthans and Lockwood.

Table 3.2   *A Comparison of the Eight Role Categories with Other Approaches*

Quinn (1988)	Luthans & Lockwood (1984)	Yukl (1981)
1. Producer	-	-Performance emphasis -Inspiration
2. Director	-Planning/Coordination	-Goal setting -Role clarification
3.Coordinator	-Decision making/ problem solving -Disciplining/ punishing	-Coordinating -Problem solving
4. Monitor	-Processing paper work -Monitoring/ controlling performance -Exchanging information	-Information dissemination -Internal monitoring
5. Facilitator	-Managing conflict	-Interaction facilitation -Conflict management
6. Mentor	-Motivating/reinforcing -Training/developing -Staffing	-Consideration -Praise recognition
7. Innovator	-	-
8. Broker	-Interacting with outsiders -Socialising/politicking	-Representation -External monitoring

Source: Quinn (1988, Table 2, p. 89), Beyond Rational Management (Jossey–Bass Publishers, San Francisco, London).

Compared to Mintzberg's ten executive roles, the CVF is more consistent in the distinctions between categories. For example, in their study, McCall and Segrist (1980 cited in Bass 1990, pp. 399-400) found that "managers performance in six of the roles correlated with the managers' rate of promotion, they obtained too much overlap in the activities among Mintzberg's roles, which were supposed to be distinct." Thus, "the framework (CVF) is consistent with existing categories in the literature" (Quinn 1988, p. 88).

These conceptual advantages of the CVF lead hundreds of firms around the world to use it as an assessment model (or tool) to study managerial leadership roles and effective organisational performance (Quinn 1988; O'Neill and Quinn 1993; Cameron et al. 2006). It seems that the CVF "was developed in response to the need for a broadly applicable model that would foster successful leadership, improve organisational effectiveness, and promote value creation" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 6). In relation to promoting value creation in organisations, the CVF is seen as the applicable tool as it "advocates an integrated and comprehensive approach to value creation which uncovers many alternatives to traditional financial measures of value" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 25). The CVF really "helps

uncover the underlying relationships that reside in organisations, leadership, learning, culture, motivation, decision making, cognitive processing, creativity, and so on" (Cameron et al. 2006, pp. 7-8). These create the practical advantages of the CVF. In the next section, we will discuss some of the many empirical studies which have successfully used the CVF.

3.4.4   Plausibility of the CVF

Zafft, Adams, and Matkin (2009) measure leadership in self-managed teams using the CVF. They (2009, p. 278) propose that "teams who use three or four of the leadership profiles of the CVF will perform better (in terms of grades) than teams who use two or less throughout the teaming experience."

Hooijberg and Petrock (1993) describe how the CVF is one of the best organisational models available to help the Plant Leadership Team AT&T Interconnection Technologies diagnose their existing and desired cultures and execute strategies for major cultural change. Hooijberg and Petrock (1993) show that:

> The AT&T leadership team wants to increase the clan and adhocracy cultures and decrease the hierarchy and market cultures … The benefits they expected to accrue from an increased morale, commitment, productivity, and number of people included in decision making and decreased unproductive discussion. The benefits for the company they listed from decreasing the emphasis on the Market culture included less bureaucracy, dictatorship and wasted energy and more freedom" (pp. 36-37).

In the case of AT&T, Hooijberg and Petrock (1993, p. 46) find an additional strength of the CVF, that is, "the CVF can portray an overall culture change for the entire organisation of 2000 people and at the same time allow different cultures to develop at the Internal Business Units (IBU) or departmental level."

Cooper and Quinn (1993) use the CVF to develop a framework of Management Information Systems (MIS) effectiveness which links MIS characteristics to organisational effectiveness via management activity support. They (1993, p. 181) use the combination of the two MIS characteristics—technical and capability—to "determine the helpfulness of MIS for management in pursuit of organisational effectiveness." Then, they map the capability and technical characteristics to the CVF. Cooper and Quinn (1993, p. 187) find "the similarity between the theoretical mapping and the experts' cognitive structure supports the notion that the MIS

effectiveness framework properly reflects the theoretical MIS effectiveness construct."

DiPadova and Faerman (1993) explore the use of the CVF of Organisational Effectiveness and of Managerial Leadership as a tool for helping organisation members better understand the similarities and differences in managerial leadership roles at various levels of hierarchy. They conducted a series of interviews at three hierarchical levels: first level managers, mid-level managers, and upper level managers. DiPadova and Faerman (1993) show that:

> Managers at each level were able to identify with all eight roles of the CVF … Managers at all levels have vision, deal with people outside the organisation, and are concerned with detail and monitoring work. While there are differences in the way the levels experience their roles, it is clear that all levels perform in all four quadrants of the CVF" (p. 147).

DiPadova and Faerman (1993, p. 162) also reported that the CVF is also a good tool to examine "the transition from one managerial level to the next, managers can better understand how their expected behaviours differ across levels of hierarchy; they can see how the roles manifest themselves in different ways in different contexts." Clearly, "the CVF ameliorates the separateness" across the hierarchy and "it is an ideal tool to support vertical team building" (DiPadova and Faerman 1993, pp. 168-169).

A study by Belasen et al. (1996, p. 109) proves that the CVF is useful in "helping managers describe how the importance of those roles and tasks changed during organizational transformation, and the clarity of the importance of those roles changed as well." Belasen et al. (1996) confirm that:

> For all roles but Monitor, significant numbers of managers perceived the roles to have increased in importance. All but Monitor are statistically significant at > .001. In the case of the Monitor role, the change in distribution is not reflected in an overall increase or decrease in importance, but rather in a shift to a bimodal distribution. (p. 99) … On average 22% more managers reported that the importance of transformational roles was clearer now than before (48% to 25%), while about 7% more managers reported that the importance of transactional roles was clearer now that before (about 38% to 31%) (p. 104).

In conclusion, these studies reported in this study have tested the validity of the applicability of the CVF in many respects and in many different fields. The studies show that "the CVF serves as a map, an organising mechanism, a sense-making device, a source of new ideas and a learning system" (Cameron et al. 2006, p. 6). How do we see the CVF in our study? How does it help us investigate managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities?

The use of the CVF for this study

For our study, we assume that the CVF is a suitable conceptual framework to explore and investigate managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities. The reasons for this are, firstly, the CVF is a leadership model that integrates leading and managing activities. Its integrated concept is in line with the definition of (dean) leadership posed in this study. Secondly, the CVF offers conceptual advantages that make perceptual biases clear, make values explicit, and provide a dynamic focus (mentioned earlier in subsection 3.4.3).

We use the CVF model as a frame for investigating managerial leadership styles of deans. For this purpose, we follow the conceptual steps of the CVF assessment: behaviours—roles—styles. We call them a 3-1 concept. First, we investigate behaviours of deans by using Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Leadership Instrument based on the CVF. This leadership instrument describes and lists 32 management behaviours that a manager might employ when they lead and manage an organisation. Second, we classify these 32 behaviours into eight managerial leadership roles based on the CVF. Each role consists of four management behaviours. From this point, we come to the third step, styles. We use the eight managerial roles from the CVF as a configuration to explore and identify managerial leadership styles of deans. In other words, the eight managerial leadership roles performed by deans serve as a configuration that pattern their managerial leadership styles. Thus, in this study, *a managerial leadership style is a configuration of the eight managerial leadership roles based on the CVF.*

3.5   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Leadership is a universal phenomenon. People may see it as someone's ability to lead. Some scholars may define it as the activity of influencing other people. Other practitioners may describe it as the ability of leaders to motivate, inspire and direct other people. So, is there any standard definition of leadership? No.

In this chapter, we have discussed the two major contested concepts of leadership and management. Some scholars claim that they are different. Leaders are inspiring, motivating, mentoring, or coaching their followers. Managers focus on controlling, task orientation, financing, and planning. Some other researchers claim that leaders, in doing their job, have the same function as managers.

This chapter also described and discussed management and leadership theories, including leadership styles. Early leadership theories suggested that people are born as great leaders. This notion is rejected by behavioural theorists. The behaviourists argue that leadership does not focus on mental qualities but on the actions of leaders, which can be learnt. Situational theorists then argue that leaders choose the best course of action based upon situational variables. Others, such as Contingency theorists, contest that leadership is not only a matter of situational factors but also a matter of leaders' capabilities and the behaviour of followers. Transactional and transformational theories emphasise the importance of the leader's relationship with their followers.

One of the main controversies that emerges from the variety of leadership theories concerns the extent to which effective leadership is dependent on personal qualities and style, irrespective of whether they are born or made, and the impact of situation and context ('does context matter and how does it matter'?). Another issue that emerges from most of the theories is the dichotomous concept of leadership styles. For example, we have Theory X and Theory Y managers; autocratic versus democratic leadership; task- versus people-oriented management style; transactional versus transformational leadership. These dichotomies lead to a belief that one type of leader or management style is better than the other.

In conducting this study, we are aware of the difference between leadership and management. At the same time, we acknowledge the blurred boundaries between them. We realise that in any real organisation, people and task orientations are both necessary; we also want our organisations to have both flexibility and control. In practice, both good leadership and strong management are needed. We perceive them as an integrated framework that embraces the two concepts of leading and managing. We, therefore, believe that people (e.g. deans) who occupy positions can simultaneously employ both managerial and leadership behaviours to meet the expectations of subordinates and the goals of an organisation.

Given the key question of our study, we will take a behavioural approach, i.e. we want to investigate how deans run their faculties. However, taking the limitations

of such an approach into account, we acknowledge that leadership actions and the effects of those actions are context-dependent. This means that we would argue that, for instance, a dean who is running a small science faculty facing declining student numbers may act differently from a dean leading an expanding social science faculty with large numbers of students. At the same time, two deans, each running a small science faculty with decreasing student numbers, may lead differently because they have different traits and values. What is needed is a framework which can portray all leaders' behaviours within the complex and dynamic environment in organisations. The Competing Values Framework (CVF) seems to meet this purpose well.

The CVF is an integrated leadership approach reflecting two dimensions which exist in all organisations. One dimension represents a vertical axis ranging from flexibility to control and the other dimension represents a horizontal axis ranging from an internal to an external focus. These dimensions create four aspects. Each aspect has a polar opposite and contains two leadership roles which could empirically be placed at the two ends of a continuum. These patterns offer conceptual advantages: clarifying perceptual bias, making values explicit, dynamic focus, and consistent categories.

Empirically, the CVF has been tested in many fields including in education. The strengths and applicability of CVF lead us to use the framework to investigate managerial leadership styles of Indonesian deans. We use the 3-1 concept based on the CVF. Firstly, we investigate the behaviours of deans as they lead and manage a faculty (32 management behaviours from the CVF). Secondly, we classify these behaviours into eight managerial roles based on the CVF. Finally, we use these eight roles as a configuration to investigate and pattern a style of deanship. This investigation is of an exploratory nature.

4

CHAPTER

Design and Operationalisation of the Study

"Quantitative research consists of those studies in which the data concerned can be analysed in terms of numbers ... Research can also be qualitative, that is, it can describe events, persons and so forth scientifically without the use of numerical data ... Both types of research are valid and useful."
Best and Khan (Research in Education, 1989, pp. 89-90)

This chapter focuses on the methodology and operationalisation of the study. Section 4.1 describes the research design and methodology. Next, Section 4.2 portrays the data collection and sampling of the study. Section 4.3 explains the operationalisation of the study. Section 4.4 illustrates the steps of analysing the data. The last Section 4.5 summarises and concludes this chapter.

4.1   DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

A research design is a master plan that specifies the methods and procedures for the gathering and analysis of information to answer the research questions. It is a

crucial step in the process from framing the question to analysing data and reporting outcomes. There are a huge variety of research designs. However, in social science research, three types of research are usually used to answer the two basic questions: what is going on and why are these things going on? These three research types are: descriptive, exploratory, and explanatory research design (Babbie 2010).

The selection of a research design depends on several factors, one of them being the purpose of the research (Babbie 2010). The purpose of our study is, firstly, to explore and describe the managerial leadership styles of Indonesian deans and, secondly, to explain why Indonesian deans manage their faculty in a particular way. The most suitable research design for our study is a combination of descriptive, exploratory and explanatory research designs. It is explorative since we investigate the managerial leadership styles of Indonesian deans, which is still a relatively new and under studied subject. A body of knowledge about how and why deans run their faculties in particular ways does not exist. At the same time, it is descriptive because we describe the characteristics of managerial leadership styles in Indonesian faculties and the characteristics of Indonesian deans performing these styles. It is also explanatory because we examine our human behavioural theory-based assumed relationships.

After designing our study, we started to select the most suitable methods to collect our data. There are different methods in social science research: qualitative, quantitative or a mix of the two. The distinction between quantitative and qualitative research is:

> … Quantitative research consists of those studies in which the data concerned can be analysed in terms of numbers ... Research can also be qualitative, that is, it can describe events, persons and so forth scientifically without the use of numerical data ... Quantitative research is based more directly on its original plans and its results are more readily analysed and interpreted. Qualitative research is more open and responsive to its subject. (Best and Khan 1989, pp. 89-90).

Quantitative research aims to "make valid and objective description on phenomena … Attempts are made to discover principles and laws which can be generated to the larger population" (Taylor 2005, p. 91). Qualitative research is "multimethod in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their

natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, and phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them" (Trumbull 2005, p. 101).

"Both qualitative and quantitative methods are useful and legitimate in social research" (Babbie 2010, p. 25). "They are not mutually exclusive. It is possible for a single investigation to use both methods" (Trumbull 2005, p. 90). However, "in choosing one approach over another, the issue should be to assess which approach serve the research under investigation" (Trumbull 2005, p. 105). "Some research situations and topics are amenable to qualitative examination, others to quantification" (Babbie 2010, p. 25).

For our study, the advantage of a qualitative approach would be to gather in-depth insights into the way deans run their faculties. On the other hand, a quantitative approach would provide the opportunity to present 'the general picture' and offer good opportunities to explain why deans run their faculties in a particular way. Furthermore, the standard methods with the theory of reasoned action and its extended models (TPB and RAA) are "largely quantitative in nature" (Ajzen, Online, Frequently Asked Questions, point 27). Therefore, we have selected a quantitative method as the approach that best serves the purposes of our study.

To explore and describe managerial leadership styles of deans in Indonesia, we believe that, among the various quantitative methods available, "survey research is probably the best method available to the social researcher who is interested in collecting original data for describing a population too large to observe directly" (Babbie 2010, p. 254). Given the size of the country and its huge number of higher education institutions, direct observation or face-to-face interviews would severely limit the number of case studies, as well as being both costly and time-consuming. From the options of doing a telephone, mail or online survey, we decided to develop a postal questionnaire; this fits the Indonesian context best. An online questionnaire is not suitable, because internet access in various parts of Indonesia is limited, which would have negative effects on the response rate.

A traditional postal questionnaire is considered to be the most appropriate survey technique to reach a large number of deans in Indonesia. Fowler (2009, p. 82) suggests that a postal mail survey provides access to "widely dispersed samples and samples that for other reasons are difficult to reach by telephone or in person." Moreover, Fowler (p. 82) states that it can be "accomplished with minimal staff and facilities, therefore, unit costs are relatively low." It also gives respondents time to provide thoughtful responses as respondents can complete the questionnaire at a convenient place and time (Fowler 2009). It also means that,

after phrasing the questions, the researcher is not able to influence the answers; in this respect there is no interviewer bias (e.g. Fagence 1974, p. 300). The downsides of this technique are that there is no opportunity for follow-up questions or correction of misunderstandings and response rates are potentially low. Low response rates can have a negative impact on generalising the results.

The written questionnaire that we have developed is based on the TRA and the extended models of the TRA (i.e. the TPB and the RAA) and Quinn's CVF. We used Quinn's Competing Values Leadership Instrument based on the CVF and Cameron and Quinn's Management Skills Profile Instrument within the CVF to measure the behaviours of deans (see the next section of this chapter). The questions about attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and background factors are formulated to be compatible with the behaviours and are clearly defined in terms of actions and language used.

The questionnaire is translated from English to Bahasa Indonesia. Without underrating the English proficiency of deans in Indonesia, the reasons for the use Bahasa Indonesia are: (1) to make the messages clearer and more explicit (Harkness and Schoua-Glusberg 1998); (2) to "field items originally conducted in another language" (Harkness and Schoua-Glusberg 1998, p. 88); and (3) "to produce instruments that maintain equivalence of measurement across languages/dialects … Only in this way will it be possible to achieve results that are comparable cross-nationally" (Loeb 2011, WG-11 Presentation, slide 2).

In terms of the translation process, there is no substantial difficulty with the content. This is because the leadership instruments used for the study contain general questions relating to regular managerial activities. Thus, the content of the questionnaire in Bahasa Indonesia remains the same as the original instruments in English (see Appendix A1).

The questionnaire relies on self-reporting. We used self-report because "self-report is often used to aid behavioural prediction …" and "self-report is often equal or superior to alternative assessment approaches in predicting discrete behavioural outcome" since "self-report items are targeted at the particular information needed" (Baker and Brandon 1990, pp. 34-37). However, self-reporting is not a flawless method, the advantages and limitations will be discussed below.

Self-reports of behaviour can have certain advantages over direct observation (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen 2010; Baker and Brandon 1990). First, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980, pp. 33-38) argue that many behaviours are not

directly accessible to an observer and for this reason it may be necessary to rely on the actor's self-report. Self-reports are believed to be "one of the primary means of obtaining information about a person …" (Smyth et al., n.d., p. 1) in which "researchers rely on the answers that research participants provide to learn about individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behaviours …" (Schwarz 1999, p. 93).

Further, Gordon Allport (1942 cited in Baker and Brandon 1990, p. 37 and in Osberg and Shrauger 1986, p. 1044) recommended that "if we want to know how people feel: what they experience and what they remember, what their emotions and motives are like, and the reasons for acting as they do—why not ask them?" Self-reports of behaviour can, therefore, provide relevant information which yields the accurate self-predictions needed by investigators (Osberg and Shrauger 1986). Budd (1987 cited in Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 310), however, argues that "self-presentational concerns may lead participants to strive to create a degree of consistency among the theory's components that did not exist prior to completing the questionnaire."

Regarding techniques for increasing the accuracy of answers in self-reports, Fishbein and Ajzen (2010, p. 37) suggest that "we can assure them (respondents) of confidentiality or anonymity, we can ask them to sign a declaration or contract that they will tell the truth, we can try to impress them with the importance of providing accurate data for scientific purposes, or we can convince them that the accuracy of self-reports can be verified (e.g. by checking with others knowledgeable about their behaviour)" (see also Baker and Brandon 1990, pp. 46-47).

Second, it is an efficient way of gathering information because "as opposed to direct behavioural observation, it is unnecessary to follow the client into the extra-laboratory world in order for the client to predict his or her future behaviour or for the client to label his or her current mood" (Baker and Brandon 1990, p. 37). Therefore, self-reports of behaviour do not require much effort, time, or money (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Baker and Brandon 1990; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). In our case, it would be problematic, or even unrealistic, to observe what deans actually do in running their faculties, particularly if we want to study a large number of deans. Deans would have to be 'under surveillance' for many hours a day.

Third, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980, p. 38) argue that behaviour measured through self-reporting is "especially convenient when we want to observe a given behaviour repeatedly or when we are interested in a general behavioural

category." For example, it is easier to obtain data by asking deans to indicate how often they attend meetings in a week than by counting how often they do this.

Fourth, "they (self-reports) provide an easy means of defining each of the four elements (the action, target, context and time) at any level of generality" (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, p. 39). For example, a dean can be asked to indicate whether he or she performed a specific behaviour (e.g. negotiating) in the past month. "Such behavioural criteria are very difficult to observe but are easily measured by means of self-reports" (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, p. 38). "Self-report is valuable to the extent that it is useful in predicting and explaining important events or behaviour" (Baker and Brandon 1990, p. 38).

Self-reporting also has limitations. In our theory section, we acknowledge that there is an issue related to the potential effects of assessing beliefs, attitudes, and perceived norms on correlations with the theory of reasoned action's components (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). This issue underlies an assumption that the questionnaire may encourage a certain kind of response bias, that is, "the discrepancy between what managers say they do in response to questionnaire and what they actually do is to be expected" (Bass 1990, p. 390). For several reasons, self-reported behaviour can deviate from actual behaviour (Wagner and Rabkin 2000 cited in Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 37). Its accuracy, reliability and validity can, therefore, be questioned. People may also be unable to accurately recall how they behaved. The timing can play a role in this—behaviours from a long time ago are more difficult to recall than recently performed behaviours. People may also choose not to report their behaviour accurately due to issues of self-presentation or self-protection. Questions on behaviour that is regarded as socially sensitive are particularly prone to this bias. For example, people tend to underreport drug use (Lapham, C'de Baca, Chang, Hunt, and Berger, 2002 cited in Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 37).

The frequency of behaviour can also affect the ability to recall the behaviour. "Frequently occurring events (behaviours) are familiar to us and thus easy to recall. Familiar events often are more easily recalled than less frequent events (behaviours)" (Stroh et al. 2002, p. 95). Things may be different for infrequent behaviours, although such behaviours "especially if they are of personal significance, are well recalled even after an extended period of time (Schwarz, Groves, and Schuman, 1998 cited in Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 37). Regarding methodological implications, Schwarz (1999, p. 98) states that "when the behaviour is rare and important, and hence well-represented in memory, or when the respondents engage in the behaviour with high regularity (e.g. "every

Sunday"), the impact of response alternatives is small because no estimation is required …"

Without downplaying the potential disadvantages of self-reporting, we would argue that if there are no reasons to believe that we are investigating sensitive areas, the likelihood that self-reporting behaviours will differ from actual behaviours is low. In this, we support Ajzen (1988) that:

> … when the behaviour of interest is not particularly sensitive, self-reports tend to be quite accurate … The percentage of accurate reporting in … different domains varied from 60% to 98%. In conclusion, when investigating a sensitive domain, respondents may—knowingly or unknowingly—misreport their behaviour, but with respect to relatively insensitive behaviours, there is considerable consistency between self-reports and more objective measures (p. 103).

Fowler (2009, p. 74) goes a step further when he argues that, with respect to sensitive issues, "self-administered procedures are thought to be best because the respondent does not have to admit directly to an interviewer a socially undesirable or negatively valued characteristic or behaviour." For our study, we would argue that the way a dean runs a faculty, answered anonymously, concerns non-sensitive behaviour. We acknowledge that opinions may differ. However, this assumption will not be tested as we believe that the risk of receiving biased answers as the result of measuring behaviour through self-reporting is limited. However, this does not guarantee accurate descriptions of a dean's behaviour.

Regarding the validity of self-reports, many researchers support it. In their study of the validity of individual's self-assessments, Shrauger and Osberg (1981, pp. 340-341) indicate that "the self-assessment measures were significantly more accurate predictors of the criterion ($z = 2.9$, $p < 0.01$)." Furthermore, Shrauger and Osberg (1981, cited in Osberg and Shrauger 1986, p. 1045) concluded that "in many important areas, such as the prediction of vocational choice, academic achievement, job performance, peer ratings, reactions to psychotherapy, and adjustment following psychiatric hospitalisation, self-assessments are at least as predictive as traditional assessment methods, if not more." In reviewing a tremendous amount of data attesting to the validity of self-report across a wide range of assessment tasks, Osberg and Shrauger (1986), Shrauger and Osberg (1981), and others (e.g. Mischel 1977), as cited in Baker and Brandon (1990, p. 37),

conclude that "self-report is often equal or superior to alternative assessment approaches in predicting discrete behavioural outcome."

Lykins, Pavlik, and Andrykowski (2007, p. 490) concluded that "the validity of self-reports of TVS (transvaginal sonography) screening for ovarian cancer is very high and may even exceed the validity of self-reports of participation in breast, cervical, and colorectal cancer screening over similar recall periods." According to Aitken et al. (1995), Kerber and Slattery (1997), and Ziogas and Anton-Culver (2003), as cited in Smyth et al. (n.d., p. 10), self-report appears to "provide valid information for first-degree relatives and common cancers."

Furthermore, Patrick and colleagues (1994, p. 1091) suggest that the overall validity of smoking self-reports is high, "with sensitivity of self-report was 87%, and the specificity was 89%." The validity of self-reported smoking is also supported by Kentala, Utriainen, Pahkala, and Mattila 2004; Wills and Cleary 1997. They (cited in Smyth et al., n.d., p. 6) support that "self-reports of cigarette smoking also appear to be valid among adolescents across racial/ethnic groups."

A study of body mass index (BMI) conducted by Palta, Prineas, Berman, and Hannan (1982 cited in Smyth et al., n.d., p. 10) indicates that "there is evidence for the validity of BMI self-reports." Another similar study also supports this finding. A study of body mass index (BMI) and waist circumference (WC) in a Dutch overweight working population conducted by Dekkers et al. (2008, Conclusion section, para. 1) concludes that "self-reported BMI and WC are satisfactorily accurate for the assessment of the prevalence of overweight or obesity and of increased WC in an overweight working population." Moreover, Weaver and colleagues (1996 cited in Smyth et al., n.d., p. 10) found that "Waist-to-Hip Ratio (WHR) can be measured accurately by self-report …"

All these empirical findings suggest that self-reports of behaviour are valid and accurate for collecting personal information. However, self-assessments have been questioned. Research indicates that outcomes of self-reported and peer-reported behaviours differ, that is, the scores of self-reports are usually higher than those of peer-reports (De Boer, and Goedegebuure 2009). Some studies have compared self-assessments and peer-assessments. Hase and Goldberg (1967 cited in Shrauger and Osberg 1981, p. 338) found that "individuals' self-ratings on specific traits to be comparable or better predictors of peer ratings than were more complex scales for measuring the same dimensions." Scott and Johnson (1972 cited in Shrauger and Osberg 1981, Table 6, p. 339), conducting three studies in which they compared direct self-reports and friends' (or peers') ratings of attitudes and motives, reported that direct self-report measures showed better

predictions than the indirect measures. Wallace and Sechrest (1963 cited in Shrauger and Osberg 1981, p. 340), comparing self-descriptions with projective test and peer ratings, concluded that "self-report measures were clearly better predictors of peer ratings."

In a study of self-appraisals of 11 different personality traits conducted by Zuckerman et al. (1988 cited in Baker and Brandon 1990, p. 44), the results indicate that "the extent to which relevance, consistency, and observability ratings moderated the prediction of peer ratings varied greatly from one trait to another. These results suggest that self-reports of traits will generalize across broad situations if subjects view the trait as an important determinant of their behaviour, as influencing their behaviour across diverse circumstances, and as influencing their behaviour in observable, salient ways."

If it is likely that self-reporting is more 'optimistic' than peer-based reporting (or peer assessment of behaviour), this should be taken into account when we are drawing our conclusions on the behaviours of deans. The obvious solution to this 'problem' would be to ask both the deans and others such as colleagues, academics, or students about the way a dean runs a faculty. This research strategy is, however, not followed in this study mainly for pragmatic reasons. First, it would have raised the sensitivity of the study, thus increasing the likelihood of biased answers, and would probably have lowered the response rates. Second, resources were not available for such a large expansion of the study. The alternative was to decrease the number of case studies, an option which would not have provided 'the general picture' of managerial leadership styles of deans in Indonesia.

4.2   DATA COLLECTION AND SAMPLING OF THE STUDY

Data Collection, Population and Sample

The study makes use of questionnaires as the main tool to collect the data. We carried out two surveys. In the first survey, we aimed to measure the deans' managerial leadership styles from their attitudes and their subjective norms based on the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980). We carried out the second survey after we decided to extend the model from a volitional to a non-volitional one, which required adding perceived behavioural controls as one of the determinants of attitudes and subjective norms (based on the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen 1985) and the reasoned action approach (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). The second survey, which only addressed perceived behavioural

controls, was a follow-up sent to all respondents to the first survey (see Appendix A2).

Before conducting the first survey, we sent the questionnaire to 10 deans as a pilot. The aim of this pilot was to ensure that the questions were clear and understood by the deans (Babbie 2010). The results indicated that the deans understood the questions well. The first survey was conducted by post and the follow-up survey by fax.

Determining the targeted population for the survey was a challenge because no data on the total number of deans in Indonesian universities was available. Data on higher education for the year 2006-2007 indicates that there are 419 universities in Indonesia, spreading from Sumatera to Papua. The number of faculties at each of the 419 universities varies. If we assume that the average university has six faculties, we have 2,514 deans as the total dean population of Indonesia. It would be preferable to have more than 2,500 deans participating in our research but for pragmatic reasons, this was considered unfeasible (due to limitations of data accessibility, time and cost). To have good and useful data, we decided to use the list of 120 accredited universities on the Website of the Indonesian Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE 2008). These accredited universities include private and public, small and large, and suburban and urban universities. The number of faculties per university again varies in this group of universities. We estimate that the average university in this group has eight faculties. If this estimate is correct, then the population of Indonesian deans is 960.[6] Due to time and budget limitations, we decided not to include the whole population of nearly a thousand deans, but to select half as our sample of deans for the research. The process of selection was as follows.

To obtain a representative sample, we applied a stratified random sample by dividing the Indonesian Archipelago into two subgroups: Western Indonesia and Eastern Indonesia. "Stratifying in advance ensures that the sample will have exactly the same proportions in each class (for our study, in each part of Indonesia) as the whole population" (Fowler 2009, p. 26). Due to the fact that the development of Western Indonesia is more advanced than that of Eastern Indonesia, including in education [based on State Policy Guidelines *Garis-garis Besar Haluan Negara* (GBHN) 1993], more universities are found in Western Indonesia. As a result, the proportional sampling is dominated by universities from Western Indonesia. Within the subgroups, a simple random sample is employed to ensure that each university in our population has an equal chance of

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[6] From the information that we received from the deans participating in this study this average of eight faculties per university seems about right.

being chosen (Fowler 2009). This technique was also "a way to remove bias in sample selection" (Learner, Online). Thus, 60 universities were selected, representing universities from Western Indonesia (Java, Sumatera, Kalimantan, and Bali) to Eastern Indonesia [Sulawesi, Papua, Nusa Tenggara Barat (NTB) and Nusa Tenggara Timur (NTT)]. In the process of distributing the questionnaire, we found that it was difficult to find faculty contacts in some selected universities. In the end, we identified 443 deans to serve as the sample of deans for the study.

Dissemination and Response

In the last week of March 2008, the first questionnaire was sent to 443 deans, together with an official letter asking for participation, offering the results of the study in return for completion and promising that answers would be treated confidentially. To increase the response rate, a stamped, self-addressed envelope to return the questionnaire was also enclosed. A reminder was sent in the last week of April 2008. Finally, a follow-up telephone call was made a week after the requested date of return. By the end of May 2008, we had received a total of 218 completed questionnaires out of 443 questionnaires sent (49%), which we consider a satisfactory response rate. In relation to the estimated population of 960 deans in Indonesia, this response rate equals 23%.

At the beginning of December 2008, the second questionnaire was sent to all respondents to the first survey. This one-page questionnaire addressing questions on perceived behavioural control was sent via fax due to time limitations. At the beginning of January 2009, we had received 75 returned questionnaires (out of 218 participating respondents). These 75 respondents covered the geographical spread from Sumatera to Papua, with a response rate of 34% from the follow-up survey.

Furthermore, we also statistically compared the questionnaires actually returned with the questionnaire disseminated from each region. The results indicated that there is no difference found [Chi-square (7, $N = 218$) = 4.31, $p = 0.74$ for the first survey, Chi-square (7, $N = 75$) = 5.69, $p = 0.58$ for the second survey; both p values are significant at 0.05 level]. For both surveys, the response appears to be representative in terms of geographical spread (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1   *Dissemination of and Response to the Questionnaire*

First survey								
	Western Indonesia				Eastern Indonesia			
	Java	Sumatera	Kalimantan	Bali	Sulawesi	NTB	NTT	Papua	Total
Questionnaires disseminated	281	53	23	31	28	6	8	13	443
Questionnaires returned	144	25	7	19	11	4	3	5	218
Return rate	**51%**	**47%**	**30%**	**61%**	**39%**	**67%**	**38%**	**39%**	**49%**
Second survey								
	Western Indonesia				Eastern Indonesia			
	Java	Sumatera	Kalimantan	Bali	Sulawesi	NTB	NTT	Papua	Total
Questionnaires disseminated	144	25	7	19	11	4	3	5	218
Questionnaires returned	44	12	2	8	4	2	2	1	75
Return rate	**31%**	**48%**	**29%**	**42%**	**36%**	**50%**	**67%**	**20%**	**34%**

Deans gave several reasons for non-participation (via text messages, calls, and emails). Several deans were reluctant to be evaluated. Some deans said they were too busy and some deans were on duty abroad. Some deans reported a lack of permission to participate from central management. Some deans thought that they could not make a useful contribution to the research as their faculty was only recently established. Finally, some deans indicated a lack of interest in the research topic.

4.3   OPERATIONALISATION OF THE STUDY

According to Baker and Brandon (1990), one of the characteristics of self-reports is that they can be developed quickly. Further, they argue that it is frequently easy to develop self-report items that are targeted at the particular information needed. Once the dependent and independent variables to be examined have been specified, the operationalization of the research model can be measured (Shrauger and Osberg 1981).

Figure 4.1 presents the integration of the two behavioural models and the eight leadership roles of the Competing Values Framework (CVF). The first behavioural model is a volitional behavioural model (in the blue-line box as shown in Figure 4.1). It summarises a model of the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980). It assumes that managerial leadership styles are determined by attitudes towards the styles and subjective norms. The second behavioural model is the non-volitional behavioural model (in the red-line box as shown in Figure 4.1). It represents the extended model of the TRA, that is, the

theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen 1985) and the reasoned action approach (RAA) (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). The non-volitional behaviour model assumes that managerial leadership styles are determined by attitudes towards the styles, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control.

Both of our behavioural models recognise the potential importance of background factors. Theoretically, they may influence behavioural, normative, and control beliefs. By identifying them, we can deepen our understanding of attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 25).

The theoretical framework in this study has five latent variables, namely, managerial leadership styles of deans, attitudes towards the styles, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and background factors.
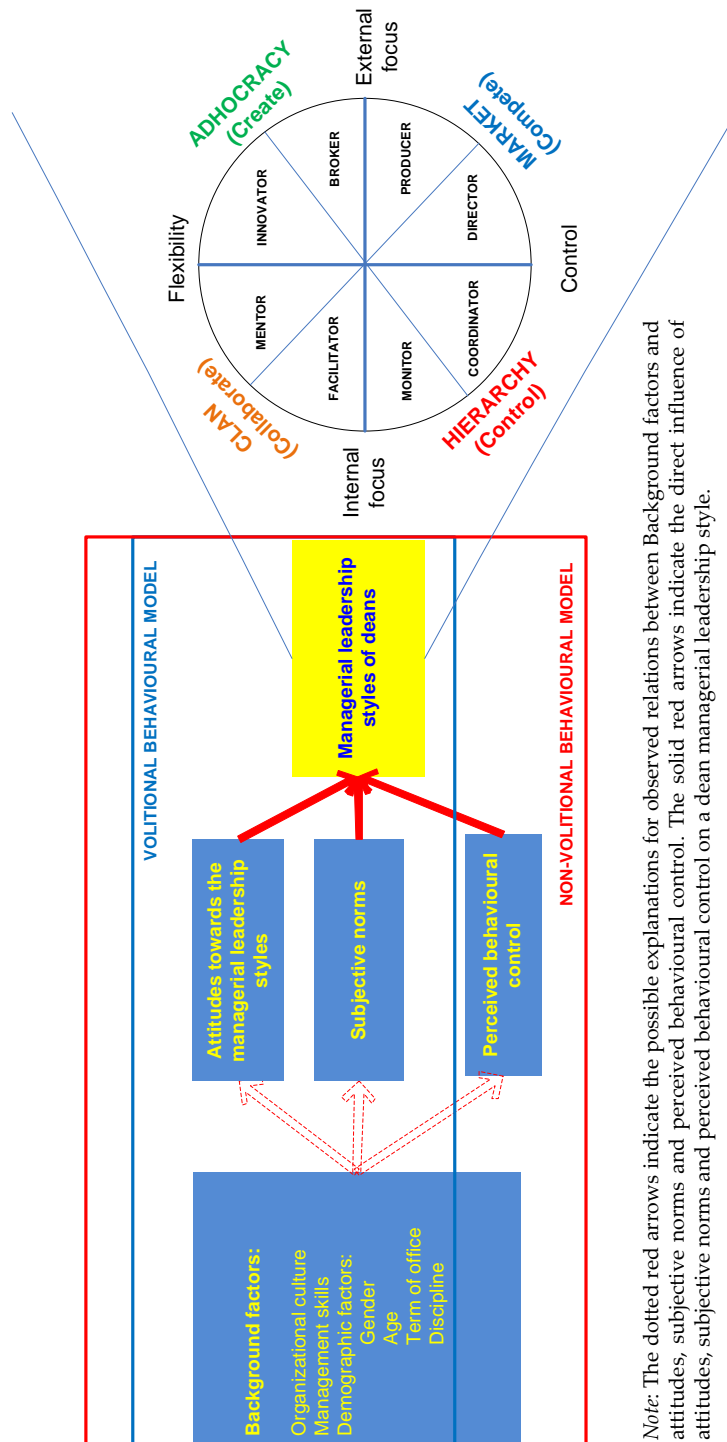
Note: The dotted red arrows indicate the possible explanations for observed relations between Background factors and attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. The solid red arrows indicate the direct influence of attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control on a dean managerial leadership style.

Figure 4.1 The Two Behavioural Models of the Study and the CVF Eight Leadership Roles

1) Managerial leadership styles of deans. For our study, we are interested in investigating managerial leadership styles of Indonesian deans. We would like to know how frequently deans actually perform a behaviour within their day-to-day management and leadership of a faculty in Indonesian universities. For this purpose, we measured behaviours of deans in two ways. We used the questions from the Managerial Leadership of Competing Values Instruments (Quinn 1988) and Management Skills Profile (Cameron and Quinn 2006).

Deans were asked to indicate how often they perform behaviours that are derived from the Managerial Leadership Competing Values Instruments. For the behavioural items, we adapted the wording of the behaviour to the context of higher education (but the meaning remained the same). For the frequency, we used a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) 'never' to (7) 'always'. In the questionnaire, the items in Table 4.2 were randomly presented.

Table 4.2 *A Classification of Behaviours with respect to the Eight Managerial Leadership Roles Based on the CVF*

Q: How often do you as a dean actually…(from (1) 'never' to (7) 'always')

Managerial leadership role	Behaviour
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 unconventional way; • Search for innovations and potential improvements and encourage 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 performance 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; • Emphasise the faculty's achievement 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;
	• Minimise disruptions in daily practices to have an untroubled faculty;
	• Keep a close track of what goes on in the faculty (using control and monitoring 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 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 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 eight managerial leadership roles, each based on the four items have been calculated as follows:

Equation 4.1   Managerial Leadership Roles Based on the CVF

$$\text{MLR}_j = \sum_{i=1}^{4} \frac{R_i}{4} \text{ , for j} = 1, 2, ..., 8.$$

MLR_j is the managerial leadership roles. The R_i represents each managerial leadership role in which it consists of four items.

In the questionnaire, deans were also asked to indicate to what extent their behaviour is similar to a description of eight leadership roles which stems from Management Skills Profile (Cameron and Quinn 2006, p. 128). We slightly modified the wording of the descriptions to suit the context of higher education (the modified wording did not change the meaning). We used a seven point Likert scale ranging from (1) 'absolutely not similar' to (7) 'perfect match'. A description of eight managerial leadership roles based on the CVF is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3   *A Description of the Eight Managerial Leadership Roles Based on the CVF*

Q: To what extent is the following description similar to the way in which you run your faculty in practice? (from (1) 'absolutely not similar' to (7) 'perfect match')

Managerial leadership role	Behaviour description
Innovator	I am unconventional and creative. I envisage change. My influence is based on anticipation of a better future for the faculty and I generate hope in the faculty. I actively pursue innovation and adaptation.
Broker	I am future-oriented in my thinking. My focus is on where the faculty is going and I emphasise possibilities as well as probabilities. I spend a lot of time on strategic direction and continuous improvement of faculty activities.
Producer	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 faculty.
Director	I am aggressive and decisive. I am energised by competitive situations. Winning is my dominant objective and I have a focus on external competitors and the faculty's market position. I actively pursue the goals and targets of the faculty.
Coordinator	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 faculty.
Monitor	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.
Facilitator	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 actively pursue staff participation and openness in faculty decision making.
Mentor	I am caring and empathetic. I am 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.

2) Attitudes toward the managerial leadership styles of deans. Theoretically, attitudes towards the managerial leadership styles (A) are determined by behavioural belief (b) and evaluation of outcome (e). A behavioural belief is the subjective probability that the behaviour will produce a given outcome. In constructing a questionnaire, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980, p. 71) suggest that "the statements have to be phrased such that the beliefs correspond to the attitude toward the behaviour." We measured behavioural beliefs of deans by providing a question consisting of 16 items which create their attitudes towards the eight managerial leadership roles in the CVF. The 16 items represented the deans' perceived consequences of the behaviours, which were measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) 'not important at all' to (7) 'extremely

important'. To assess the behavioural beliefs of deans, we calculated the means. Table 4.4 below shows a classification of behavioural beliefs with respect to eight managerial leadership roles based on the CVF. In the questionnaire, these items were randomly presented.

Table 4.4   *A Classification of Behavioural Beliefs with respect to the Eight Managerial Leadership Roles Based on the CVF*

Q: In running my faculty, I think that…(from (1) 'not important at all' to (7) 'extremely important')

Managerial leadership role	Behavioural belief
Innovator	• Creative policy making, having guts and being enterprising without fearing the consequences of failure; • On-going encouragement of change and innovation in the faculty, for instance by creating sufficient space and time for brainstorming;
Broker	• A good policy network inside and outside the university; • Active engagement in formal and informal decision making at the central level of the university;
Producer	• Pushing academic staff to achieve ambitious, highly competitive faculty goals; • Scanning of and marketing in higher education and research markets;
Director	• Having clear and undisputed faculty objectives; • Academic staff members knowing and accepting the strategic direction and priorities of the faculty;
Coordinator	• Standardisation of work processes to establish coherence and predictability; • Statistics, elaborate documentation and management information systems;
Monitor	• Formal rules and policies hold the faculty together and taking formal rules very seriously and doing things by book; • Detailed monitoring and quality control systems for teaching and/or research;
Facilitator	• A strong sense of community, with staff feeling at home and sharing objectives; • High staff commitment through consensus-based decision making;
Mentor	• Having concern for the personal needs of academic staff members; • Explicit attention for the individual staff members of the faculty, his or her personal development and competence.

The other determinant of attitudes are evaluations of outcomes. Deans were asked to evaluate their behavioural beliefs which led to the outcome (either

positive or negative). For this, we provided eight items that weight the deans' behavioural beliefs as shown in Table 4.5. These were measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) 'not important at all' to (7) 'extremely important'.

Table 4.5   *A Classification of Evaluation of Outcome with respect to the Eight Managerial Leadership Roles Based on the CVF*

Q: In running my faculty, … (from (1) 'not important at all' to (7) 'extremely important')

Managerial leadership role	Weight belief
Innovator	Promoting change within the faculty.
Broker	Developing plans with original, new ideas and concepts.
Producer	Stimulating staff productivity (more/better output).
Director	Having explicit policy goals that must be met.
Coordinator	Being organised in the most efficient way.
Monitor	Compliance with rules and procedures.
Facilitator	Having high levels of staff participation in strategic decision making.
Mentor	Contributing to personal development of staff.

The aggregated result of the weighted expected consequences gave us attitudes towards a managerial leadership role (embedded in their behaviours) shown in this equation:

Equation 4.2   Attitudes towards a Managerial Leadership Role Based on the CVF

$$A_j = \sum_{i=1}^{2} \frac{b_i}{2} e_j \text{ , for j} = 1, 2, \dots, 8.$$

A_j is attitude toward a managerial leadership role. b_i is the behavioural beliefs leading to some consequences *i*. e_j is the evaluation of outcome *j*.

3) Subjective norms. Theoretically, subjective norms are determined by normative beliefs (n) and motivation to comply (m). A normative belief is the perceived behavioural expectations of important referents. In the study, three important social referents are considered: academics, fellow deans, and central university management. In the questionnaire, deans were asked to assess how they feel about what others think about a dean's behaviour. Four normative belief items, each of them representing one of the four aspects of the CVF, were presented (see Table 4.6). These normative beliefs were measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (-3) 'very negative' to (+3) 'very positive'.

Table 4.6   *A Classification of Normative Beliefs with respect to the Four Leadership Aspects Based on the CVF*

Q: I think that academics, other deans, central university management like to see… (from (-3) 'very negative' to (+3) 'very positive')

Four leadership aspects of the CVF	Normative belief
Hierarchy	Strong coordination and detailed organisation of teaching and research from faculty leadership.
Market	Faculty leadership that encourages market-driven and results-oriented behaviour of academics.
Clan	Faculty leadership actively creating a sense of collectivity with consensual decision making and much personal attention.
Adhocracy	Faculty leadership having a clear vision that embraces innovation and change.

The other determinant of subjective norms is motivation to comply with the important referents. Deans were asked to weight their normative beliefs with compliance motivation for the three important referents. For this, we provided one item weighting the importance of their perceived referents. Deans' compliance was measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) 'not important at all' to (7) 'extremely important' (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7   *A Classification of Motivation to Comply with Important Referents*

Q: To what extent are the views and opinions of… (from (1) 'not important at all' to (7) 'extremely important')

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 aggregated result of the weighted expected opinions of important referents led us to subjective norms as shown in this equation:

Equation 4.3   Subjective Norms with respect to the Four Leadership Aspects Based on the CVF

$$SN_j = \sum_{i=1}^{3} n_j \, m_i \text{ , for j} = 1, 2, ..., 4.$$

SN_j is the (perceived) subjective norm. n_j is the normative belief that referent j thinks one should or should not engage in the behaviour. m_i is the motivation to comply with referent i.

4) Perceived behavioural control. We carried out a follow-up questionnaire which was distributed to the 218 participating deans. This one-page questionnaire (see Appendix A2) focused on the deans' views on the perceived presence of factors that may facilitate or impede the performance of their leadership style (see Chapter 2, section 2.2). The deans were asked to evaluate 11 items which listed some constraints that they might face in managing and leading the faculty. The items were measured on a six-point Likert scale ranging from (1) 'not at all' to (6) 'very high extent'.

For the calculation, these 11 items of control beliefs were reverse coded. For example, the deans were asked 'within your day to day work as a dean, your faculty's information systems are not well developed'. On the questionnaire, when the deans answered (1) 'not at all', this meant that the faculty's information systems were well developed, therefore, we recoded the deans' answer to (6) 'very high extent'.[7]

Then, we carried out a factor analysis which revealed three distinct dimensions of control beliefs (see Appendix B, Table 1 for the results). We name them environmental controls, internal controls, and practical controls. The three perceived controls have relatively good Cronbach's Alpha values, ranging from 0.70 to 0.80 in a respective order. This suggests that the consistency of the items in each control are reliable (Nunnally 1978). A classification of perceived behavioural control is presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8   *A Classification of Perceived Behavioural Control*

Q: Within my day to day work as a dean, I face the following issues… (from (1) 'not at all' to (6) 'very high extent')

Perceived behavioural control (Cronbach's Alpha)	Item
Environmental controls (0.7)	• Faculty's information systems are not well developed. • Academic values in my faculty are very strong and are obstructing change. • There are limited possibilities for me as a dean to make strategic decision at higher management levels. • My administrative support staff has insufficient capacity. • Support and resources from central management are sufficient.

[7] For question numbers 1 to 10, a reverse coded score was applied: from (1) 'not at all' to (6) 'very high extent'. For question number 11, the given answers already represented the correct score.

Internal controls (0.7)	• The faculty culture is at odds with my values and views of how to run a faculty.
	• I do not possess all the skills it takes.
	• Authorities within the faculty are unclear and fragmented.
	• Commitment and engagement of the faculty academics is low in the sense that they primarily focus on disciplinary rather than faculty matters.
Practical controls (0.8)	• Of the size and complexity of my faculty.
	• My workload is too high.

The equation for the factor analysis of perceived behavioural control is shown in equation 4.4:

Equation 4.4   Factor Analysis of Perceived Behavioural Control

$$\text{PBC}_n = \alpha_{n1}F_1 + \alpha_{n2}F_2 + \cdots + \alpha_{nm}F_m\,,$$
$$\text{for } n = 1, 2, \ldots, 11.$$

PBC_n is the perceived behavioural control referring to the number of factorial dimension generated. F is the factorial dimension for PBC_n.

5) Background factors. The background factors may or may not influence the attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. They consist of organisational culture, management skills, and demographic factors. We will start explaining organisational culture (referring to faculty culture) in the study.

Faculty culture: To assess the faculty culture, deans were given a list of questions relating to the faculty's dominant characteristics, organisational glue, organisational leadership, management of employees, strategic emphasis, and success criteria. They were asked to indicate to what extent these six items reflected their own faculty culture. Each item had four questions. These questions were derived directly from the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) (Cameron and Quinn 2006, pp. 26-28). The OCAI is based on the CVF, so each aspect of faculty culture fits into each aspect of the CVF. We slightly modified the wording of the items for the context of our study (the meaning remains unchanged). The OCAI items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) 'absolutely not' to (7) 'completely'. In the questionnaire, the items with respect to the four aspects of faculty culture were randomly presented. Table 4.9 below shows a classification of the four aspects of faculty culture based on the CVF.

Table 4.9 *A Classification of the Four Aspects of Faculty Culture Based on the CVF*

Q: To what extent do these statements match with your faculty? (from (1) 'absolutely not' to (7) 'completely')

Four aspects of faculty culture	Items
Clan	• My faculty is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. Academic staff seems to share a lot of themselves. • The organisational glue that holds my faculty together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to the faculty runs high. • The leadership and management in my faculty are in general considered to emphasise mentoring, facilitating or nurturing. • The management style in my faculty is in general characterised by teamwork, consensus and participation. • My faculty emphasises human development. High levels of trust, openness and participation exist. • Success in my faculty is defined on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment and concern for people.
Adhocracy	• My faculty is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. Academic staff are willing to stick their necks out and take risks. • The organisational glue that holds my faculty together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge. • The leadership and management in my faculty are in general considered to emphasise entrepreneurship, innovation or risk-taking. • The management style in my faculty is in general characterised by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom and uniqueness. • My faculty emphasises acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued. • Success is in my faculty is defined on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.
Market	• My faculty is very results-oriented. A major concern is getting the job done. Academic staff are very competitive and achievement-oriented. • The organisational glue that holds my faculty together is emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. • The leadership and management in my faculty are in general considered to emphasise a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus. • The management style in my faculty is in general characterised by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands and achievement. • My faculty emphasises competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretching targets and winning in the market place are dominant. • Success in my faculty is defined on the basis of winning in the

		market place and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is most important.
Hierarchy	•	My faculty is a very control-oriented and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what academic staff do.
	•	The organisational glue that holds my faculty together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running faculty is important.
	•	The leadership and management in my faculty are in general considered to emphasise coordinating, organising or smooth-running efficiency.
	•	The management style in my faculty is in general characterised by security of employment, conformity, predictability and stability in relationships.
	•	My faculty emphasises performance (permanence) and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.
	•	Success in my faculty is defined on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.

To measure the four aspects of faculty culture, each culture is calculated as follows:

Equation 4.5   Faculty Culture

$$\text{FC}_j = \sum_{i=1}^{6} \frac{I_i}{6} \text{, for } j = 1, 2, 3, 4.$$

FC_j is the faculty culture. I_i is the six items for each dimension of the faculty culture.

Management skills: To assess management skills, a list of 12 management skills was composed, derived from the 12 competency categories (Cameron and Quinn 2006, pp. 120-121). The deans were asked to indicate how important each of the management skills are to succeeding in their current position as a dean. These 12 competency items fit into the four aspects of the CVF; three categories fall in each aspect (see Table 4.10). We slightly modified the wording to fit the context of our study (the meaning did not change). The 12 management skills were measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) 'not important at all' to (7) 'critically important'. Table 4.10 shows a classification of the four aspects of management skills based on the CVF.

Table 4.10 *A Classification of the Four Aspects of Management Skills Based on the CVF*

Q: In order to succeed in your current position as a dean, how important is each of the following skills? (from (1) 'not important at all' to (7) 'critically important')

Four aspects of management skills	Item
Clan	• Managing teams in the faculty (building effective, cohesive, smooth-functioning teams); • Managing interpersonal relationships in the faculty (listening to and providing supportive feedback to others); • Managing the development of human capital in the faculty (helping others improve their performance and obtain personal development opportunities);
Adhocracy	• Fostering innovation in the faculty (encouraging others to innovate and to generate new ideas); • Managing the faculty's future (communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment); • Managing improvement and change in the faculty (fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement among academic staff members in everything they do);
Market	• Managing competitiveness of the faculty (fostering an orientation toward beating the competition); • Managing results of the faculty (motivating and energising others to put in extra effort and to outperform the competition); • Managing customer service (fostering a focus on service and involvement with students and industry);
Hierarchy	• Managing information clarity in the faculty (helping others become clear about expectations, goals and policies and their place in the faculty); • Managing the faculty's control system (having measurement and monitoring systems in place to keep close track of processes and performance); • Managing coordination (sharing information across functional boundaries and fostering coordination with other faculty units).

In order to measure the four aspects of management skills, each aspect is calculated as follows:

Equation 4.6   Management Skills

$$MS_j = \sum_{i=1}^{3} \frac{I_i}{3} \text{ , for j} = 1, 2, 3, 4.$$

MS_j is the management skills. I_i is the three items for each dimension of management skills.

Demographic factors: Finally, deans were asked to fill out demographic information covering personal (e.g. gender, age, term-of-office, and academic discipline) and institutional background (size of faculty and university in terms of students and staff). For the analysis, we took gender, age, term-of-office, and academic discipline that may or may not influence attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (see Chapter 2). We decided to classify the faculties into two categories: technical and non-technical faculty. Technical faculty groups are Agriculture, Engineering, Sciences and Marine Sciences. Non-technical faculty groups are Education, Health and Welfare, Humanities and Arts, Social Sciences, Business and Economics and Law. The complete questionnaire can be found in Appendix A1 and A2.

4.4   DATA ANALYSIS

We conducted a quantitative data analysis, with the four steps presented in Figure 4.2. In the first step, we investigate and explore the managerial leadership styles of deans. From the second to the fourth steps, we examine the path relationship of the models of the study. In the second step, we examine the volitional behavioural model of the study, that is, the influence of attitudes and subjective norms on the managerial leadership styles of deans. In the third step, we examine the non-volitional behavioural model of the study, that is, the influence of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control on the managerial leadership styles of deans. In the final step, we examine the influence of background factors on attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. Each step taken is described and explained in the following paragraphs.
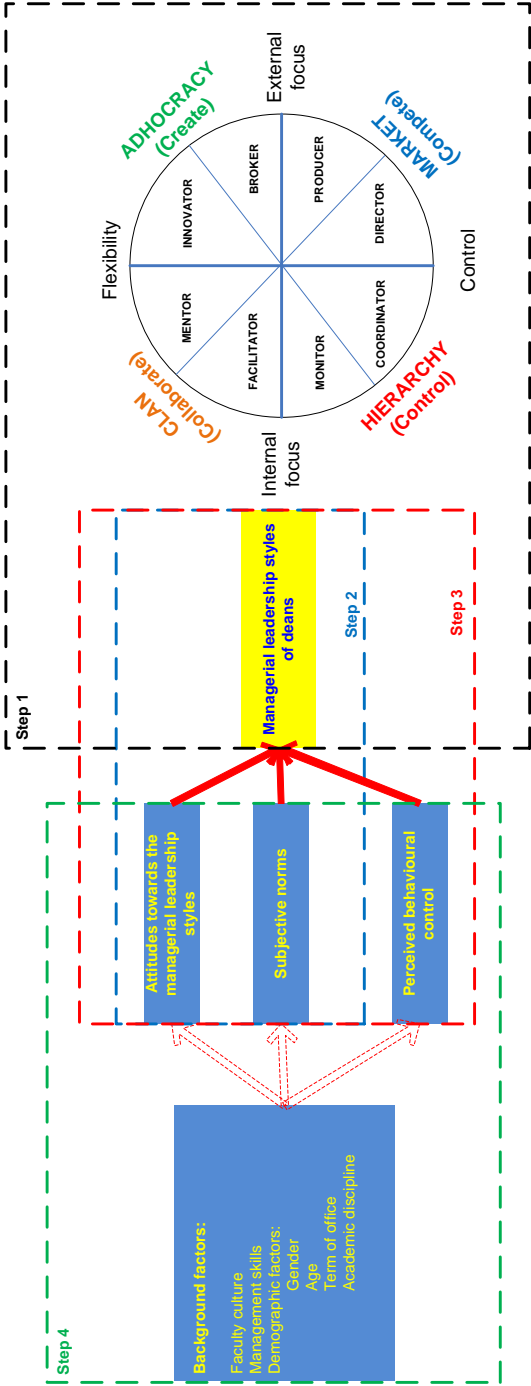
Note: The dotted red arrows indicate the possible explanations for observed relations between background factors and attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. The solid red arrows indicate the direct influence of attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control on managerial leadership styles of deans.

Figure 4.2   Four-step Analyses of the Research Model

First step analysis: Managerial leadership styles of deans

To investigate and describe the managerial leadership styles of Indonesian deans, we used the 3-1 concept of assessment based on the CVF: behaviours—roles—styles (see Chapter 3). In this part of the analysis, descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, frequencies, and Cronbach's Alphas) are mainly used to measure the deans' behaviours and their roles. Then, a cluster analysis is used to classify and identify Indonesian deans who have similar patterns of managerial leadership style based on the eight roles from the CVF. The steps taken are presented in the box below.

Box 4.1 The Steps to Investigating Specific Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans

1)   For each respondent the sum of the scores on the 32 behaviour items were calculated (leading in principle to scores ranging from a minimum of 32 to a maximum of 224).

2)   For each of the eight managerial leadership roles the total scores per respondent were calculated (leading in principle to scores ranging from a minimum of 4 to a maximum of 28).

3)   Next, for each respondent the relative importance of each managerial leadership role was calculated (the managerial leadership role as a percentage of the total sum score).

4)   To prepare for a two-step cluster analysis, the eight managerial leadership roles were categorised in a dummy variable, indicating whether a managerial leadership role was more ('value 1') or less ('value 0') important in the dean's managerial leadership style ('configuration'). If all eight roles were equally important, each of them would represent 12.5% of the dean's managerial leadership style. A managerial leadership role measuring equal to or more than 12.5% means that this role is relatively important in a dean's managerial leadership style; the opposite is true for percentages below 12.5%.

5)   A two-step cluster analysis was executed, using the dummy variables, to determine a limited number of managerial leadership styles and for each dean a cluster membership was determined.

Second step analysis: Volitional behaviour: Influence of attitudes and subjective norms on the managerial leadership styles of deans

The theory suggests that individuals will perform a behaviour of interest when they evaluate it positively (attitudinal considerations) and when they believe that important others think they should perform it (normative considerations). Table 4.11 presents the variables used in the analysis.

Table 4.11   *The Variables in the Second Step Analysis*

Latent variable	Manifest (reflective) variables	Number of indicators	Measurement scale (Likert scale)
STEP 2: Volitional behaviour			
Dependent variable			
Managerial leadership style of deans (MLSD)	R_Innovator, R_Broker, R_Producer, R_Director, R_Coordinator, R_Monitor, R_Facilitator, and R_ Mentor	8 indicators	Never (1) to always (7)
Independent variables			
Attitude (A)	A_Innovator, A_Broker, A_Producer, A_Director, A_Coordinator, A_Monitor, A_Facilitator, and A_ Mentor	8 indicators	Not important at all (1) to extremely important (7)
Subjective norm (SN)	SN_ Adhocracy, SN_Market, SN_Hierarchy, and SN_Clan	4 indicators	Very negative (-3) to very positive (+3)

To examine the influence of attitudes and subjective norms on the managerial leadership styles, a multiple linear regression method is used (equation 4.7).

Equation 4.7   A Model for Explaining the Influence of Attitude and Subjective Norm on the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans

$$\text{MLSD} = \alpha + \beta_{\overline{A}}\,\overline{A} + \beta_{\overline{SN}}\,\overline{SN} + \varepsilon$$

Where MLSD is the managerial leadership style of deans as the dependent variable. $\overline{A}$ is the mean of the attitude and $\overline{SN}$ is the mean of subjective norm; both serve as independent variables. β is the regression coefficient and ε is the residual.

The theory also suggests that the more favourable the attitudes towards a behaviour and the more positive the subjective norms, the more likely people will engage in the behaviour. In line with this assumption, we conducted a further investigation. That is, which dimensions of attitude and which dimensions of

subjective norm influence the managerial leadership styles of deans? To examine this, a multiple regression method is used to investigate whether a managerial leadership style is influenced by the favourable dimensions of attitude towards this style and/ or the favourable dimensions of subjective norm for this style. The model for explaining the relationships of these variables is shown in equation 4.8.

Equation 4.8   A model for Explaining the Zoom-in Analysis of the Styles from Attitude and/or Subjective Norm

$$\text{MLSD} = \alpha + \sum_{k1}^{k8} \beta_k A_k + \sum_{l1}^{l4} \beta_l SN_l + \varepsilon,$$

k represents innovator, broker, producer, director, coordinator, monitor, facilitator, and mentor.
l represents adhocracy, firm, hierarchy, and clan.

Where MLSD is the managerial leadership style of deans as dependent variable. A_k and SN_l are the attitude (referring to k) and the subjective norm (referring to l); both serve as independent variables. β_k, β_l are the corresponding regression coefficients. ε is the residual.

Third step analysis: Non-volitional behaviour: Influence of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control on the managerial leadership styles of deans

The theory assumes that once attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control have been formed, they are directly accessible to explain the behaviour of interest. Table 4.12 presents the variables used in the analysis.

Table 4.12   *The Variables in the Third Step Analysis*

Latent variable	Manifest (reflective) variables	Number of indicators	Measurement scale (Likert scale)
STEP 3: Non-volitional behaviour			
Dependent variable			
Managerial leadership style of deans (MLSD)	R_Innovator, R_Broker, R_Producer, R_Director, R_Coordinator, R_Monitor, R_Facilitator, and R_ Mentor	8 indicators	Never (1) to always (7)
Independent variables			
Attitude (A)	A_Innovator, A_Broker, A_Producer, A_Director, A_Coordinator, A_Monitor, A_Facilitator, and A_ Mentor	8 indicators	Not important at all (1) to extremely important (7)
Subjective norm (SN)	SN_ Adhocracy, SN_Market, SN_Hierarchy, and SN_Clan	4 indicators	Very negative (-3) to very positive (+3)

Environmental control (EC)		5 indicators	Not at all (1) to very high extent (6)
Internal control (IC)		4 indicators	Idem
Practical control (PC)		2 indicators	Idem

To examine this, a multiple regression method is used as shown in equation 4.9.

Equation 4.9   A Model for Explaining the Influence of Attitude, Subjective norm, and Perceived Behavioural Control on the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans

$$\text{MLSD} = \alpha + \beta_1\,\overline{A} + \beta_2\,\overline{SN} + \beta_3\,\overline{EC} + \beta_4\,\overline{IC} + \beta_5\,\overline{PC} + \varepsilon$$

Where MLSD is the managerial leadership style of deans (endogenous) construct variable (η). $\overline{A}$ is the mean attitude and $\overline{SN}$ is the mean subjective norm in which both of them are exogenous (independent) variables ξ_A. and ξ_{SN}. $\overline{EC}$ is the mean environmental control, $\overline{IC}$ is the mean internal control, and $\overline{PC}$ is the mean practical control in which they are exogenous variables ξ_{EC}, ξ_{IC}, and ξ_{PC}. α is the constant, $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_5$ denote the regression coefficients and ε denotes the residual.

Fourth step analysis: Influence of the background factors on attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control

Our theories acknowledge the potential importance of relevant background factors that may or may not influence the three determinants of behaviour under investigation. We have examined the relationship of these background factors to attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. A bivariate and multiple regression method are used. Table 4.13 presents the variables used in the analysis.

Table 4.13   *The Variables in the Fourth Step Analysis*

Latent variable	Manifest (reflective) variables	Number of indicators	Measurement scale (Likert scale)
STEP 4			
Dependent variables			
Attitude (A)	A_Innovator, A_Broker, A_Producer, A_Director, A_Coordinator, A_Monitor, A_Facilitator, and A_ Mentor	8 indicators	Not important at all (1) to extremely important (7)

Subjective norm (SN)	SN_ Adhocracy, SN_Market, SN_Hierarchy, and SN_Clan	4 indicators	Very negative (-3) to very positive (+3)
Environmental control (EC)		5 indicators	Not at all (1) to very high extent (6)
Internal control (IC)		4 indicators	Idem
Practical control (PC)		2 indicators	Idem
Independent variables			
Faculty culture (FC)	FC_Adhocrachy, FC_Market, FC_Hierarchy, and FC_Clan	4 indicators	Absolutely not (1) to completely (7)
Management skill (MS)	MS_Adhocrachy, MS_Market, MS_Hierarchy, and MS_Clan	4 indicators	Not important at all (1) to extremely important (7)
Gender		1 indicator	
Age		1 indicator	
Term-of-office		1 indicator	
Academic discipline		1 indicator	

We conducted a regression analysis for each determinant with regard to the six background factors in our model as shown in equation 4.10.

Equation 4.10   A Model for Explaining the Influence of Background Factors on Deans' Attitude, Subjective Norm, and Perceived Behavioural Control

Predictor	Equation
Faculty culture (FC)	$$Y_{nFC} = \alpha_{nFC} + \beta_{nFCClan}\text{FC}_{nClan} + \beta_{nFCAdho}\text{FC}_{nAdho} + \beta_{nFCMarket}\text{FC}_{nMarket} + \beta_{nFCHie}\text{FC}_{nHie} + \varepsilon_{nFC}$$
	Where Y_n is the dependent variable (referring to the attitude, subjective norm, environmental control, internal control and practical control). FC refers to the faculty culture consisting of four types of culture: clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy for Y_n. $\beta_{nFCClan}$, ..., β_{nFCHie} are the corresponding regression coefficients and ε_{nFC} is the corresponding residual.
Management skills (MS)	$$Y_{nMS} = \alpha_{nMS} + \beta_{nMSClan}MS_{nClan} + \beta_{nMSAdho}MS_{nAdho} + \beta_{nMSMarket}MS_{nMarket} + \beta_{nMSHie}MS_{nHie} + \varepsilon_{nMS}$$
	Where Y_n is the dependent variable (referring to the attitude, subjective norm, environmental control, internal control and practical control). MS refers to the management skills consisting of four skills: clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy for Y_n. $\beta_{nMSClan}$, ..., β_{nMSHie} are the corresponding regression coefficients and ε_{nMS} is the corresponding residual.

Gender, Age, Term-of-Office, Academic discipline (X)	$Y_{nX} = \alpha_{nX} + \beta_{nX}X_{nX} + \varepsilon_{nX}$, for X represents gender, age, term of office or academic discipline. Where Y_n is the dependent variable (referring to the attitude, subjective norm, environmental control, internal control and practical control). X is the explanatory variable for Y_n. β_{nX} is the corresponding regression coefficient and the ε_{nX} is the corresponding residual.

4.5   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The study makes use of three types of research design: descriptive, exploratory, and explanatory. Through surveys, in the form of self-reporting questionnaires, we collected data. The data obtained reflects the subjective self-reported behaviour of deans in their day-to-day management activity. Although self-reporting has its limitations, we assume that, in our study, these limitations are kept within reasonable bounds. Pragmatic reasons, such as resources available, prevented a more sophisticated approach (such as extending the study to peer assessments).

For the surveys, it was difficult to define the targeted population as there was no information on the numbers of deans in Indonesia. However, based on the 120 accredited universities provided online by the Indonesian Directorate General of Higher Education, 960 deans were estimated as the population of deans for the study. Through stratified and simple random samples, a total of 443 deans were selected to be the sample for the study. A total of 218 completed questionnaires was obtained, representing 49% of the research sample (443 deans) and 23% of the research population (960 deans). For the follow-up survey which was sent to all respondents to the first survey, addressing perceived behavioural control, a total of 75 questionnaires were completed. This is 34% of the follow-up sample. Based on the statistical analysis of the dispersion of sample for the study, the results suggest that we have a representative sample of regions.

Regarding the operationalisation of our research, the main theoretical constructs derived from the volitional behavioural model and non-volitional behavioural model of Fishbein and Ajzen and the competing values framework of Quinn have been addressed. As a summary, Table 4.14 depicts the model constructs and how they were assessed in the study.

Table 4.14 *A Summary of the Model Constructs and their Assessments*

Variable	Question item	Response format (Likert-scale)	Equation	Construct measured
Managerial leadership style of deans (MLSD)	32 items (adapted from Competing Values Instrument)	Never (1) to always (7)	$MLR_j = \sum_{i=1}^{4} \frac{R_i}{4}$, for j $= 1, 2, \dots, 8.$	The eight managerial leadership roles based on the CVF.
	8 items of leadership descriptions (adapted from management skills profile)	Absolutely not similar (1) to perfect match (7)		The description of eight leadership roles based on the CVF.
Attitude towards a managerial leadership style of deans (A)	16 items of behavioural beliefs 8 items of evaluation of outcome	Not important at all (1) to extremely important (7)	$A_j = \sum_{i=1}^{2} \frac{b_i}{2} e_j$, for j $= 1, 2, \dots, 8.$	Attitude towards the eight managerial roles based on the CVF.
Subjective norm (SN)	4 items of normative beliefs for each relevant referents	Very negative (-3) to very positive (+3)	$SN_j = \sum_{i=1}^{3} n_j m_i$, for j $= 1, 2, \dots, 4.$	Subjective norm for the four aspects of faculty leadership based on the CVF.
	3 items of motivation to comply	Not important at all (1) to extremely important (7)		
Perceived behavioural control (PBC)	11 items of control beliefs	Not at all (1) to very high extent (6)	$PBC_n = \alpha_{n1}F_1 + \alpha_{n2}F_2 + \dots + \alpha_{nm}F_m$, for n $= 1, 2, \dots, 11.$	The three dimensions of PBC: the environmental, internal, and practical controls.
Faculty culture (FC)	6 items for each faculty culture	Absolutely not (1) to completely (7)	$FC_j = \sum_{i=1}^{6} \frac{I_i}{6}$, for j $= 1, 2, 3, 4.$	The four aspects of faculty culture: clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy.
Management skills (MS)	3 items of skills for each model in an organisation	Not important at all (1) to critically important (7)	$MS_j = \sum_{i=1}^{3} \frac{I_i}{3}$, for j $= 1, 2, 3, 4.$	The four aspects of management skills: clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy.

Figure 4.3 shows a representation of the data analyses of the study. Chapter Six will contain an explorative and descriptive analysis of the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities. Chapter Seven will provide a detailed description of attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and background factors. The final empirical chapter, Chapter Eight, will deepen our understanding of the managerial leadership styles of deans. In this chapter, the explanatory path of the volitional and non-volitional behavioural models will be investigated.
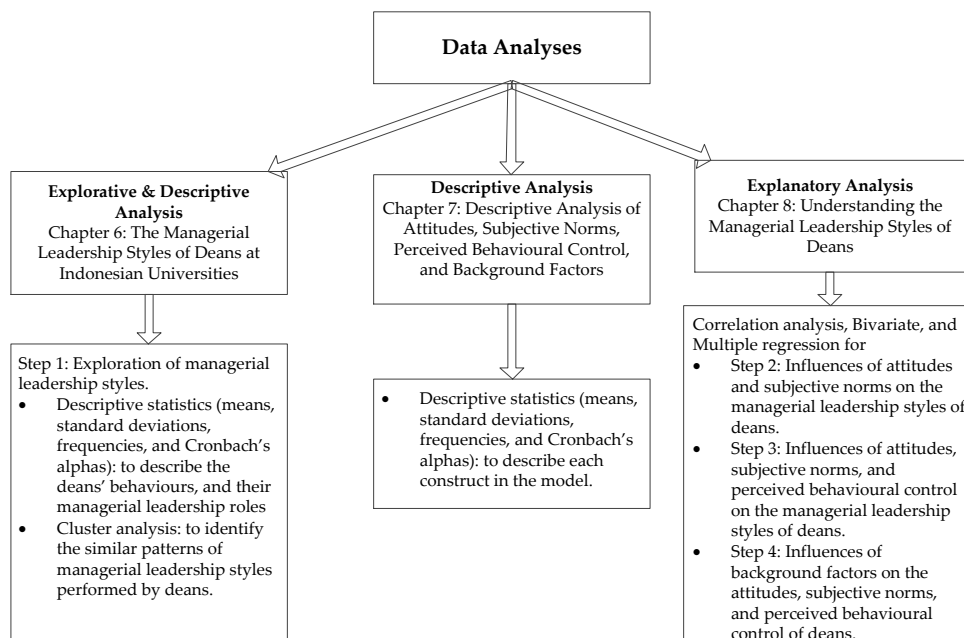
Figure 4.3   An Outline Representation of the Data Analyses for This Study

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5
CHAPTER

Indonesian Higher Education

> "Ing ngarso sung tulodo, ing madyo mangun karso, tut wuri handayani."[8]
> Ki Hadjar Dewantara (1889-1959),
> the first Indonesian minister of education and culture .

This chapter aims to set the context of the study and to provide information about the Indonesian higher education system. In this chapter, a short introduction to Indonesia and a description of the Indonesian higher education system are given. Next, the reforms of the Indonesian higher education system are outlined, which provide the context of this study. This is followed by a description of the internal governance of Indonesian universities. Deanship, in the current context of a new university governance, is then discussed as the key focus of this study.

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[8] Translation: in Indonesian: Di depan memberi contoh, di tengah memberi semangat, di belakang memberi dorongan. In English: We are leading by example, by encouragement, and by support. In Dutch: Leidinggeven door het geven van het goede voorbeeld, aanmoediging en ondersteuning.

5.1   A SHORT INTRODUCTION TO INDONESIA

The name Indonesia originates from the Latin word for *India* (Indus) and the Greek word for *Island* (Nesos). Immediately after World War II, on the 17th August of 1945, independence was proclaimed, marking the beginning of the end of Dutch colonial rule in Indonesia. The Republic of Indonesia is the largest archipelago in the world (more than 17,000 islands) and is the fourth most populous country in the world (about 248 million inhabits in 2011, Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), Online). This population comprises about 3,000 ethnic groups, of which Javanese is the largest (41%). It has the world's largest Muslim population (Muslim 86%). In terms of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita, Indonesia falls between low-income and lower-middle-income countries (rank 154 with US$ 4,700 in 2011, CIA, Online). The main sectors are industry (46%), services (39%), and agriculture (15%). Its main export commodities are oil and gas, electrical appliances, plywood, textiles, and rubber.

Since its first constitution in 1945, the Republic has had a centralised governance structure (unitary state) trying to unify the many ethnic, religious and cultural backgrounds. The highest political institution in the country is the elected People's Consultative Assembly [*Majelis Permusyawaratan Rakyat* (MPR)] that decides on guidelines of state policies, promulgates the constitution and until 2004 appointed the President and the Vice-President. The President—head of state and head of government—is the executive and is accountable to the MPR. Since 2004, the President and Vice-President have been directly elected. Traditionally, power has been concentrated in the hands of the President, although recent changes are leading to a greater role for the legislature. Other important bodies are the Supreme Advisory Council (advising the President), the State Audit Board (exercising financial oversight), and the Supreme Court.

The national education system is divided into four levels of education: pre-school, basic education, secondary education, and higher education. Pre-school education is intended to stimulate the physical and mental growth of pupils outside of the family circle before entering primary education. Basic education is a general education lasting nine years. It consists of six years of primary school and three years of junior secondary school. Secondary education is available to graduates from basic education. It aims (1) to increase students' knowledge to continue their studies to higher levels of education; (2) to develop them in line with the development of science, technology and arts; and (3) to expand their ability as members of the community to interact and mingle with their social, cultural, and natural environment. The types of secondary education include general secondary school, vocational secondary school, and religious secondary school. In 2005, the

net enrolment rate at senior secondary level was "41.6%" (World Bank education sector review 2005 cited in Del Granado et al. 2007, Table 1, p. 2). Higher education, an extension of secondary education, consists of academic and professional education. In 2007, the gross enrolment rate for tertiary education was 17% [Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) 2008].

Law no. 20, 2003 on the National Education System states that the government should allocate a minimum of 20% of its state budget to education (excluding salary of educators). The majority of the allocated public education expenditure goes to the nine-year compulsory basic education. Based on Figures for 2009, about 40% of the educational budget is still for basic education and about 30% of the educational budget goes to higher education (DGHE 2009). For tertiary educational budget, this is a significant increase since 2005, when it was 12% (Del Granado et al. 2007, p. 7).

5.2   THE INDONESIAN HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM

Higher education in Indonesia has a relatively short history. It started in the end of the 19th century when a medical school (Dokter Java School) was established for indigenous doctors. At that time, the number of students was around 200 (Nizam, n.d.). Before WW II, a number of post-secondary schools were founded, with the main purpose of training skilled personnel and professional manpower for the support of the Dutch colonial administration and the development of business enterprises in the Netherlands East Indies (Buchori and Malik 2004). STOVIA (School tot Opleiding van Inlandsche Artsen—medical school), established in 1902, is regarded as the first higher education institution founded by the Dutch colonial government (with teaching in Dutch). In the following years, more medical schools were established at different locations. Institutions in other disciplines (engineering, agriculture, and law) were also established (see for instance Singgih Tri Sulistiyono 2007). In the first half of the 20th century, the number of students grew slowly. Between 1920 and 1941, there were no more than seven hundred indigenous students, the majority of students were Dutch and the others were European.

After proclaiming independence from colonial rule, the number of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) and students started to grow. This expansion started directly after WW II. "By 1950, there were 10 institutions of higher learning, with a total of some 6,500 students" (Azra 2008, p. 142). By the 1960s, each Indonesian province had at least one public university. "No less than 23 new universities, institutes, and teacher training colleges were established during that period, which

more or less covered the 26 provinces of Indonesia" (Nizam 2006, p. 36). By the 1970s, there were 450 HEIs and about 237,000 students. In the next three decades, the higher education system experienced rapid growth. By 1990, there were 900 HEIs with nearly 1,5 million students (Azra 2008) and by 2007 there were nearly 2,700 higher education institutions with 4.3 million students, accounting for approximately 17% of the core age group (19-24 years) (Jalal 2010).

The mission of the HEIs encompasses learning, research, and community services (*Tri Dharma Perguruan Tinggi*). As Table 5.1 shows, nearly all HEIs are private (97%). This bias towards private institutions grew because "the state budget was manifestly insufficient to respond to spiralling demand, across Indonesia's scattered archipelago" (Welch 2007, p. 671). The Government initiated "the Laws of the 1950s and early 1960s that gave legal expression to private higher education" (Welch 2007, p. 671) in order to "accommodate the increasing demand for higher education" (Verheul 2002, p. 189). Since the 1970s, the number of private institutions has grown spectacularly, from less than 400 in 1975 and 1,449 in 1999 (Welch 2007) to 2,598 now (National Education Statistics 2007/2008, MoNE 2007).

Of the 4.3 million students enrolled in higher education, approximately a third study at public institutions. There is not a significant gender gap in tertiary education as the number of female and male students is almost equal (Wicaksono and Friawan 2008).

Table 5.1   *Numbers of Indonesian Higher Education Institutions in 2007/2008*

Types	Public	Private
University	48	375
Institute	6	37
College	2	1,186
Academy	0	884
Polytechnic	26	116
Total	82	2,598

Source: National Education Statistics 2007/2008, MoNE 2007

The higher education system comprises universities, institutes, colleges, polytechnics, and academies (see Table 5.1). Universities are regarded as the highest level and consist of faculties conducting academic and professional education in technology and the arts. An institute consists of faculties conducting academic and professional education in professional disciplines. A college conducts academic and professional education in one particular discipline. A polytechnic delivers applied science education in several fields. An academy

delivers applied science education in one or part of a discipline in technology or the arts.

Based on Law no. 20, 2003, academic programmes are only offered by universities, institutes, and colleges. These academic programmes are a four to five year Undergraduate degree (*Sarjana*-S1), a two or three- year Master's degree (*Magister*-S2), and a three-year Doctoral degree (*Doktor*-S3). All five higher education institution types can offer professional programmes, consisting of diplomas (non-degree) and specialised-degrees. Non-degree programmes vary from one-year diplomas to four-year diplomas. Specialised-degree programmes include specialised 1 (equal to a Master's Degree, taking two to three years) and specialised 2 programmes (equal to a Doctoral Degree, taking three to four years). The move from "an agrarian to a more industrialized society" (Nizam 2006, p. 45) has driven diversification of study programmes. Consequently, there has been a rapid growth in the number of professional and academic study programmes offered. Nizam (n.d., p. 10) reports that "currently there are more than 16,000 study programmes …" offered by Indonesian higher education institutions and more than 14,000 study programmes have been accredited (BAN-PT, Online). All study programmes delivered by private higher education institutions are "co-determined by the Ministry of Education and are accredited by the National Accreditation Board (or *Badan Akreditasi Nasional*, BAN)" (Verheul 2002, p. 189).

The National Accreditation Board (MoNe 2005, PP Nomor 19 2005) is an independent body which reports to the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE). The duties of national accreditation cover 1) evaluating the quality of study programmes of HEIs periodically; 2) giving recommendations to the Ministry through the Directorate; and 3) helping HEIs in quality assurance processes. Due to limited capacity, rapid growth in demand and limited public support, some private institutions face problems in meeting the accreditation and quality assurance requirements.

The Government officially allocates 20% of the total state budget [*Anggaran Pendapatan dan Belanja Negara* (APBN)] for funding national education (Indonesia 2003; DGHE 2008). In 2009, the government allocated around Rp. 207 trillion[9] (20%) from the state budget (around Rp. 1,037 trillion) (Saad 2011). In 2012, the government has allocated around Rp. 286 trillion[10] (20.2%) from the state budget (around Rp. 1,400 trillion) (Presiden Republik Indonesia 2011). Since 2009, the funding allocation for national education has been slightly increased.

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[9] The exchange rate in 2009 was US$1 is approximately Rp. 10,000.
[10] The exchange rate in 2012 is US$1 is approximately Rp. 12,000.

"The 2009 Government budget for higher education is around 18.5 trillion Rupiah, or US$1.8 billion. Around 85% of the budget supports tertiary education institutions: 69% is allocated to 76 non-autonomous public higher education institutions, 11% to seven autonomous institutions, and the other 6% subsidises private institutions" (World Bank 2010, p. ix). Around 15% supports the directorates (World Bank 2010, p. 17). This indicates that a large amount of the higher education budget goes to public institutions.

Before the millennium, public HEIs received nearly 100% of their income from the government (Beerkens 2002). "In the 2009 APBN, about Rp. 4.7 trillion,[11] or US$470 million is from the own revenues of the 76 public institutions, which is quite significant considering that it is nearly a quarter of the total higher education APBN" (World Bank 2010, p. 16). Autonomous universities currently only receive around 20% of their income from the government (Wicaksono and Friawan 2008). For example, based on share of HEI revenues by source 2009, as cited in the World Bank 2010 (p. 12), nearly 60% of University of Indonesia's income is from student fees and 20% is self-generated, including "consulting services and other campus-based businesses such as parking, cafeteria, bookstore, etc." 21% of its income is from the government budget (DGHE budget and audit report for autonomous universities, 2009 cited in World Bank 2010, p. 12).

Public higher education institutions have had a direct hierarchical relationship with the government. As a government service unit, public institutions had very limited institutional autonomy; they had to comply with strict government regulations in the areas of financial management, internal university management (i.e. personnel management (civil service) and appointment of the Rector), and academic matters (i.e. curriculum design and the establishment of new study programmes) (Brodjonegoro, n.d.; Verheul 2002). In terms of student enrolment, public HEIs recruited potential students through the National Entrance Examination [*Seleksi Nasional Masuk Perguruan Tinggi Negeri* (SNMPTN)][12] and Achievement and Learning Equity [*Prestasi dan Pemeratan Kesempatan Belajar* (PPKB)]. Within these admission systems, they did not have to compete for students. In the last decade, the relationship between the government and the HEIs has substantially changed. The HEIs have, at least on paper, been granted more institutional autonomy. This will be elaborated upon in the next section of this chapter.

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[11] The own revenues of autonomous universities are not included in the state budget (APBN).
[12] SNMPTN used to be *Ujian Masuk Perguruan Tinggi Negeri* (UMPTN).

Private institutions receive only a small subsidy from the Government. They rely directly on student fees. From this perspective, it is not surprising that tuition fees at private institutions are approximately 2 to 5 times higher than at public ones (Wicaksono and Friawan 2008). Private institutions are not hierarchically controlled by the government, meaning that they have control over recruiting their Rectors, academic and non-academic staff. Private institutions are accountable for all their activities to their stakeholders. Private HEIs are, however, still subject to government regulations in various ways. The Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) has established 12 provincial offices, called Coordination of Private HEIs [or *Koordinasi Perguruan Tinggi Swasta* (Kopertis)], "to ensure that private HEIs conform to relevant acts and regulations from the government" (Welch 2007, p. 671). Private HEIs recruit potential students through institutional entrance exams. To maximise student recruitment, many private HEIs do not have very strict student selection processes. Admission is considered to be less competitive than to public HEIs.

5.3 REFORMING THE INDONESIAN HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM

In the 1990s, a number of events created the momentum for change in Indonesian higher education system. First, in its national planning document, the government launched a different vision for its Higher Education Long Term Strategy (HELTS) III, 1996-2005 (DGHE 1996). It focused on "implementation of the new paradigm in higher education management, in which improvements in relevance and quality, and geographical and social equity" are key (Fahmi 2007, p. 3). The new paradigm consisted of five pillars: quality, autonomy, accountability, accreditation, and evaluation (DGHE 1996; Verhuel 2002, p. 191).

Second, before the HELTS III programmes could be fully implemented, the operating environment of Indonesian higher education changed dramatically. Indonesia faced the Asian financial crisis and the economy contracted. The system became politically instable after the fall of Suharto Regime in 1998. Indonesia then entered a period of reform. These developments encouraged the government to issue important higher education laws: the PP60/1999 and PP61/1999 (explained later in this section). These two government laws are seen as the embryo of the higher education reforms of 2000-2010.

To stimulate the Indonesian economy after the severe East Asian economic crisis in 1997, "the World Bank and IMF provide economic aid and have induced public

sector reforms" which put major emphasis on "the devolution of decision-making power and financial autonomy to the regional governments" (Verhuel 2002, p. 191). For developing countries such as India, Bangladesh, Zimbabwe, and Indonesia, the World Bank and IMF are believed to be the strongest driving force for the implementation of New Public Management (NPM) approaches (Borins 1998; Sulistiyono 2007). These approaches were aimed at substantially restructuring the public sector, including higher education. One of the consequences, as inserted by Santiago et al. (2008 cited in De Boer and Goedegebuure 2009, p. 350), was "the enhancement of institutional autonomy, accompanied by a decrease in direct governmental control and an increase in accountability."

Institutional autonomy, accountability and transparency became the key strategic issues for higher education (e.g. Verhuel 2002; Sulistiyono 2007). In July 1999, the government enacted the Government Regulation 60/1999 which "covers the changes in the administration of higher education institutions" and the Government Regulation 61/1999 which "relates to the establishment of (public) universities as legal entities"[13] and which transforms public universities into autonomous universities (Beerkens 2002, p. 24). This transformation was intended to drive improvement in the accountability, capacity, and managerial development of Higher Education Institutions. These two regulations were followed by regulations that provided an independent legal status for the University of Indonesia (UI) in Jakarta, Gadjah Mada University (UGM) in Yogyakarta, Bogor Institute of Agriculture (IPB) in Bogor, and Bandung Institute of Technology (ITB) in Bandung (Government Regulation No. 152/2000, 153/2000, 154/2000, and 155/2000). These four elite public universities were selected by the government "to function as 'guides' in Indonesia's move toward greater academic and financial autonomy" (Beerkens 2002, p. 24). They were given a five-year transition period to become fully autonomous universities. Other public universities soon followed.[14]

In 2003, the government published a new long term strategic plan for its higher education system: HELTS IV (for 2003-2010). HELTS IV focuses on the nation's competitiveness, decentralisation and institutional autonomy and improvement of organisational health through better internal management (DGHE 2003). It sets out a reform agenda that pursues institutional autonomy through devolving authority from the national level, a new public funding regime that stresses more

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[13] A legal entity university means an autonomous university.

[14] For example the University of Sumatera Utara (USU) in North Sumatera, the Indonesia University of Education (UPI) in Jakarta, and the University of Airlangga (UNAIR) in Surabaya in the years 2003, 2004, and 2006.

competitive and performance-based grants, and, consequently, a restructuring of the internal university governance structures.

The spread of the NPM ideology, the promulgation of the legal entity Law, and the publication of HELTS IV have encouraged, or even 'forced' Indonesian universities to move towards a situation of greater financial and managerial autonomy. Greater financial autonomy basically means budget cuts (Beerkens 2007), which, in Indonesia and elsewhere, is ironic—"as the demand for educational services grew over the past two decades and operating costs rose, public support for higher education flattened and then declined" (Duderstadt 1993, p. 3 cited in DiFronzo 2002, p. 5). Cutbacks have forced public universities to manage more effectively. The government also changed the public funding mechanism from line item budgeting to lump sum funding. The new funding mechanism puts more emphasis on outputs and performance, intending to stimulate greater competition and market-orientation (e.g. Nizam 2006, p. 41).

The changes in the public funding regime also challenged public universities to become more entrepreneurial. Several measures were used (Susanto and Nizam 2004 cited in Nizam 2006, p. 52; Welch 2007, p. 680):

- cost-saving measures such as a freeze on staff recruitment;
- cost-sharing measures where a university can set its own tuition fees but at the same time ensure equal access through cross-subsidies;
- resource mobilising strategies that include setting up programmes on a full-cost recovery basis, undertaking contract research (e.g. collaborative research with industry and special projects often with foreign universities), consultancies and other various income-generating activities (e.g. selling staff members' services, publishing textbooks or student guides);
- efficiency enhancing measures such as changing resource allocation policies, emphasising accountability, evaluation procedures for assessment of performance; and
- 'special' fees beyond regular tuition fees.

Greater managerial autonomy for universities implies a loosening of direct hierarchical control from the government (DGHE 2003; Verhuel 2002; Nizam 2006) to make the financial reform successful. The traditional centralised mode of governance was believed to have "created a system characterised by inefficiency and poor initiative" (Moeliodihardjo et al. 2000 cited in Nizam 2006, p. 37). Managerial autonomy entails, for example, no state control over personnel management and no state involvement in internal university governance. Autonomous universities can hire and fire their staff, set salaries and labour

conditions,[15] and select their own Rector through internal election. Autonomous universities have been forced to make major institutional adjustments in "organisational structure and democratisation of the universities" (Beerkens 2002, p. 24).

For the first time in the history of Indonesian higher education, Rectors of autonomous universities are not directly appointed by the government but chosen by the university. The candidates for a Rector position are proposed by the Academic Senate to the Board of Trustees. Though substantial progress has been made in the move towards university autonomy, the government still has an input. It has 30% of the total vote in Rector appointments through its representation on the Board of Trustees (Beerkens 2002; Nizam 2006).

5.4   THE INTERNAL GOVERNANCE OF INDONESIAN UNIVERSITIES

The organisational structures of private and autonomous public universities vary, but there are some similarities. The general, stylised structure of internal university governance in Indonesia is depicted in Figure 5.1. In this section, we discuss the main governing bodies at the top level of Indonesian universities, respectively the Board of Trustees, the Board of Auditors, the University Senate, and the executive (Rector and Vice-Rectors).

The highest governing body is a *Board of Trustees* for autonomous universities and a *Board of Foundation* for private universities. The Board of Trustees represents the stakeholders of the university (based on the Government Regulation 61/1999 chapter VI section 7). It consists of representatives from the Ministry of Education, the University Academic Senate, the Rector, members of the community, university employees, and students. As the general legislative board of the university, the Board exists (1) to set up general policies in non-academic fields, for example, human resources, finance, and general administration affairs; (2) to appoint and to dismiss university top leaders (Rector and Vice Rectors), and to evaluate their work and performance; (3) to approve and legalise strategic plans, working plans, and annual budgets; (4) to supervise and control management; (5)

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[15] The hiring and firing system and the salary system and labour conditions apply for new staff recruitment. Older university staff (including academic staff and Professors) who serve as civil servants still serve under the GOVERNMENT staffing, salary system and labour conditions. In the centralised system dismissing staff is difficult because of the civil service system.

together with university top leaders to arrange and deliver the annual reports to the Ministry; (6) to give opinions and suggestions to the Ministry about the management of the universities. All members of the Board of Trustees except student representatives are appointed by the Ministry for a period of five years. Student representatives are appointed by the Ministry for a period of one year. The Board of Foundation has representatives from its founding organisation, and other stakeholders appointed by its founding organisation (Nizam 2006).

The Board of Auditors is an independent body that evaluates the results of internal and external audit. At autonomous universities, this Board reports to the Board of Trustees; all members are appointed for a five-year term and can be dismissed by the Trustees. Private universities usually hire an external auditing firm that acts in accordance with a contract set by the Trustees. This body receives and audits the budget. The budget is then distributed to faculties through the Rector. In return, each faculty leader, the dean, has to produce a financial report each semester for the Rector and the Rector compiles the budget monitoring to be sent to the trustees via the Board of Auditors. The duties of the Board of Auditors are (1) to set up the internal audit policies; (2) to evaluate the financial results of audit; and (3) to make decisions on finance and to give suggestions to the Trustees.

The University Senate is the legislative board on academic matters at the university level. It is made up of the university's top leaders, deans, professors, representatives of lecturers, and the head of the library. Before the millennium, professors were members ex officio. These days the members, including professors, are elected by the university community. Each faculty nominates a maximum of two professors. The Senate Chair is elected from the members for a period of two years and can be re-elected twice. The duties of the Senate are (1) to set up academic procedures; (2) to set up norms of education; (3) to set up rules of academic freedom and scientific autonomy; (4) to supervise and control academic quality; (5) to set up rules of ethics and discipline for campus life; (6) to set up the evaluation or judgment of academic achievement, capabilities and characteristics of Civitas Academica; (7) to give suggestions to the trustees about the work of university top leaders in the academic field; and (8) to give suggestions to university top leaders in arranging strategic plans, working plans, and budgets. At autonomous universities, the Senate also (9) gives suggestions to the Ministry about the work of the Trustees.

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                      ┌─────────────────────┐
                      │  Board of Trustees  │
                      │         or          │
                      │ Board of Foundation │
                      └─────────────────────┘
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│ Board of Auditors│    │    Rector    │        │ University Senate│
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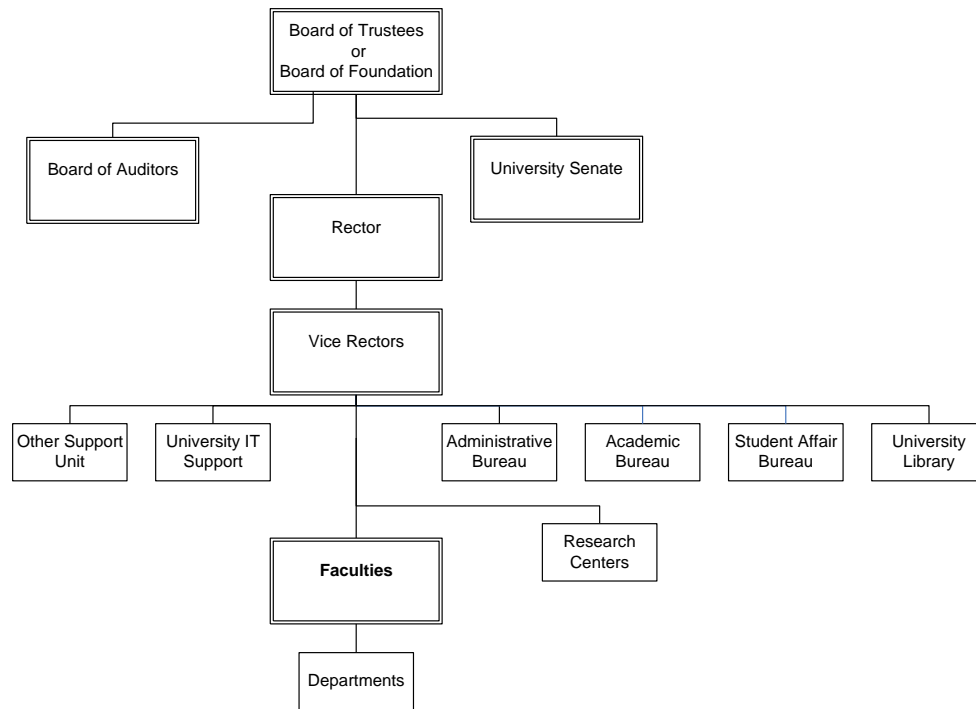
Figure 5.1

Figure 5.1   A General Structure of the University Governance in Indonesia (adapted from Nizam 2006, Figure 5, p. 54)

Top executive university leaders consist of a *Rector* and several *Vice-Rectors* (there are usually three Vice-Rectors, but this depends on the size of the university). These top executives are in charge of academic affairs, administrative and personnel affairs, student affairs and alumni, and research and development. The Rector of an autonomous university is elected by the Trustees. Vice-Rectors are selected by the Trustees after consulting the Rector. The term of office is five years, with a maximum of two terms. The Rectors of private universities are also usually elected by the Trustees.

The responsibilities of university top leaders are (1) to set up strategic plans defining the missions and visions of the university; (2) to set up the working plans and annual budgets of the university; (3) to implement policies concerning education, research, and community service; (4) to manage the wealth and properties of the university; (5) to guide and develop both academic staff and non-academic staff of the university; (6) to maintain and develop relationships with alumni, university association, and society more widely; (7) to organise the

university's accounts; and (8) to report on the improvement and development of the university to the Trustees. At autonomous universities the executives, together with the Trustees, compile the annual reports for the Ministry.

5.5   DEANS AT INDONESIAN UNIVERSITIES

In the formal governance structure of a faculty at an Indonesian university, the main actors are a dean, vice-deans, Faculty Senate, professors and other academics, heads of department, head of administration and head of laboratory (see Figure 5.2). The two main governing bodies at the top level of the faculty are the Senate and the dean. This section focus on deans, the key subjects in our study.
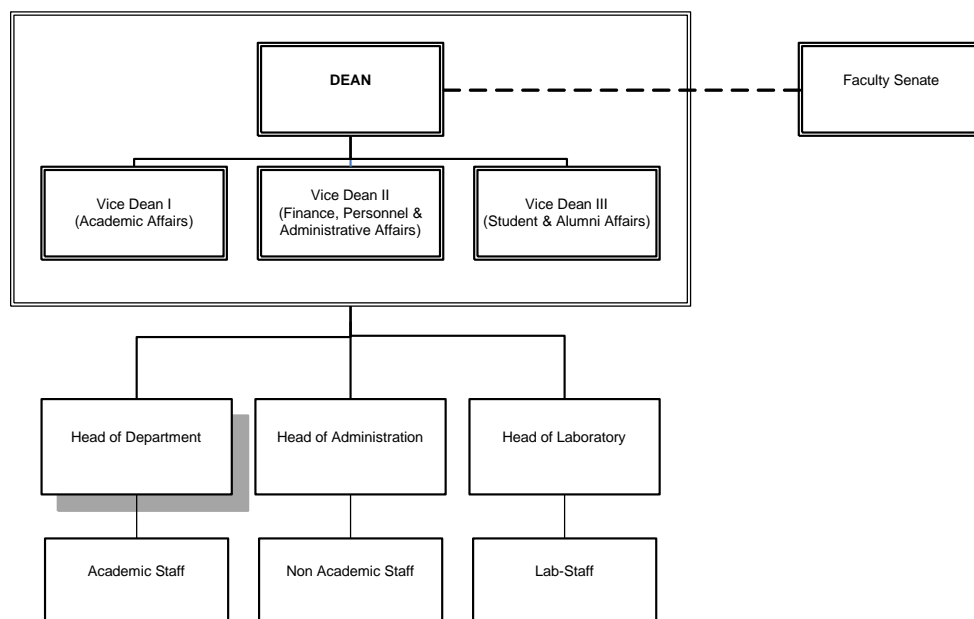
— represents the instructive relationship

--- represents the coordinative relationship

Figure 5.2 **A** General Structure of the Faculty Governance at Indonesian Universities (generated from faculty structure of several faculties from both public and private universities)

The dean is the top executive of a faculty and a middle manager within a university. He or she has responsibility for the faculty's education, research, and community services. The dean is accountable to the Rector for all his or her activities, including the faculty's finances. As the chair of the Faculty Senate, the dean is also accountable to the university trustees through the Academic Senate. The dean is appointed and dismissed by the Rector after consultation with and approval from the Faculty Senate (this issue will be elaborated upon later in this section).

In managing the faculty, the dean is usually assisted by several vice-deans (depending on faculty size). Typically, the vice-deans have particular portfolios such as academic affairs, finance, personnel and administrative affairs, and student and alumni affairs. The vice-deans are accountable to the dean for their daily activities and tasks. They are appointed and dismissed by the Rector, in consultation with the dean. In running a faculty, the dean and the vice-deans:

- define the strategy and policy of the faculty about education, research and community service, student affairs and academic facilities;
- give direction to and guidance in implementing faculty strategies and policies in the areas mentioned above;
- synergize the development of science and learning to fulfil the needs of continuing education;
- define education, research and community service in line with the aims of the faculty to develop and improve the competency of its academics;
- formulate and manage annual programmes for education, research and community service as well as learning standardisation;
- facilitate collegiality and professionalism in every aspect of the organisation;
- develop and control all units in the faculty to ensure the achievement of the faculty's plans;
- have responsibility for physical facilities in the faculty (e.g. internal library, IT-based facilities, learning environment, laboratories);
- help the Rector to maintain and develop collaboration with strategic allies (e.g. companies, industries, research centres, other universities) in line with the three basic principles of higher education; and
- report results to the Rector every semester.

Besides the vice-deans, the dean also has a close relationship with the other main governing body in the faculty: *the Faculty Senate*. The Faculty Senate holds the top legislative position at faculty level. It consists of the dean (as chair), vice-deans, professors, and heads of department, as well as representatives of academic staff. The Faculty Senate is responsible for setting general policies and regulations for the faculty on academic matters, quality assurance, and norms and ethics. They

assess deans and vice-deans, and recommend future deans to university leadership. Through the University Senate, the Faculty Senate reports the academic activities of the faculty to the Board of Trustees (or Board of Foundation in private universities).

The criteria and selection processes for dean candidates at autonomous and private universities are fairly similar. To become a dean, several conditions must be met. A prospective candidate must be a regular academic staff member of the university with a Doctoral Degree, or at minimum a Master's Degree, preferably with an expertise in the faculty subject. Next, they must have high levels of competency, integrity, and commitment to deliver the vision and mission of the faculty and the university. They also should have strong leadership and management skills. They cannot be older than 60 years and must not have a criminal record. They must be mentally and physically healthy (with proof from a general practitioner).

The selection process for a dean starts with a faculty (mono programme) and its departments (multi programmes) proposing some potential candidates to the Faculty Senate via a selection committee. Then, the Faculty Senate recommends a minimum of two prospective candidates who are eligible to compete in the next round: public presentation. At this stage, a candidate publicly presents and explains his or her mission, visions and strategic plans for the future development of the faculty. Usually, two or three candidates are proposed to the Rector by the Faculty Senate. Finally, the Rector appoints one of the candidates. The new dean, will then propose two (or more) people to become his or her vice-deans, who are then appointed by the Rector. Both the dean and the vice-deans hold their position for a period of four years.

5.6   SUMMARY

Indonesia has recently faced many changes and this has been reflected in higher education. The Asian monetary crisis, the political fall of the Suharto regime, and globalisation are major factors that led to reforms in Indonesian higher education. The most important aim of these reforms is the enhancement of financial and managerial autonomy of public universities, which largely aligns with the principles of New Public Management (NPM). Through granting (some) public universities legal entity status, universities have become more autonomous in both financial matters and internal management.

At face value, this has affected the nature of Indonesian public universities. Once part of the state bureaucracy, nowadays they are supposed to act as innovative,

independent, and self-financing organisations. In this dynamic context, the organisation of the universities has undergone change.

One of the results is a shift in responsibilities from the state to the universities and, within the universities, from the central university level to the faculties. The result of the changing nature of universities is that faculties have become more important. This has consequences for the top executives in the faculties, the deans. While we know that the position and role of the deans have undergone change, we do not know how exactly deans in Indonesia lead and manage their faculties in this dynamic context. One might argue that, in contemporary Indonesian universities, deans should increasingly act as corporate managers to meet changing expectations. At the same time universities remain peculiar organisations in which, for instance, academic reputation appears to be an important condition for leadership, and therefore pure executive managers who deny a university's special character, will not survive. It is, therefore, important and interesting to explore how deans run their faculties and why they do this in a particular way. These questions will be answered in the next chapters.

6
CHAPTER

The Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans at Indonesian Universities

"John is too soft-hearted; he is running this place like a country club.
Sue is a pigheaded dictator; she runs this place like a prison camp."
Robert E. Quinn (1989, p. 45)

In this chapter, we present the findings of our survey that address the research question: what kind of managerial leadership styles do deans at Indonesian universities exhibit? The chapter is structured as follows. Section 6.1 describes the self-reported managerial behaviours of deans. Next, Section 6.2 investigates the managerial leadership roles of deans. Section 6.3 explores and identifies the managerial leadership styles of deans. The last Section 6.4 summaries and concludes this chapter.
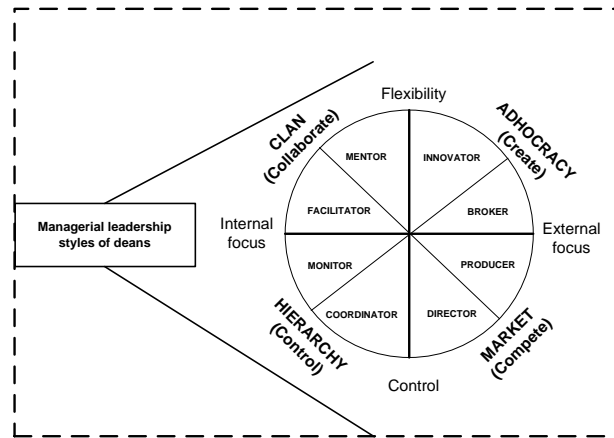
Figure 6.1   Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans based on the Competing Values Framework (CVF)

6.1   THE MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOURS OF DEANS

In this section, we present and discuss the managerial behaviours of deans at Indonesian universities. Quinn (1988, pp. 175-176) has developed the Competing Values Managerial Skills Instrument which lists 32 managerial behaviours. Based on this instrument, we asked the deans to indicate, on a seven-point Likert scale, how often they perform a certain behaviour (see also Chapter 4, Table 4.2). The first outcome of this survey indicated that the deans perform all the listed behaviours frequently. However, some behaviours are more prevalent than others (see Appendix C, Table 1). The four most frequent behaviours of the deans are below along with their mean value:
- protecting continuity in the day-to-day operations of the faculty (6.3);
- seeing that the faculty delivers on stated goals (6.3);
- facilitating consensus-building in the faculty's decision-making (6.3); and
- building teamwork among academic staff (6.3).

The four least frequent behaviours of the deans are:
- persuasively selling new ideas to central management (5.2);
- exerting upward influence in the university (5.2);
- influencing decisions at higher levels in the university (5.2); and
- experimenting with new concepts and procedures (5.0).

These findings are significant in that they show the deans of this study are not opposed to engaging in certain managerial behaviours and are open to some level of engagement in all the behaviours.

Although the deans reported that they execute all 32 behaviours, some differences in frequency can be observed (see Appendix C, Table 1). Firstly, the vast majority of the deans (i.e. more than 75%) reported that they always facilitate consensus building in faculty decision making; encourage participative decision making in the faculty; protect the continuity in faculty's day-to-day operations; see to it that the faculty delivers on stated goals; and build team work among academic staff members. Secondly, the majority of the deans (i.e. more than 50%) reported that they sometimes or rather often solve faculty problems in a creative and unconventional way; carefully compare records, files, and reports; persuasively sell new ideas to the central university management; influence decisions at higher levels in the university and experiment with new concepts and procedures. Very few deans reported that they never behave any of the 32 behaviours. For example, only 7% of the deans say that they never exert upward influence in the university. Similarly, 7% of the deans indicated that they never influence decisions made at the higher levels in the university.

Table 6.1   *Percentages of Deans in the Study that Report 'Always' on the 32 Behaviours Based on the CVF (N = 218, in %)*

Percentage of the 32 behaviours always* performed	Percentage of deans
≤ 25% (less than 9 different behaviours)	13
26 – 50% (between 9 and 16 different behaviours)	24
51 – 75% (between 17 and 24 different behaviours)	26
> 75% (more than 24 different behaviours)	37
* 'always' refers to scores 6 (almost always) and 7 (always)	

Table 6.1 presents the percentages of deans in the study that reported 'always' on the 32 behaviours of the CVF. A total of 37% of the deans reported that they are multi-behavioural, i.e. they always perform in line with more than 75% of the 32 behaviours. Another 37% reported that they always perform less than 50% of the behaviours. The deans who belong to the multi-behavioural group are, in their own eyes, able to cope with the competing values that underlie these behaviours.

6.2   THE MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP ROLES OF DEANS

This section presents and discusses the managerial leadership roles of deans at Indonesian universities. The CVF has two axes: the vertical axis represents flexibility and control and the horizontal axis represents internal to external focus (see Figure 6.1, also Chapter 3 for more details). These two axes form four

quadrants[16] in which each quadrant defines two leadership roles. The CVF is the repertoire of managerial leadership roles manifested in the behaviours of managers (Belasen 1998). The CVF asserts that these eight different managerial leadership roles can be defined based on 32 managerial behaviours.

To find out to what extent this applies to the roles of the deans, we first carried out a factor analysis to see if the theoretically assumed managerial leadership roles could also be found in our data. In a first factor analysis, we found no clear distinction among the eight managerial leadership roles (see Appendix C, Table 2). A second factor analysis was executed. The CVF notes that the two axes of the framework create four aspects. Therefore, we extracted the data into four dimensions. The result again indicated no clear distinction between the four aspects (see Appendix C, Table 3).

As a next step, we extracted the data within each aspect into two dimensions (the CVF suggests that each aspect defines two types of leadership roles, see Chapter 3, Figure 3.1). For example, in the adhocracy aspect, there are eight behaviours in which four behaviours define the innovator role and four the broker role. This third step gave interesting results. In the clan aspect, the result indicates a clear distinction between the facilitator and the mentor role (see Appendix C, Table 4). There is also a clear distinction between the innovator and the broker role in the adhocracy aspect (see Appendix C, Table 5). However, a different result exists for the market aspect and the hierarchy aspect. In the market aspect, some behaviours within the two roles (director and producer) are distinct but others are not (see Appendix C, Table 6). There is a similar finding with respect to the hierarchy aspect (see Appendix C, Table 7).

Although we could not distinguish the eight leadership roles of the CVF in our data, we believe that the CVF framework is a useful and suitable typology to explore managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities by investigating their behaviours and roles. Firstly, the CVF is an integrated leadership model that offers distinct theoretical advantages (see Chapter 3, subsection 3.3.3). Its integrated model supports the (dean) leadership definition of the study. Secondly, the CVF "has been used in more than a thousand organizations …, and it has been found to predict organisational performance" (Cameron and Quinn 2006, p. 23). This supports that the validity and reliability of the CVF framework.

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[16] Later in the analysis, the term 'aspect' refers to quadrant.

As explained earlier, each role consists of four-item managerial behaviours scaled from never (1) to always (7). We computed the mean score of each role by applying a simple statistical mean expression (see Chapter 4, Table 4.2, Equation 4.1). The results are depicted in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 *Managerial Leadership Roles of Deans at Indonesian Universities (N=218, in %)*

Managerial leadership role	Never	Sometimes	Always	Mean	*SD*	Cronbach's Alpha (4)*
Facilitator	-	30	70	6.2	0.61	0.68
Producer	1	38	61	6.0	0.74	0.81
Director	1	39	60	6.0	0.73	0.78
Coordinator	-	47	53	5.9	0.75	0.72
Mentor	1	49	50	5.9	0.80	0.76
Monitor	1	57	42	5.7	0.81	0.79
Innovator	1	69	30	5.5	0.74	0.74
Broker	5	68	27	5.3	0.94	0.80

Groups are defined on the basis of average score on four items, where for 'never' x< 4; 'sometimes' $4 \leq x \leq 5.99$; 'always' $6 \leq x \leq 7$; *the number in brackets indicates numbers of items.

Table 6.2 shows that the alpha coefficient, for the four items in each role, ranges from 0.68 to 0.81, suggesting that the items have relatively high internal consistency. All 32 managerial behaviours are performed by the deans (see Section 6.1), this is expected, as Table 6.2 indicates that all eight managerial leadership roles are found to some degree in Indonesian middle management. In other words, the deans self-reported that they frequently perform the eight leadership roles based on the CVF when they lead and manage their faculties.

Although all the eight managerial leadership roles are performed frequently by the deans, some roles are performed more often than others. The deans reported that they very often play the roles of facilitator, producer, and director. A total of 70% of the 218 deans see themselves definitely functioning as a facilitator. This finding is consistent with the previous finding, which showed that the deans very often perform facilitating behaviours. Around 60% of the deans see themselves as a producer and director. These results suggest that in their day-to-day actions, the deans very frequently facilitate consensus building in the faculty's decision making; encourage participative decision making in the faculty; build teamwork among the academic staff members; and encourage participative decision making in the faculty. At the same time, deans often focus on results and performance of academic staff; insist on intense hard work and high productivity; set clear objectives for the faculty; and clarify faculty policy priorities and future direction.

Furthermore, the deans of the study reported that they *sometimes* play an innovator (69%) and a broker role (68%) in managing their faculty. These findings are in line with the previous finding, indicating that the deans occasionally perform the innovating and brokering behaviours. This implies that, in their daily actions, the deans seldom approach and consult people at the higher levels of the university; persuasively sell new ideas to central university management; exert upward influence in the university; or influence decisions at higher levels in the university.

To further investigate the distribution of the eight roles in the middle management of Indonesian universities, we used another leadership instrument in our study—the Management Skills Profile Instrument based on a description of eight managerial leadership roles developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006, p. 128). Based on this instrument, the deans were asked to indicate, on a seven-point scale ranging from (1) 'absolutely not similar' to (7) 'perfect match' just how similar the description of eight managerial leadership roles were to how they run their faculties (see Chapter 4, Table 4.3). The results are presented in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3   *Personal Descriptions of Deans Based on the Eight Managerial Leadership Roles from the CVF (in %)*

Managerial leadership role	Absolutely not similar	Similar to some extent	Perfect match	Mean	*SD*	*N*
Mentor	-	23	77	6.1	1.0	217
Producer	4	21	75	6.0	1.1	216
Broker	1	27	72	6.0	1.1	217
Facilitator	2	24	74	5.9	1.1	218
Innovator	1	27	72	5.9	1.1	216
Director	6	39	55	5.4	1.3	216
Coordinator	6	41	53	5.4	1.3	217
Monitor	12	53	35	4.9	1.3	217

The results displayed in Table 6.3 show that more than 70% of the deans see themselves as a mentor, producer, broker, facilitator or innovator. The deans tend to mostly see themselves as a mentor. Only 35% of them see themselves as a monitor.

The results displayed in Figure 6.2 allow us to compare the mean scores of the roles in Table 6.2 (based on the managerial behaviour instrument) and those of the roles in Table 6.3 (based on the description of role instrument). There are relatively few mean score differences with respect to the eight roles. Figure 6.1

shows the similarity between them which supports the validity of the leadership instruments used for this study.

Based on this comparison, we decided to use the data obtained from the managerial behaviour instrument, presented in Table 6.2, to explore and investigate the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities and for the rest of the analyses in this study. The reasons for this are: firstly, the statistical results indicate that the differences between the two instruments are marginal. Secondly, the managerial behaviour instrument best fits the concept of behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen 2010), which can be defined as either a single act or a set of actions (or a behavioural category) (see Chapter 2).
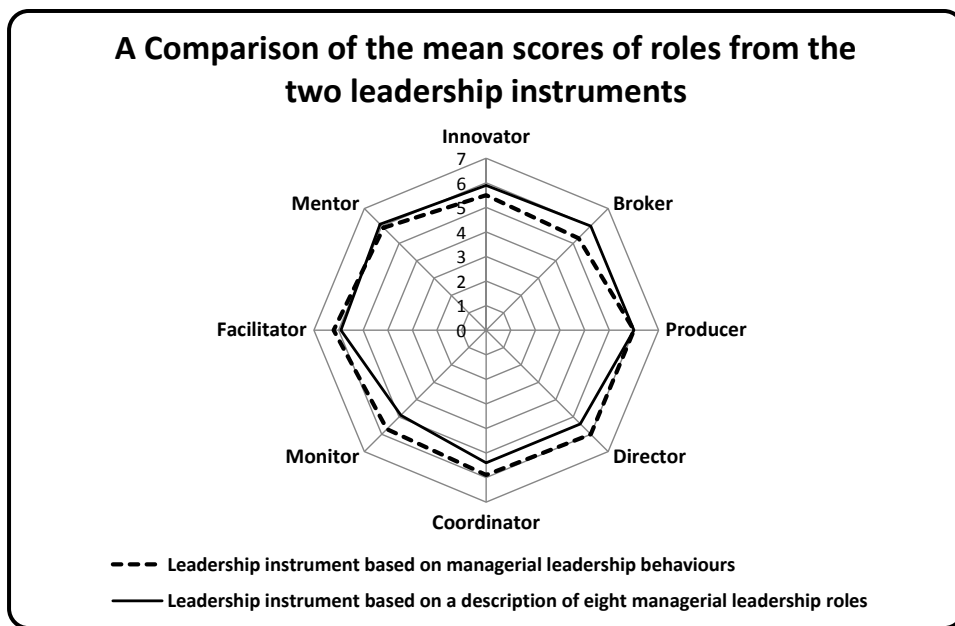
Figure 6.2   A Comparison of the Mean Scores of the Roles from the Two Leadership Instruments

6.3   THE MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP STYLES OF DEANS

Based on the mean scores of the eight roles performed by all deans as shown in Table 6.2, we are able to identify the major managerial leadership style of deans at Indonesian universities. The style embraces, to a large extent, all eight of the CVF leadership roles. Quinn suggests that a manager who is able to engage in a variety of different or even contradictory styles of leading and managing is 'Becoming a master manager'. Following Quinn's logic, we have called this style of deanship the 'Master' style (see Figure 6.3). This is the predominant managerial leadership style of deans at Indonesian universities.
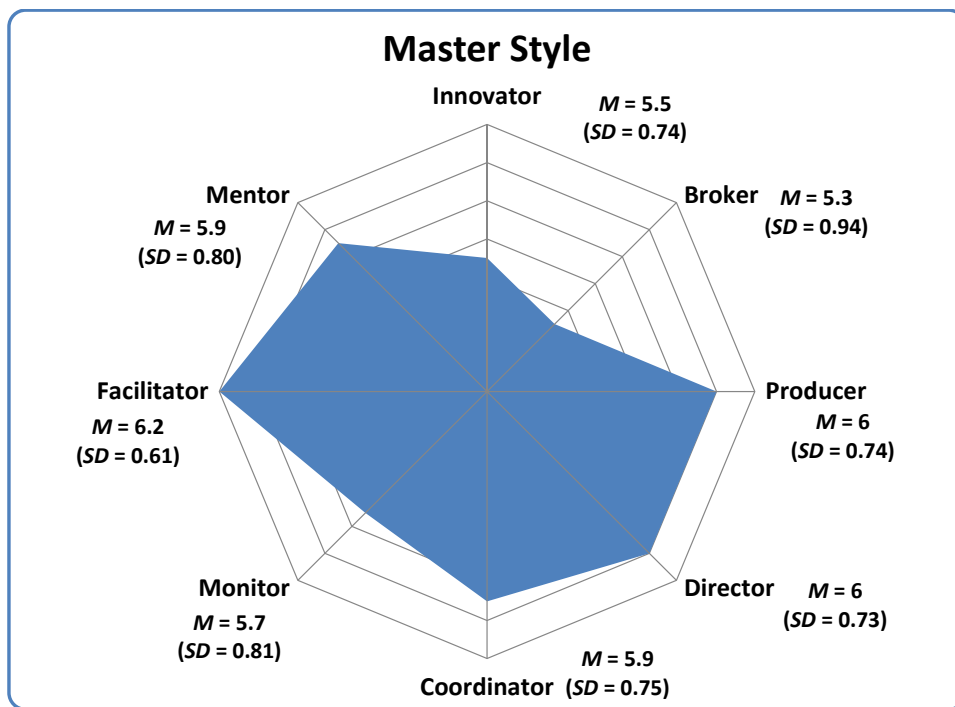
Note: The mean (*M*) and standard deviation (*SD*) of the eight scores are shown in the Figure.

Figure 6.3   The Master Style

As shown in Figure 6.3, the Master style is a combination of the eight different roles of leading and managing. This Master style defines the deans' many different managerial behaviours manifested in their roles as leaders and managers of faculties (see Sections 6.1 and 6.2). Theoretically, this outcome is not

at odds with the CVF since the framework itself suggests that managers are, or should be, able to act in different ways to achieve balance. Based on Quinn's (1988) concept of mastery of management, the Master style indicates that the deans engage in a variety of different managerial leadership roles. This suggests that the deans have the ability to transcend their roles to see problems in different ways as well as pursue and to use alternative approaches in leading and managing (Quinn 1988).

Based on the empirical findings and the conceptual framework of the CVF, we assume that the Master style may depict an ideal leadership style which embraces, to a larger extent, all eight CVF roles. This might suggest that conflict statements like "John is too soft hearted, he is running this place like a country club" and "Sue is a pigheaded dictator, she runs this place like a prison camp" (Quinn 1988, p. 45) may not be articulated in organisations. In our perspective, the Master style does not reflect the extreme metaphor of a lamb-like or a lion-like character of leadership as Quinn illustrates. In fact, it shows a balanced approach to leadership. The Master-style deans embrace lion-like characteristics when they clarify tasks, set objectives, and take actions. Goal clarification is defined by rules which subordinates are expected to follow. The deans, as lions, show themselves to be a directive and strong authority figure. At the same time, the Master-style deans embrace the lamb-like characteristics when they engage in social activities like teamwork and motivating others. The deans, as lambs, are cooperative, participative, and approachable leaders.

Does this outcome—deans reporting to have the Master style—mean that they are effective? According to Quinn (1988, p. 106), "effectiveness is the result of maintaining a creative tension between contrasting demands in a social system". Belasen (1998, p. 4) states that "despite the fact that in playing the role of Director, the manager is assumed to have a task orientation, some aspects of facilitation or even mentoring (involving the two roles at the polar opposite in the CVF) must also be manifested in the behaviour of the manager to achieve effective managerial leadership". Ineffectiveness is seen as the result of being out of balance. "Managers cannot achieve effectiveness by emphasising two or three roles [manifested in their behaviours] while ignoring the others" (Quinn 1988, p. 106). Furthermore, Quinn (1988) argues that:

> … one does not have to emphasise all the roles in order to be seen as effective … one can put average or even below-average emphasis on one or two roles and still be seen as effective [but one needs to]

> maintain enough balance and creative tension to be seen as effective (p. 107).

The finding of the Master style in our study suggests that deans at Indonesian universities can be effective leaders. To what extent they actually *are* effective, however, needs further investigation.

Exploring Specific Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans

In managing their faculties, the deans perform some roles more frequently than others. In other words, some roles are perceived by the deans as more important than others, and, for our study, we wished to identify those roles perceived as having more value. We have, therefore, determined the relative importance of roles. If all eight roles were perceived as equally important, each would represent 12.5% in this analysis. Therefore, a role equal to or larger than 12.5% can be considered to be perceived as more important. A two-step cluster analysis is then used to identify particular managerial leadership styles. The detailed steps taken to determine which roles were perceived more important are presented in Chapter 4 section 4.4.

Following this procedure, the two-step cluster automatically generated 14 clusters. These clusters show only marginal differences (see Appendix C, Table 8). A meaningful interpretation is, therefore, not possible. We then explored the number of clusters randomly (e.g. 12, 10, 6, and 5) but the results again showed no meaningful differences. We continued our investigation and set the number of clusters based on the eight managerial leadership roles within the four aspects of the CVF. The results again showed no clear distinctions, indicating that no useful interpretation can be made (see Appendix C, Table 9).

We then set the number of clusters to four, reflecting the four aspects of the CVF. The results showed a meaningful distinction between the four clusters (see Appendix C, Table 10). These four clusters allow us to identify, both theoretically and statistically, four specific managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities as shown in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4 *Percentages of Deans that Have a Specific Managerial Leadership Style (total N = 218, in %)*

Specific managerial leadership style	Percentage of deans	N
Competitive Consultant	37	81
Focused Team Captain	20	44
Consensual Goal-Setter	24	53
Informed Trust-Builder	18	40
Total	100*	218

Note: *sum of percentages is not 100% due to the rounding of decimals

The four specific managerial leadership styles are distinct configurations of role importance, indicating that each style is distinct. We have, therefore, called these four specific styles: the Competitive Consultant, the Consensual Goal-Setter, the Focused Team Captain, and the Informed Trust-Builder. A description of each style is depicted in Figures 6.4 through 6.7.

1. The Competitive Consultant
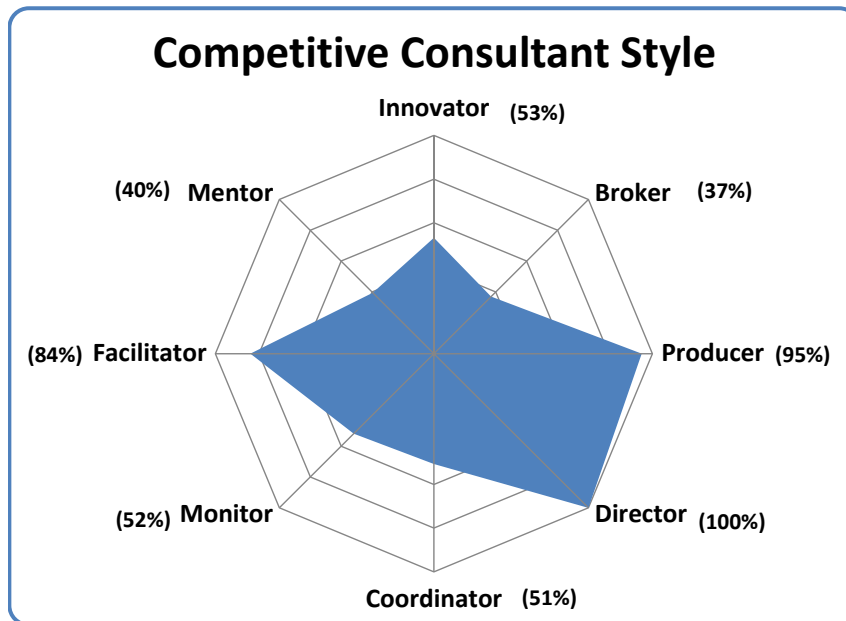
Note: The numbers in brackets represent the percentages of deans with this style who perceived each role as more important.

Figure 6.4   The Competitive Consultant Style

A total of 37% of deans in this study have the Competitive Consultant style. This style is 'comprehensive' in the sense that none of the roles are absent. It looks similar to the Master style, but with elements of the mentor and coordinator roles less prominent. This style emphasises the director, producer, and facilitator roles. Within their day-to-day actions, the deans with this style very frequently focus on setting faculty goals and objectives, defining areas of responsibility of faculty members, and clarifying faculty policies and future direction. These deans are interested in fostering a productive work environment and focus on intense hard work and productivity. They very often facilitate consensus building in the faculty's decision making, build teamwork among the academic staff members, encourage participative decision making in the faculty, and encourage academic staff members to share ideas.

2. The Focused Team Captain
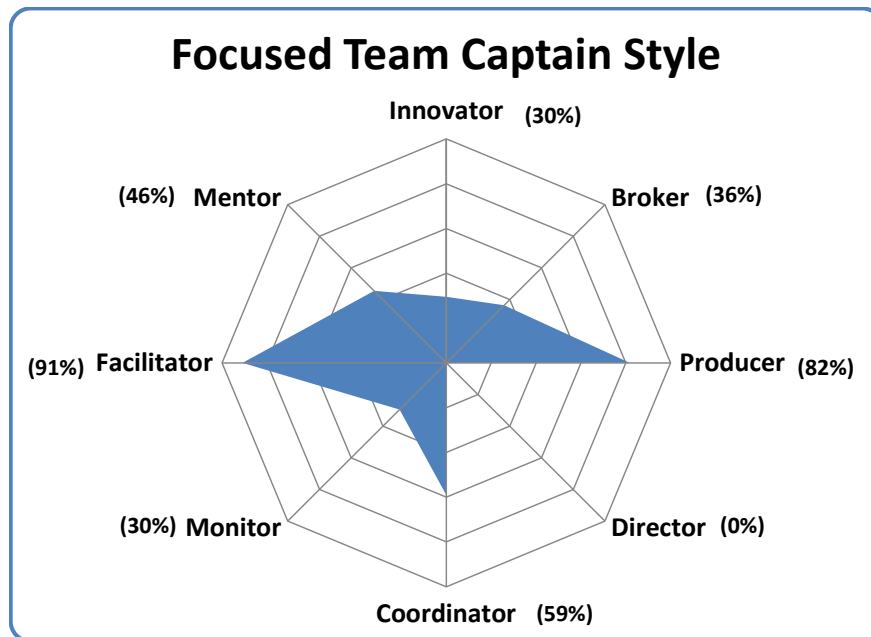
Focused Team Captain Style

Innovator (30%)
Broker (36%)
Producer (82%)
Director (0%)
Coordinator (59%)
Monitor (30%)
Facilitator (91%)
Mentor (46%)

Note: The numbers in brackets represent the percentages of deans with this style who perceived each role as more important.

Figure 6.5   The Focused Team Captain Style

A total of 20% of the deans have the Focused Team Captain style. In contrast to the Competitive Consultant style, the Focused Team Captain dominant roles are facilitator, producer and, to a lesser extent, coordinator. In this style, the director role is less obviously present. This style emphasises behaviours such as team building; encouraging participative, consensus-oriented decision making; and encouraging academic staff members to share ideas. It also stresses behaviours in relation to achievements, results and performances, hard work, and high productivity. To some extent this style focuses on day-to-day operations, managing projects and minimising disruptions in daily practices.

3. The Consensual Goal-Setter
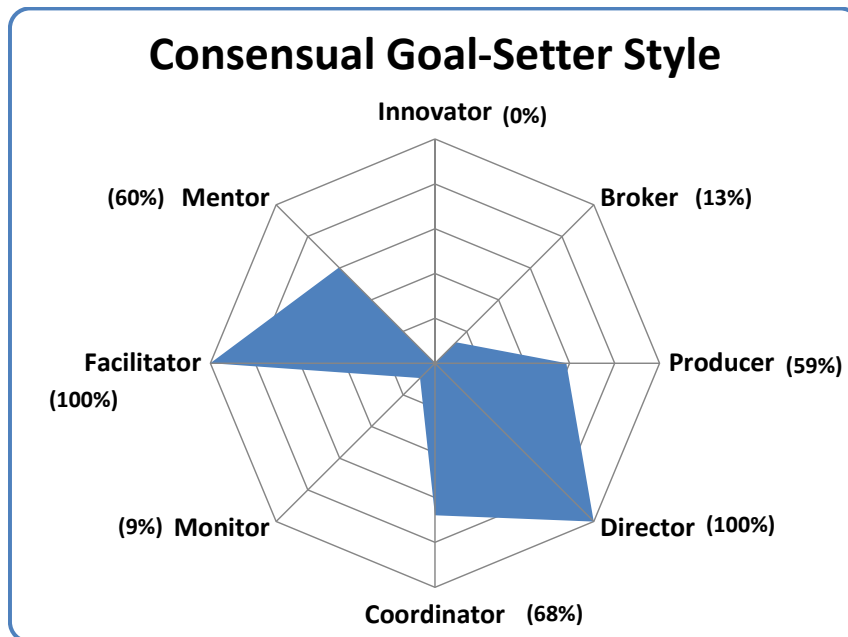
Note: The numbers in brackets represent the percentages of deans with this style who perceived each role as more important.

Figure 6.6   The Consensual Goal-Setter Style

A total of 24% of the deans have the Consensual Goal-Setter style. This style emphasises the facilitator and director roles. The broker, monitor and, particularly, innovator roles are, by and large, absent. The deans who demonstrate this style have a strong focus on behaviours such as encouraging participative, consensus-oriented decision making; team building; and internal idea sharing. They, however, show minimal mentoring behaviours. These deans also claim to demonstrate behaviours such as setting clear faculty goals and objectives, defining areas of responsibility for faculty members, and clarifying faculty policies and future direction.

4. The Informed Trust-Builder
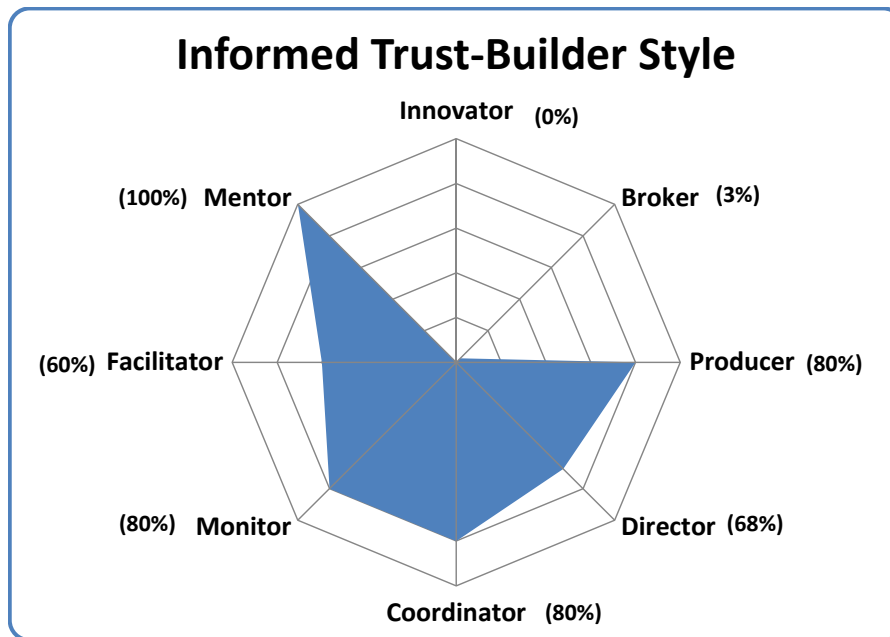
Note: The numbers in brackets represent the percentages of deans with this style who perceived each role as more important.

Figure 6.7   The Informed Trust-Builder Style

A total of 18% of the deans have the Informed Trust-Builder style. Like the Competitive Consultant, this style is comprehensive. It stresses the mentor, producer, coordinator, and monitor roles. Within their day-to-day actions, deans with this style very often listen to personal problems and show empathy and concern. They also frequently focus on control (e.g. reviewing detailed reports, files and records; working with technical data; and analysing written plans and schedules). These deans establish a productive work environment and value hard work and productivity.

The Four Specific Managerial Leadership Styles and the CVF

With respect to the four specific managerial leadership styles of deans, none of the styles can clearly identify one of the four aspects of the CVF (i.e. the clan, the adhocracy, the market, or the hierarchy). In fact, each style is a configuration of different aspects of the CVF, defining the competing (opposing) roles of leading and managing. The Competitive Consultant style, for instance, combines a greater

focus on the market-oriented aspect (the director and producer roles) with the facilitator role. The Focused Team Captain style combines the facilitator and producer roles, and the Consensual Goal-Setter style combines the facilitator and director roles. The Informed Trust-Builder style combines the mentor, producer, coordinator, and monitor roles. These findings indicate that the roles of facilitator, director, and producer are the more important roles perceived by the majority of deans. This is consistent with the previous findings, showing that the deans very often play the roles of facilitator, director, and producer (see section 6.2).

6.3.1   Demographic Factors and the Four Specific Managerial Leadership Styles

This subsection reports the distributions of the specific managerial leadership styles of deans by demographic factors.

Table 6.5   *Distributions of the Specific Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans by Gender (N = 218, in %)*

Specific managerial leadership style	Gender		
	MALE	FEMALE	Total*
Competitive Consultant	37%	39%	37%
Focused Team Captain	22%	13%	20%
Consensual Goal-Setter	24%	26%	24%
Informed Trust-Builder	17%	23%	18%
Total*	100%	100%	100%
Note: *the sum of the columns may not be 100%, due to the rounding of decimals.			

Table 6.5 shows the gender distribution of the specific managerial leadership styles of deans. The findings indicated that there are some gender differences. For example, 22% of male deans have the Focused Team Captain style, emphasising the facilitator and producer roles, and 23% of female deans have the Informed Trust-Builder style, emphasising the mentor role. The findings showed that there is a very slight difference between the percentage of male and female deans having the Competitive Consultant style. This also holds true for the Consensual Goal-Setter style. These findings are, to some extent, in line with other studies of male and female leadership styles (e.g. Rosener 1990; Eagly and Johnson 1990; Burke and Collins 2001), indicating that female deanship is more characterised by showing more empathy and concern, being more people-oriented, and a willingness to listen (see Chapter 3).

Table 6.6   *Distributions of the Specific Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans by Age (N = 218, in %)*

Specific managerial leadership style	Age (years old)				
	<40	40-50	51-60	>60	Total
Competitive Consultant	52%	38%	33%	36%	37%
Focused Team Captain	29%	22%	17%	18%	20%
Consensual Goal-Setter	14%	21%	28%	32%	24%
Informed Trust-Builder	5%	20%	22%	14%	18%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Note: *the sum of the columns may not be 100%, due to the rounding of decimals.					

Table 6.6 presents the age distribution of the specific managerial leadership styles of deans. The Competitive Consultant style is the style most frequently exhibited across all age groups. However, only amongst the under 40s is this style exhibited by a majority of deans. In contrast, only 5% of deans under 40 have the Informed Trust-Builder style. Deans aged 51-60 and 60+ are more likely to demonstrate the Consensual Goal-Setter style, focusing on facilitating and directing. The findings of this study are supported by other studies (e.g. Vroom and Pahl 1971; Kabacoff and Stoffey 2001; Oshagbemi 2004; Le and Thi 2012), indicating that young managers are more likely to show a style which defines roles and tasks and maintains high productivity, while older managers are more likely to prefer a style which is more participative and consultative and shows greater commitment to solving problems through consensus (see Chapter 3).

Table 6.7   *Distributions of the Specific Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans by Term-of-Office (N = 218, in %)*

Specific managerial leadership style	Term of Office (years)				
	< 2	3-4	5-6	>7	Total*
Competitive Consultant	37%	33%	56%	29%	37%
Focused Team Captain	22%	19%	11%	26%	20%
Consensual Goal-Setter Style	18%	36%	22%	26%	24%
Informed Trust-Builder	24%	12%	11%	19%	18%
Total*	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Note: *the sum of the columns may not be 100%, due to the rounding of decimals.					

Table 6.7 shows the term-of-office distribution of the specific managerial leadership styles of deans. The Competitive Consultant style is the most frequently exhibited across all terms of office. However, 56% of the deans in the 5-6 years term of office group have this style and deans in this group are less likely to demonstrate the Focused Team Captain or the Informed Trust-Builder styles (11% for each). This implies that the longer the deans serve, the more likely they are to put greater emphasis on the directing behaviours manifested in the Competitive Consultant style. This may reflect the fact that the deans with longer service would have been appointed under the old organisational systems and were likely to be still serving under civil service terms and conditions. They may, therefore, be more likely to maintain their traditional ways of managing through firm rules and authority. In other words, maintaining the status quo is important for the more tenured deans. This is consistent with other studies (e.g. Hambrick and Mason 1984; Bantel and Jackson 1989; Moore and Ruud 2006) that have found that leaders and managers with longer service are likely to resist change (see Chapter 3).

Table 6.8   *Distributions of the Specific Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans by Academic Discipline (N = 218, in %)*

Specific managerial leadership style	Academic discipline		
	Non-Technical	Technical	Total*
Competitive Consultant	37%	38%	37%
Focused Team Captain	17%	25%	20%
Consensual Goal-Setter	27%	20%	24%
Informed Trust-Builder	19%	17%	18%
Total*	100%	100%	100%
Note: *the sum of the columns may not be 100%, due to the rounding of decimals.			

Table 6.8 presents the distributions of the specific managerial leadership styles of deans across academic disciplines. This indicates that some difference in leadership styles exists between academic disciplines. While 25% of deans in the technical group have a Focused Team Captain style, 27% of deans in the non-technical group have a Consensual Goal-Setter style. Moreover, the findings show that there is only a marginal difference between the Competitive Consultant style and the Informed Trust-Builder style. These findings partially support other studies (e.g. Del Favero 2006; Way 2010) that indicated that non-technical deans are more oriented to a Collegial style (see Chapter 3).

6.4   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

To investigate the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities, we took several steps. Firstly, we investigated the managerial behaviours of deans. Secondly, we examined the managerial leadership roles of deans, and finally we explored and identified the managerial leadership styles of deans. The main findings can be summarised as follows.

All 32 of the CVF managerial behaviours are performed by the deans. Some behaviours are performed more often than others. Within their day-to-day managing activities, the deans reported that they very often protect continuity in day-to-day operations, see that the faculty delivers on stated goals, and facilitate team building and consensus decision making. They reported that they less frequently engage in behaviours in relation to influencing decisions at higher levels in the university, persuasively selling new ideas to central university management, and experimenting with new concepts and procedures. From these 32 behaviours, eight managerial leadership roles based on the CVF can be identified.

All eight managerial leadership roles are played, at least to some extent, by the deans. Some roles are played more frequently than others. The facilitator, producer, and director roles are played most frequently, while the innovator and broker roles are the least frequently played roles. To explore and identify the managerial leadership styles of the deans, we used the eight roles as a configuration to pattern a style. Based on the mean scores of the eight roles performed by all deans in the study, a managerial leadership style was identified and named as the Master style. It is a style that reflects some aspects of all eight managerial roles. This Master style represents the overall style (or general style) of deanship at Indonesian universities. The deans who exhibit this style are theoretically able to employ a variety of different perspectives in managing. For instance, the deans can perform a facilitator role (focusing on collaboration) and a producer role (focusing on competitiveness) at the same time.

In our deeper explorative analysis, we focused on the relative importance of the roles, using 12.5% as the expected result if all eight roles were equally important. Based on this, a dichotomy of importance was constructed. That is, ≥ 12.5% represents more importance and < 12.5% represents less importance. Then, by using these dichotomies, we performed a cluster analysis which enabled us to identify four particular managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities. Based on the more important roles within each configuration, we

named them the Competitive Consultant style, the Focused Team Captain style, the Consensual Goal-Setter style, and the Informed Trust-Builder style.

The Competitive Consultant style is mainly characterised by the director, producer, and facilitator roles, with other roles also visible. The findings indicated that 37% of the deans (81 out of 218) have this style. The Consensual Goal-Setter style emphasises the facilitator and director roles. The innovator, monitor, and broker roles also feature, with other roles present to some extent. A total of 24% of the deans (53 out of 218) were found to demonstrate this style. The next style is the Focused Team Captain. This style is mainly characterised by the facilitator and producer roles. Other roles, with the exception of the director role, are also visible. It was found that 20% of the deans (44 out of 218) exhibited this style. Lastly, the Informed Trust-Builder style is characterised by the mentor, producer, monitor, and coordinator roles. The director and facilitator roles are also present, but the innovator and broker roles are not. A total of 18% of the deans (40 out of 218) were found to have this style.

Male deans are less likely to exhibit the Informed Trust-Builder style, which is primarily characterised by the mentor role. Female deans are less likely to exhibit the Focused Team Captain style which is characterised by the facilitator and producer roles. Indonesian deans who are under 40 years old are more likely to have the Competitive Consultant style and less likely to have the Informed Trust-Builder style. Deans of non-technical faculties are more likely to demonstrate the Consensual Goal-Setter style and deans of technical faculties are more likely to demonstrate the Focused Team Captain style. Deans who have been in their position for five to six years are more likely to show the Competitive Consultant style. However, these same deans are less likely to show the Focused Team Captain style or the Informed Trust-Builder style. The findings indicated that the Competitive Consultant is the most frequently exhibited style across all demographic groups.

The findings of this chapter answer our research question: what kind of managerial leadership styles do deans at Indonesian universities exhibit? The study indicates one overall style—the Master and the four specific styles—the Competitive Consultant, Focused Team Captain, Consensual Goal-Setter, and Informed Trust-Builder.

7

CHAPTER

Descriptive Analysis of Attitudes, Subjective Norms, Perceived Behavioural Control, and Background Factors

"I've come loaded with Statistics, for I've noticed that a man can't prove anything without Statistics."
Mark Twain (1835-1910)

In the previous chapter, we discussed the managerial leadership styles demonstrated by deans at Indonesian universities. In this chapter, we present a descriptive analysis of the attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control of deans as proximal factors influencing the styles of deanship in Section 7.1. Next in Section 7.2, we present a descriptive analysis of background factors as relevant factors for understanding the deans' attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. Finally, a summary of this chapter is presented in 7.3.

7.1 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE ATTITUDES, SUBJECTIVE NORMS, AND PERCEIVED BEHAVIOURAL CONTROL OF DEANS
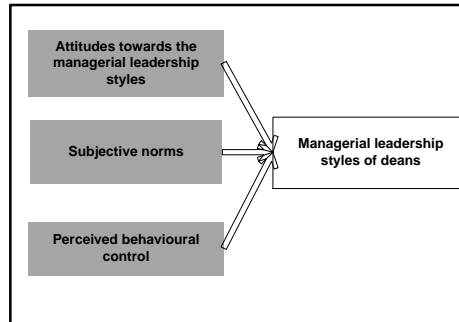
Figure 7.1   Factors Influencing Deans' Managerial Leadership Styles

7.1.1   Attitudes of Deans

An attitude towards a behaviour is the degree to which performance of the behaviour is positively or negatively valued (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). It is assumed to have two important components: (1) behavioural belief (the subjective probability that the behaviour will produce a given outcome) and (2) evaluation of the outcome (favourability or unfavourability of the behaviour). Specifically, the attitude is determined by the total set of accessible behavioural beliefs (b) which are weighted by the evaluation (e) of the outcome. In other words, attitude (A) is the aggregation of behavioural beliefs and evaluation of outcome as shown in this equation: $A = b_i {}^* e_i$.

For this study, we developed questions about behavioural beliefs (b) and about evaluation of outcomes (e) to assess the deans' attitudes.[17] The questions refer to the eight managerial leadership roles based on the Competing Values Framework (CVF). The results of measuring the deans' attitudes are depicted in Table 7.1.

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[17] The results of the descriptive analysis of the deans' behavioural beliefs and their evaluation of outcomes can be found in Appendix D, Tables 1 and 2 respectively.

Table 7.1   *Attitudes of Deans towards the Eight Managerial Leadership Roles Based on
the CVF*

Deans' attitudes towards the eight managerial leadership roles	Mean*	SD	N
Director	40.5	7.2	218
Facilitator	40.3	7.9	218
Coordinator	40.2	8.3	218
Producer	39.5	7.9	218
Innovator	39.3	8.5	218
Monitor	38.3	8.8	217
Broker	36.7	9.1	217
Mentor	33.9	9.4	218

Note: *Mean scores range from 1 (not important at all) to 49 (extremely important). See Equation
4.2 for the calculation.

Table 7.1 shows that, in general, the deans have positive attitudes towards the
eight managerial leadership roles. However, some managerial leadership roles
are perceived more positively than others. Table 7.1 shows that the deans
perceived leadership roles such as the director, facilitator, and coordinator very
positively. They were less positive about the broker and mentor roles.

This finding suggests that, when leading and managing a faculty, the deans
believe that it is important for them to emphasise leadership roles such as
clarifying faculty's expectations through planning and goal setting, maintaining
the structure and flow of the faculty, and building cohesion and teamwork. Deans
believe that they should also have some focus on leadership roles that entail
results and performance; facilitating adaptation and change; and maintaining
information management in terms of reviewing records, reports and files.
Although they believe the broker and mentor roles are less significant, the deans
still believe that they should engage in leadership roles such as maintaining
external legitimacy and developing faculty staff members.

7.1.2   *Subjective Norms of Deans*

A subjective norm is the perceived social pressure to engage or not to engage in a
behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). It is assumed to
have two important components: (1) normative beliefs (the expectations of the
important referents) and (2) motivation to comply (the individual's motivation to
comply with the different referents). Theoretically, the subjective norm is

determined by the total set of accessible normative beliefs (n) which are weighted by the motivation to comply (m). In other words, subjective norm (SN) is the aggregation of normative beliefs and motivation to comply as shown in this equation: $SN = n_i{}^*m_i$

For this study, we developed questions about normative beliefs (n). The questions refer to the four aspects of leadership from the CVF. Concerning the motivation to comply with (m),[18] we selected faculty academics (FA), fellow deans (FD), and central management (CM) as the three important referents. The results of measuring the deans' subjective norms are displayed in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2   *Subjective Norms of Deans for the Four Aspects of Faculty Leadership Based on the CVF*

Four aspects of faculty leadership (with respect to)	Important referents								
	FA		FD		CM				
	M^*	SD	M	SD	M	SD	Total mean score**	SD	N
Clear vision that embraces innovation and change (Adhocracy)	17	5.3	12	5.5	15	5.9	44	13.6	216
Strong coordination and detailed organisation of teaching and research (Hierarchy)	16	5.9	12	5.9	14	5.9	42	13.8	216
Market-driven and results-oriented behaviour of academics (Market)	15	6.0	11	5.6	14	5.7	40	13.9	216
Sense of collectivism with consensual decision making and much personal attention (Clan)	15	6.7	11	6.1	13	6.5	39	13.8	216

Note: FA = faculty academics, FD = fellow deans, CM = central management, *all mean scores range from -21 (very negative) to +21 (very positive), **Total mean scores = the sum of the mean scores of the three important referents with regard to each aspect of faculty leadership. The total scores range from -63 (very negative) to +63 (very positive). See Equation 4.3 for the calculation.

Table 7.2 shows that the deans have generally positive subjective norms for the four aspects of faculty leadership based on the CVF (see the total mean scores).

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[18] The results of the descriptive analysis of the deans' normative beliefs and their motivation to comply can be found in Appendix D, Tables 3 and 4 respectively.

This means that deans' perceive social pressures to perform the four aspects of faculty leadership. The deans believe that their academics, their fellow deans, and their central management think they should engage in the clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy aspects of leadership. They believe that their referents want them to be adaptable and flexible (adhocracy), but they also want deans to be stable and controlled (hierarchy). In addition, there exists social pressure for deans to focus on human resources and morale (clan), but also on planning and goal setting, productivity and efficiency (market).

The outcomes in Table 7.2 also show that the deans have more positive perceptions of the expectations of their faculty academics than those of their central management and fellow deans. These findings suggest that the deans are more motivated to comply with the views of their faculty academics than with the other two groups. Nevertheless, the expectations of central management are also important as are the expectations of fellow deans (although to a lesser extent).

7.1.3   *Perceived Behavioural Control of Deans*

Perceived behavioural control refers to people's perceptions of their ability to perform a given behaviour when they have control over its performance (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). To measure the deans' perceived behavioural control, we asked eleven questions directly related to personal and environmental factors that deans at Indonesian universities may face in managing their faculty.[19] These questions were administered to the 218 deans who responded to the first survey, and a total of 75 completed questionnaires were obtained (see Chapter 4). The results are shown in Table 7.3.

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[19] The results of factor analysis classifying the eleven items of control beliefs into three distinct dimensions of perceived behavioural control can be seen in Appendix B, Table 2.

Table 7.3   *Perceived Behavioural Control of Deans*

Perceived control	Mean*	SD	N
Internal controls	4.3	1.0	75
Environmental controls	3.8	0.9	75
Practical controls	3.7	1.2	75

Note: *Mean scores range from 1 (not at all) to 6 (very high extent). Mean scores close to 6 indicate having more control.

Table 7.3 shows that the deans of the study perceive that the internal, environmental, and practical controls are not obstacles when they lead and manage a faculty. However, deans are more confident of their abilities when faced with internal controls than environmental and practical controls. This suggests that the deans believe that they have strong control over internal factors such as conflicts between personal values and the faculty culture, lack of skills, the existence of unclear and fragmented authorities within the faculty, and a lack of interest from faculty academics on faculty matters. Although deans' perceptions of environmental and practical controls are slightly lower than those of internal controls, the deans still believe that they have some control over these two areas. This suggests that the deans may believe that they have relatively high control over faculty information systems, academic values, authority in decision making, capacity of administrative staff, and practical factors in relation to the size and complexity of their faculty and workload. In other words, the deans do not think that any of these factors could prevent them from exhibiting their managerial leadership styles.

7.2   DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF BACKGROUND FACTORS

In this section, we describe our background factors—faculty (organisational) culture, managerial skills, and demographic factors like gender, age, term of office, and academic discipline—used in the research model. These background factors serve as possible influential factors on observed relations to the attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control of deans.

7.2.1   Faculty Culture

To describe the organisational culture of Indonesian faculty, we employed the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) based on the CVF

(Cameron and Quinn 2006, pp. 26-28). This instrument allows us to assess Indonesian faculty culture based on the four aspects of organisational culture—the clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market culture—within the CVF.[20] For the calculation, we conducted a factor analysis to check whether the theoretically assumed four aspects of organisational culture could also be identified from our data. The analytical results show no clear distinction between the four aspects of culture. This indicates that Indonesian universities are characterised by a mix of the four aspects of faculty culture.

Although we could not statistically create a neat four-aspect picture of faculty culture based on the OCAI, we decided to keep and use the four aspects of faculty culture which the theory suggests. This enabled us to use the four aspects of culture based on the OCAI as a configuration to identify a specific or dominant aspect of culture in Indonesian faculties. We expected that we could find meaningful differences to demonstrate (more) dominant aspects of faculty culture at Indonesian universities. For these purposes, an average score was obtained by summing the scores of the six items in each aspect of culture and then dividing the sum by six. The results are shown in Table 7.4.

Table 7.4   *Four Aspects of Faculty Culture at Indonesian Universities*

Four aspects of faculty culture	Mean*	SD	Cronbach's Alpha (6)**	N
Clan	6.1	0.6	0.6	215
Hierarchy	5.9	0.7	0.7	216
Market	5.6	0.7	0.7	215
Adhocracy	5.5	0.8	0.7	215

Note: *Mean scores range from 1 (absolutely not) to 7 (completely). **The number in brackets indicates numbers of items. See Equation 4.4 for the calculation.

Table 7.4 shows that the consistency of the items in each aspect of skills is relatively satisfactory (Cronbach's Alpha coefficients are ≥ 0.6) (Nunnally 1978). It also shows that the four aspects of faculty culture within the CVF are clearly identifiable and a dominant culture is not clearly distinguished. This suggests that Indonesian faculties contain a mix of cultural aspects. This finding supports the previous finding, highlighting a mixed picture of organisations. Nevertheless, we can still see that faculties in Indonesian universities lean more towards the clan and hierarchy cultures.

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[20] A classification of the four aspects of faculty culture appears in Chapter 4, Table 4.9.

Faculties which are dominated by the clan culture are strongly characterised by "a family-type organisation" (Cameron and Quinn 2006, p. 41). This indicates that these faculties usually place greater importance on shared values and goals, cohesion, participation, and a sense of 'we-ness'. People in these clan-aspect faculties regularly focus on teamwork, participation, commitment, loyalty, and employee development. Faculties which are dominated by the hierarchy culture are characterised by formality and structure. This implies that these faculties are usually managed by "clear lines of decision-making authority; standardised rules and procedures, and control and accountability mechanisms" (Cameron and Quinn 2006, p. 37). People in these hierarchy-dominated faculties comply with the rules and policies that outline what they should do and maintain the smooth structure and flow of the system in the faculty.

Interestingly, the findings on the dominant aspect of faculty culture based on the OCAI are consistent with the analysis of Indonesian national culture based on Hofstede's four cultural dimensions. In his cross-cultural study across nations, Hofstede (Online) finds that Indonesia is a collectivistic and hierarchical society (see Chapter 3). From these findings, we assume that faculty cultures are a manifestation of the national culture which "can influence how people set personal and professional goals, perform tasks and administer resources to achieve them" (Lok and Crawford 2003, p. 323).

7.2.2   *Management Skills*

To identify the deans' perceptions of important management skills necessary to succeed as deans,[21] we used the Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI) (Cameron and Quinn 2006, pp. 120-121) which is based on the Competing Values Framework (CVF). In completing this analysis, we first carried out a factor analysis to check whether the theoretically assumed management skills could be identified in our data. As the theory suggests, the results indicated that there is a clear distinction between the four aspects of management skills. We then conducted a descriptive analysis to identify the deans' perceptions of the four aspects of managerial skills based on the CVF. The results of the analysis are displayed in Table 7.5.

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[21] A classification of the four aspects of managerial skills based on the CVF appears in Chapter 4, Table 4.10.

Table 7.5   *Deans' Perceptions of the Four Aspects of Management Skills Based on the CVF*

Four aspects of management skills	Mean*	SD	Cronbach's Alpha (3)**	N
Clan	6.6	0.6	0.7	218
Adhocracy	6.6	0.6	0.8	218
Hierarchy	6.4	0.7	0.8	218
Market	6.3	0.7	0.8	218

Note: *Mean scores range from 1 (not important at all) to 7 (critically important). **The number in brackets indicates numbers of items. See Equation 4.5 for the calculation.

Table 7.5 shows that all data measures are robust in terms of their internal consistency as demonstrated by their Cronbach's Alpha (α coefficients are $\geq$ 0.7) (Nunnally 1978). Furthermore, in Table 7.5 we see that there are only marginal distinctions in the way the deans perceive different management skills. This suggests that the deans believe that the four aspects of management skills are important for them to succeed in their roles. Nevertheless, the deans perceive that it is most important to be competent in the clan and adhocracy skill areas.

7.2.3   Demographic Factors

A total of 218 deans from Sumatera to Papua participated in the deanship survey. The demographic characteristics of deans at Indonesian universities are shown in Table 7.6.

Table 7.6   *Demographic Characteristics of Deans at Indonesian Universities (N = 218, in %)*

Demographics	Frequency (n)	Percentage
Gender		
Male	179	82
Female	39	18
Age		
< 40	21	10
40-50	82	38
51-60	93	43
> 60	22	10
Term in office (years)		
$\leq$ 2	102	47

3-4	58	27
5-6	27	12
> 6	31	14
Academic discipline		
Technical	79	36
Non-technical	139	64

Table 7.6 shows that, of the 218 respondents, 82% are male and 18% are female. This suggests that the predominance of men amongst deans at Indonesian universities is reflected in this study. Deans aged between 51 and 60 (43%) and between 40 and 50 (38%) are overrepresented, while those 60+ (10%) and under 40 (10%) are underrepresented. There is no comparative data to determine whether this reflects the general dean population. With respect to term of office, 47% of deans report that they have been in their position for less than two years. In addition, the deans come from a wide variety of faculties—we have grouped these into two major areas—technical and non-technical faculties. While 64% of respondents are from non-technical faculties, 36% are from technical faculties.[22]

7.3   SUMMARY

This chapter provides the descriptive analysis of the factors influencing the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities. It describes the proximal determinants of the styles, that is, attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. It also addresses faculty culture, management skills, and demographic factors as background factors that may influence the determinants of the styles.

The results of the descriptive analysis indicate that, in general, the deans of the study have positive attitudes towards the eight managerial leadership roles within the CVF. However, some roles are perceived more positively, while others are perceived less positively. The findings show that the deans hold more favourable attitudes towards the director, facilitator, and coordinator roles. They have less favourable attitudes towards the broker and mentor roles.

With respect to subjective norms, in general, the deans of the study believe that their important referents—faculty academics, fellow deans, and central management—think they should demonstrate the clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy leadership within the CVF. In addition, the findings indicate that the

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[22] See Chapter 4 for the classification of the two groups of faculty.

deans tend to comply more with the expectations of their faculty academics than with the expectations of their other two referents.

Regarding perceived behavioural control, the deans in the study generally perceive that the specified environmental, internal, and practical factors are not barriers that impede their managerial leadership styles. However, the deans themselves believe to have more control over internal factors including conflict between personal values and faculty culture, lack of skills, having unclear and fragmented authorities within the faculty, and dealing with lack of interest from faculty academics on faculty matters.

Regarding faculty cultures, the results show that Indonesian universities reflect a mix of the four aspects of organisational culture. However, the clan and hierarchy aspects are found to be more dominant than the market and adhocracy aspects of culture. With respect to management skills, the deans in the study perceive that it is more important for them to have the clan and adhocracy skills if they want to succeed. In this study, the majority of deans are male (82%). More than 40% of them are between 51 and 60 years old. Most deans have held their position for less than two years. More than 60% of the deans chair non-technical faculties.

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8

CHAPTER

Understanding the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans

"Look deep into nature, and then you will understand everything better."
Albert Einstein (1879-1955)

In the previous chapter, the variables forming the research models for the study were described. In this chapter, the relationships between the variables in our behavioural models are examined.[23] First, the volitional behavioural model of the study is analysed. In this model, the influences of attitudes and subjective norms on the managerial leadership styles of deans are examined and explained in Section 8.1. Second, the non-volitional behavioural model of the study is analysed. In this model, the influences of attitudes, subjective norms, environmental controls, internal controls, and practical controls on the

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[23] We also examined the relation path of the models by using a software application SmartPLS version 2.0 M3 (Ringle et al. 2005). The results generated by SmartPLS and by Statistics show no substantial difference (see Appendix E, Table 1 for a comparison). However, we decided to use Statistics because first, SmartPLS does not provide some of the measurements that we needed for an in depth analysis. Second, Statistics provided consistent data measurements.

managerial leadership styles of deans are investigated and discussed in Section 8.2. The influences of background factors on the attitudes, subjective norms, environmental controls, internal controls, and practical controls of deans are examined and presented in Section 8.3. Lastly, Section 8.4 summarises and concludes this chapter.

8.1   THE VOLITIONAL BEHAVIOURAL MODEL OF THE STUDY: INFLUENCES OF ATTITUDES AND SUBJECTIVE NORMS ON THE MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP STYLES OF DEANS

Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) volitional behavioural model assumes that individuals will perform a behaviour of interest when they have positive attitudes towards this behaviour and have positive subjective norms for this behaviour.
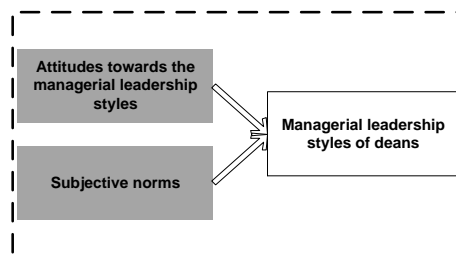
Note: Arrows indicate the direction of influence.

Figure 8.1 Influences of Attitudes and Subjective Norms on the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans

Data were analysed in two stages. First, the correlation between attitudes and subjective norms and the managerial leadership styles was analysed. For this analysis, a bivariate regression analysis was used. Second, the influences of attitudes and subjective norms on the managerial leadership styles of deans were analysed. For this analysis, a multiple linear regression analysis was used. It was expected that both attitudes and subjective norms would influence the managerial leadership styles of deans.

8.1.1   Preliminary Analysis

For the calculation, we used the original data (N = 218). In this volitional behavioural model, attitude and subjective norms served as the independent variables and all the styles (the Master style and the four specific styles) served as the dependent variables. Attitude, subjective norm, and the Master style variable were calculated on the basis of a composite score of their manifest average scores (see Chapter 4, Table 4.11). For the specific styles, all variables were a composite score of the average score of the important roles in each style (see Chapter 6, Figures 6.3 to 6.6). For example, the Competitive Consultant style variable was a composite score of the average score of the director, producer, and facilitator roles as they are considered the important roles for this style. The results of the bivariate regression analysis are shown in Tables 8.1 and 8.2.

Table 8.1   *Influences of Attitudes on the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans (N = 217)*

Managerial leadership style	Attitude	
	β*	R^2
Master	0.59	0.34
Competitive Consultant	0.57	0.31
Focused Team Captain	0.54	0.29
Consensual Goal-Setter	0.54	0.29
Informed Trust-Builder	0.57	0.32

Notes: β = standardized regression coefficient = correlation coefficient, R^2 = adjusted coefficient of determination, *all β coefficients are significant at $p < 0.001$.

Table 8.1 shows the influences of attitudes on the managerial leadership styles of deans. As we expected, the results indicate that attitudes significantly, positively, and strongly influence all the styles. This is indicated by the high beta coefficients ranging from 0.54 to 0.59 ($p < 0.001$). Furthermore, Table 8.1 shows that the deans' attitudes explain approximately 30% of the variance in their managerial leadership styles. This suggests that, in this study, attitudes strongly influence the managerial leadership styles of deans.

Table 8.2   *Influences of Subjective Norms on the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans*
            (N = 215)

Managerial leadership style	Subjective norm	
	β*	R^2
Master	0.35	0.11
Competitive Consultant	0.32	0.10
Focused Team Captain	0.31	0.10
Consensual Goal-Setter	0.30	0.09
Informed Trust-Builder	0.33	0.10

Notes: β = standardized regression coefficient = correlation coefficient, R^2 = adjusted coefficient of determination, * all β coefficients are significant at $p < 0.001$.

Table 8.2 shows the influences of subjective norms on the managerial leadership styles of deans. The findings indicate that subjective norms significantly, positively, and moderately influence all the styles (beta coefficients range from 0.30 to 0.35, $p < 0.001$). However, we expected that the regression coefficients would be higher than 0.35, reflecting the relative importance of subjective norms in influencing the styles. Our expectation was based on the fact that Indonesia is a collectivist society in which individuals are integrated into strong cohesive in-groups (see Chapter 3). Furthermore, the results displayed in Table 8.3 show that the deans' subjective norms only explain approximately 10% of the variance in their managerial leadership styles. This suggests that, in this study, subjective norms are a weak factor influencing the managerial leadership styles of deans.

8.1.2   *Main Analysis*

In this subsection, the influences of attitudes and subjective norms on the managerial leadership styles of deans are investigated. The results of the multiple linear regression analysis are presented in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3 *Influences of Attitudes and Subjective Norms on the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans (N = 215)*

Managerial leadership style	Attitude		Subjective norm		R	R^2
	β*	sig	β	sig		
Master	0.57	0.00	0.03	0.66	0.59	0.34
Competitive Consultant	0.56	0.00	0.01	0.89	0.57	0.31
Focused Team Captain	0.53	0.00	0.02	0.76	0.54	0.29
Consensual Goal-Setter	0.54	0.00	0.01	0.93	0.54	0.29
Informed Trust-Builder	0.57	0.00	0.02	0.83	0.57	0.32

Notes: β = standardized regression coefficient, R = multiple correlation coefficient, R^2 = adjusted coefficient of determination, *all beta coefficients of attitudes are significant at $p < 0.001$.

Table 8.3 shows the influences of attitudes and subjective norms on the managerial leadership styles of deans. When attitudes and subjective norms are put together in the equation on the multiple linear regression analysis, only attitudes significantly, positively, and strongly influence all the styles. Subjective norms show no significant influence on the styles. These findings are intriguing compared to the findings of the previous analyses, showing that subjective norms influence all the styles with moderate magnitudes (see Table 8.2). Although in the previous analyses the relative weights of subjective norms are not as strong as those of attitudes, we still would expect subjective norms, to some extent, to contribute to the explanation of the styles. Regarding this issue, we assume that there might be a correlation between attitudes and subjective norms.

In response to this, we investigated the correlation between attitudes and subjective norms. There is a relatively high correlation between them (correlation coefficient = 0.55), confirming Fishbein and Ajzen's (2010, p. 192) statement that "the reason for disparity in the magnitude of correlation and regression coefficients is that the predictors are intercorrelated". This finding is not unusual. As stated by Ajzen:

> … attitude (A), subjective norm (SN), and perceived behavioural control (PBC) are conceptually independent predictors of intentions. However, empirically they are usually found to be inter-correlated because the same information can influence behavioural, normative, and/or control beliefs, the theoretical antecedents of A, SN, and PBC, respectively (Online, Frequently Asked Questions, point 16).

The inter-correlation between attitudes and subjective norms sometimes results in a statistical problem, called multicollinearity, where the two predictors are simultaneously entered into a regression equation to explain a behaviour of interest (Miniard and Cohen 1981 cited in Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p. 171). For this reason, we conducted a multicollinearity analysis. The results are shown in Table 8.4.

Table 8.4   *Multicollinearity Analysis for the Volitional Behavioural Model (N= 216)*

Coefficients							
Model: Master style	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics*	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	*t*	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Attitude	.028	.003	.573	8.634	.000	.696	1.436
Subjective Norm	.001	.003	.029	.438	.662	.696	1.436

Notes: Tolerance = a measure of collinearity, VIF = Variance Inflation Factor, showing how much the variance of the coefficient estimate is being inflated by multicollinearity. *A tolerance close to 0 and a VIF close to 10 (rule of thumb) suggest that multicollinearity may be a threat.

The results displayed in Table 8.4 show that multicollinearity is present but it is still within tolerance levels. The tolerance coefficients are relatively high (Tol = 0.696), and the VIF coefficient is not higher than that of the rule of thumb of 10 (VIF = 1.436) (Williams 2011, pp. 1, 3). These suggest that "while attitudes and subjective norms can be, and frequently are, supported by similar and interrelated belief systems, contrary to Minard and Cohen (1981), this is not to say that they are conceptually indistinct" (Liska 1984, p. 68). Based on this result, we can empirically treat attitudes and subjective norms as two independent determinants of the styles.

The insignificance of subjective norms does not necessarily imply that subjective norms are not an important determinant of the styles. Subjective norms can still be an important determinant of styles, but because subjective norms share information with attitudes, their influence is not reflected in the correlation with the styles. In our study, the influences of subjective norms are, to a large extent, mediated by attitudes.

Returning to Table 8.3, it can be seen that although subjective norms do not influence the styles, the adjusted coefficients of determination (R^2) in the last

column show that the deans' attitudes account for approximately 30% of the variance in their managerial leadership styles. This suggests that, in this study, attitudes are the predominant determinant of the managerial leadership styles of deans. This finding is consistent with the previous findings, supporting that attitudes are a strong factor influencing the managerial leadership styles of deans.

In conclusion, the empirical model of the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities based on the volitional behaviour model of the study can be presented as follows.
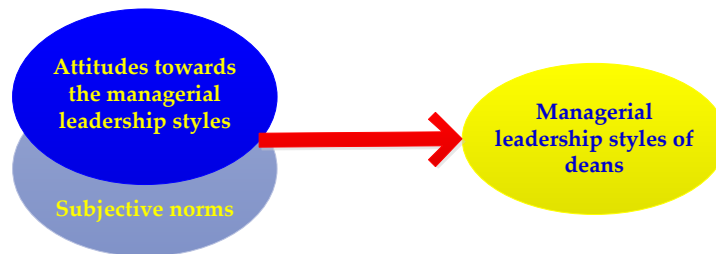
Figure 8.2   The Empirical Model of the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans at Indonesian Universities based on Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) Volitional Behaviour Model

Furthermore, the theory of volitional behaviour assumes that the more favourable the attitudes towards a behaviour of interest, the stronger the demonstration of such behaviour. For this study, the more the deans hold favourable attitudes towards a managerial leadership style, the more likely the deans will demonstrate this style.

To investigate this assumption, we carried out a 'zoom-in' analysis. In the calculation, we used the attitudes related to the dominant roles for each style. The Competitive Consultant style, for example, is dominated by the producer, director, and facilitator roles, so we used the attitudes towards these for our calculation. For this zoom-in analysis, a multiple linear regression analysis was used. The attitudes towards the dominant roles for each style were the independent variables and the managerial leadership styles were the dependent variables. The results of the zoom-in analysis are presented in Table 8.5.

Table 8.5 *Zoom-in Analysis of the Styles from Attitudes*

Managerial leadership style	Role dimensions of Attitudes																		
	innovator		broker		producer		director		coordinator		monitor		facilitator		mentor		R	R²	N
	r**	β	r**	β	r**	β	r**	β	r**	β	r**	β	r**	β	r**	β			
Master (all of the eight managerial roles)	0.47	0.08	0.51	**0.23***	0.52	0.12	0.48	0.10	0.42	0.03	0.45	**0.18***	0.35	0.01	0.42	0.08	0.62	0.36	215
Competitive Consultant (producer, director, facilitator)					0.49	**0.27***	0.49	**0.28***					0.37	0.09			0.55	0.29	217
Focused Team Captain (producer, facilitator)					0.48	**0.39***							0.37	**0.15***			0.49	0.24	215
Consensual Goal-Setter (director, facilitator)							0.46	**0.37***					0.37	**0.20***			0.49	0.23	217
Informed Trust-Builder (producer, coordinator, monitor, mentor)					0.49	**0.21***			0.46	0.11	0.52	**0.29***			0.39	**0.12***	0.59	0.34	216

Notes: r = zero-order correlation coefficient, β = standardized regression coefficient, R = multiple correlation coefficient, R^2 = adjusted coefficient of determination, the bolded standardized β coefficients represent the significant dimensions of attitude , *significant at $p \leq 0.05$, **all zero-order correlation coefficients are significant at $p < 0.01$.

The results displayed in Table 8.5 (third row) show that the Focused Team Captain style is influenced by attitudes towards the dominant roles in this style, that is, the producer and facilitator. Similarly, the Consensual Goal-Setter style (fourth row of Table 8.5) is influenced by attitudes towards the dominant roles in this style, that is, the director and facilitator. These findings support the theory that the deans who have more favourable attitudes towards a style will more likely demonstrate such a style.

Furthermore, Table 8.5 (second row) shows that the Competitive Consultant style is influenced by attitudes towards the producer and director roles, but not its third dominant role, the facilitator. The Informed Trust-Builder style (fifth row of Table 8.5) is influenced by attitudes towards three of its dominant roles—the producer, monitor, and mentor—but not its fourth dominant role, the coordinator. The Master style (first row of Table 8.5) is only influenced by attitudes towards two out of the eight roles related to this style, that is, the broker and monitor. With respect to these limitations, we assume that there is a correlation between one explanatory variable and any of the other explanatory variables of the styles. For example, attitude towards the coordinator role may still be an important determinant of the Informed Trust-Builder style (fifth row of Table 8.5). However, its influence does not appear significantly in the regression because it shares information with any of the other determinants of this style.

Although the outcomes did not fully meet our expectations, the findings are still largely consistent with the theoretical assumptions.

**8.2   THE NON-VOLITIONAL BEHAVIOURAL MODEL OF
THE STUDY: INFLUENCES OF ATTITUDES, SUBJECTIVE
NORMS, AND PERCEIVED BEHAVIOURAL CONTROL ON
THE MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP STYLES OF DEANS**

*Fishbein and Ajzen's (2010) non-volitional behavioural model assumes that individuals
will perform a behaviour of interest when they have positive attitudes towards this
behaviour, when they have positive subjective norms for this behaviour and when they
believe that they have control over the performance of this behaviour.*
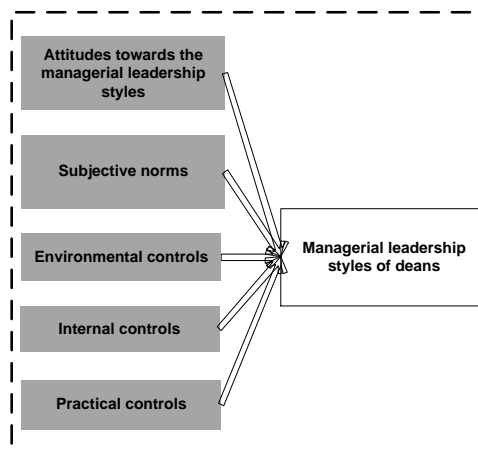
Note: Arrows indicate the direction of influence. This empirical model includes the three
dimensions of perceived behavioural control as additional determinants of managerial
leadership styles of deans. This is the only difference between the volitional model
(Section 8.1) and the non-volitional model (this section).

Figure 8.3   Influences of Attitudes, Subjective Norms, Environmental Controls,
Internal Controls, and Practical Controls on the Managerial
Leadership Styles of Deans

As mentioned in Chapter 4, we carried out a follow-up survey addressing
perceived behavioural control. For this, we received a total of 75 completed
questionnaires which we used to analyse the non-volitional behavioural model.
Based on factor analysis, we were able to distinguish three dimensions of
perceived behavioural control: environmental, internal, and practical controls (see
Chapter 4, Table 4.8). The internal consistency of the items within each control is

good (Cronbach's Alpha coefficients range from 0.7 to 0.8). Environmental controls include factors relating to undeveloped information systems, strong academic values, limited authority in decision making and insufficient capacity of administrative staff. Internal controls include factors relating to conflicts between personal values and the faculty culture, lack of skills, having unclear and fragmented authorities within the faculty and dealing with a lack of interest from faculty academics on faculty matters. Practical controls include factors relating to size and complexity of the faculty and high workload.

The data was analysed in two stages. First, we conducted a preliminary analysis of a correlation between attitudes, subjective norms, environmental, internal, and practical controls and the managerial leadership styles of deans. For this analysis, a bivariate regression analysis was used. Second, we conducted the main analysis of the influences of attitudes, subjective norms, environmental, internal, and practical controls on the managerial leadership styles of deans. For this analysis, a multiple linear regression analysis was used. It was expected that these five independent variables would influence the managerial leadership styles of deans.

8.2.1 Preliminary Analysis

For the calculation, we used the original data ($N = 75$). In this non-volitional behavioural model, attitudes, subjective norms, environmental controls, internal controls, and practical controls served as the independent variables (see Chapter 4, Table 4.12). All the styles (the Master style and the four specific styles) served as the dependent variables. All variables in the model were calculated on the basis of composite scores of their manifest average scores.

Tables 8.6, 8.7, and 8.8 display the results of the bivariate regression analysis of attitudes, subjective norms, environmental controls, internal controls, and practical controls to the styles.

Table 8.6   *Influences of Attitudes on the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans*
            (N = 74)

	Attitude	
Managerial leadership style	β*	R^2
Master	0.56	0.30
Competitive Consultant	0.55	0.29
Focused Team Captain	0.55	0.29
Consensual Goal-Setter	0.53	0.27
Informed Trust-Builder	0.52	0.26

Notes: β = standardized regression coefficient, R^2 = adjusted coefficient of determination, *all β coefficients are significant at $p < 0.001$.

Table 8.6 shows the influences of attitudes to the managerial leadership styles of deans. Significant, positive, and strong influences are found between the attitudes and the styles. Attitudes explain between 26% and 30% of the variance in the styles. This suggests that the deans' attitudes are a strong factor influencing their managerial leadership styles. This finding is consistent with the findings of the previous analyses (see Table 8.1) and also confirms the consistency of the models used for this study. The same holds true for subjective norms.

Table 8.7   *Influences of Subjective Norms on the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans*
            (N = 73)

	Subjective norm	
Managerial leadership style	β*	R^2
Master	0.38	0.13
Competitive Consultant	0.37	0.12
Focused Team Captain	0.38	0.13
Consensual Goal-Setter	0.34	0.11
Informed Trust-Builder	0.37	0.13

Notes: β = standardized regression coefficient, R^2 = adjusted coefficient of determination, *all β coefficients are significant at $p < 0.001$.

Table 8.7 presents the influences of subjective norms on the managerial leadership styles of deans. It shows that significant, positive and moderate relationships are found between these two variables. Furthermore, the results displayed in Table 8.7 show that subjective norms explain between 11% and 13% of the variance in the styles. This indicates that the deans' subjective norms are a

relatively weak factor that influences their managerial leadership styles. This finding is consistent with the findings of the previous analyses, supporting that, in this study, subjective norms are a weak determinant of the managerial leadership styles of deans. (see Table 8.2).

Table 8.8 *Influences of Environmental Controls, Internal Controls, and Practical Controls on the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans (N = 73)*

Managerial leadership style	Environmental control			Internal control			Practical control		
	β	sig	R^2	β	sig	R^2	β	sig	R^2
Master	0.12	0.31	0.00	0.09	0.47	0.00	-0.33*	0.04	0.10
Competitive Consultant	0.15	0.20	0.01	0.18	0.13	0.02	-0.24*	0.04	0.05
Focused Team Captain	0.16	0.18	0.01	0.17	0.15	0.02	-0.26*	0.02	0.06
Consensual Goal-Setter	0.12	0.29	0.00	0.15	0.20	0.01	-0.22*	0.03	0.03
Informed Trust-Builder	0.09	0.43	0.00	0.07	0.55	0.00	-0.28*	0.01	0.07

Notes: β = standardized regression coefficient, R^2 = adjusted coefficient of determination, *beta coefficients are significant at $p < 0.05$.

Table 8.8 presents the influences of environmental, internal, and practical controls on the managerial leadership styles of deans. The results show that practical controls moderately, significantly, and negatively influence all the styles. Here, the negative relationship between the two variables means: (1) the greater the practical obstacles (i.e. size and complexity of the faculty and high workloads), the less likely the deans in the study will demonstrate their managerial leadership styles; and (2) the less the practical obstacles, the more likely the deans in the study will demonstrate their managerial leadership styles.

The results displayed in Table 8.8 show that there is no significant influence by environmental controls or internal controls on any of the styles. Nevertheless, practical controls account for between 3% and 10% of the variance in the styles. This suggests that, in this study, practical controls seem to be a very weak factor influencing the managerial leadership styles of deans.

8.2.2   Main Analysis

In this subsection, the influences of attitudes, subjective norms, environmental controls, internal controls, and practical controls on the managerial leadership styles are examined. Based on our first analytical experience in 8.1.2, an initial analysis of multicollinearity in the data was carried out. The results, as shown in Table 8.9, indicate that multicollinearity exists but within tolerance. Fairly high tolerance coefficients, ranging from 0.572 to 0.757 and low VIF coefficients, ranging from 1.321 to 1.747 were obtained (Williams 2011). This means that attitudes, subjective norms, environmental controls, internal controls, and practical controls can be treated as independent variables.

Table 8.9   *Multicollinearity Analysis for the Non-Volitional Behavioural Model*
             (N = 73)

Coefficients							
Model: Master style	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics*	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	*t*	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Attitude	.026	.006	.526	4.295	.000	.597	1.676
Subjective norm	-.003	.014	-.028	-.228	.821	.572	1.747
Environmental control	-.102	.712	-.018	-.143	.887	.576	1.737
Internal control	.671	.650	.126	1.032	.306	.603	1.658
Practical control	-1.333	.470	-.309	-2.835	.006	.757	1.321

Notes: Tolerance = a measure of collinearity, VIF = Variance Inflation Factor, showing how much the variance of the coefficient estimate is being inflated by multicollinearity. *A tolerance close to 0 and a VIF close to 10 (rule of thumb) suggest that multicollinearity may be a threat.

Table 8.10 shows the influences of attitudes, subjective norms, environmental controls, internal controls, and practical controls on the managerial leadership styles of deans. The results indicate that attitudes and practical controls strongly and significantly influence all the styles. However, attitudes have a stronger influence on the styles than practical controls do. As a general rule, these variations in regression coefficients can be interpreted "as reflective of differences in the relative importance" of these determinants of the styles (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010, p. 197). In this study, attitudes are, therefore, more important than practical controls.

Table 8.10 *Influences of Attitudes, Subjective Norms, Environmental Controls, Internal Controls, and Practical Controls on the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans (N = 73)*

Managerial leadership style	Attitude		Subjective norm		Environmental control		Internal control		Practical control		R	R^2
	β	Sig	β	Sig	β	Sig	β	Sig	β	Sig		
Master	**0.53***	**0.00**	-0.03	0.82	-0.02	0.89	0.13	0.31	**-0.31***	**0.01**	0.63	0.35
Competitive Consultant	**0.55***	**0.00**	-0.05	0.73	-0.07	0.59	**0.23***	**0.04**	**-0.24***	**0.04**	0.61	0.33
Focused Team Captain	**0.52***	**0.00**	-0.02	0.87	-0.04	0.78	0.20	0.10	**-0.26***	**0.02**	0.61	0.33
Consensual Goal-Setter	**0.55***	**0.00**	-0.06	0.67	-0.10	0.47	**0.21***	**0.05**	**-0.20***	**0.04**	0.58	0.29
Informed Trust-Builder	**0.48***	**0.00**	0.03	0.85	-0.04	0.78	0.09	0.48	**-0.24***	**0.04**	0.57	0.27

Notes: β = standardized regression coefficient, R = multiple correlation coefficient, R^2 = adjusted coefficient of determination, *bolded beta coefficients are significant at p ≤ 0.05.

Furthermore, the results displayed in Table 8.10 show that internal controls, together with attitudes and practical controls, make a significant contribution to some of the styles. Subjective norms and environmental controls do not significantly influence any of the styles. The insignificance of subjective norms in the non-volitional model is consistent with that displayed in the volitional model (see Table 8.3). There is also a strong relationship between subjective norms and attitudes (correlation coefficient = 0.56, $p < 0.01$, $N = 74$). This suggests that subjective norms indirectly influence the styles through attitudes since their the influence of subjective norm is not directly reflected in the correlation with the styles. In conclusion, based on the non-volitional behavioural model of the study, attitudes, practical controls, and internal controls are determinants of the styles. They explain between 27% and 35% of the variance in the styles. This suggests that, in this study, they are relatively strong determinants of the managerial leadership styles of deans.

Furthermore, Table 8.10 shows interesting results, that is, the regression coefficients of attitudes increase when practical and internal controls are in the equation. For one comparison, see beta coefficients of attitude in Table 8.10 which presents the non-volitional model and those in Table 8.11 which presents the volitional model. This finding suggests that the deans will have a more positive attitude towards a style when they know that they have control over demonstration of this style.

Table 8.11 *Influences of Attitudes and Subjective Norms on the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans (N = 73)*

Managerial leadership style	Attitude		Subjective norm			
	β	sig	β	sig	R	R^2
Master	0.50*	0.00	0.10	0.40	0.56	0.30
Competitive Consultant	0.50*	0.00	0.09	0.46	0.56	0.29
Focused Team Captain	0.49*	0.00	0.11	0.35	0.56	0.29
Consensual Goal-Setter	0.50*	0.00	0.07	0.59	0.58	0.29
Informed Trust-Builder	0.45*	0.00	0.13	0.31	0.53	0.26

Notes: β = standardized regression coefficient, R = multiple correlation coefficient, R^2 = adjusted coefficient of determination, *beta coefficients are significant at $p < 0.001$.

We further investigated whether the addition of the three perceived controls in the non-volitional behavioural model improves the explanation of the styles. For this, we used a hierarchical multiple regression analysis ($N = 75$). The results indicate that when only attitudes and subjective norms are used as predictors, the

R coefficient between these two predictors and the Competitive Consultant style, for example, is 0.56 with an adjusted R^2 value of 0.29, meaning that attitudes and subjective norms account for 29% of the variation in the Competitive Consultant style (see Table 8.11). However, when the three perceived controls are included as well, the adjusted R^2 value of the Competitive Consultant style increases to 0.33, meaning that all predictors account for 33% of the variance in this style (see Table 8.10). So, the inclusion of the new predictors has explained 4% of the variation in the style [R^2 Change[24] = 0.04, *F*-change[25] (3, 68) = 2.17, $p \leq 0.05$].

We did the analyses for all the styles. The results indicate that the three additional predictors of perceived control do improve the explanation of the Master style, the Competitive Consultant style, and the Focused Team Captain style, but they do not improve the explanation of the Consensual Goal-Setter style and the Informed Trust-Builder style. These findings suggest that the non-volitional behavioural model seems to be a better model to explain some of the styles than the volitional behavioural model.

In conclusion, the empirical model of the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities based on the non-volitional behaviour model of the study is presented in Figure 8.4.

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[24] R^2 Change is the improvement in R^2 when the additional predictor is added.
[25] A significant *F*-change means that the variable(s) added in the step significantly improve the explanation (or prediction).
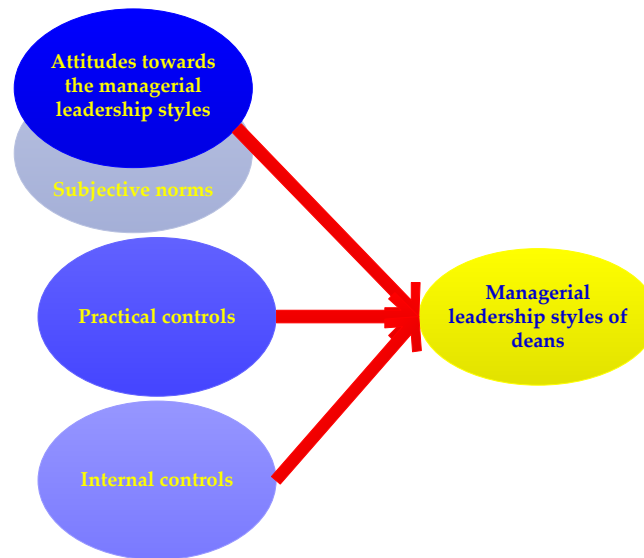
Figure 8.4 The Empirical Model of the Managerial Leadership Styles of
              Deans at Indonesian Universities based on Ajzen's (1985) and
              Fishbein and Ajzen's (2010) Non-Volitional Behaviour Model

8.3   INFLUENCES OF BACKGROUND FACTORS ON THE ATTITUDES, SUBJECTIVE NORMS, ENVIRONMENTAL CONTROLS, INTERNAL CONTROLS, AND PRACTICAL CONTROLS OF DEANS

Ajzen and Fishbein's theoretical models assume that people who come from different backgrounds may form different attitudes (behavioural beliefs), subjective norms (normative beliefs), and perceived behavioural control (control beliefs). Although it is not one of the key questions of this study, it is interesting to find out to what extent this assumption holds as it would further enrich our understanding of deans' attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control.
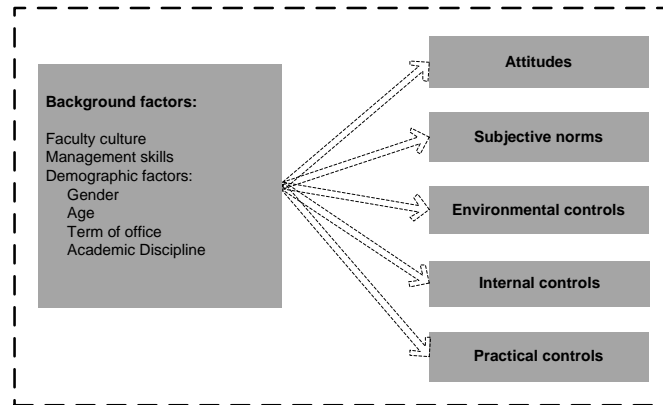
Note: Dotted arrows indicate the possible direction of influence.

Figure 8.5 Influences of Background Factors on the Deans' Attitudes, Subjective Norms, Environmental Controls, Internal Controls, and Practical Controls

In this analysis, we used the original survey data (N = 218) for attitudes and subjective norms and the follow-up survey data (N = 75) for environmental, internal, and practical controls. All these variables served as dependent variables in the equation and the six background factors (faculty culture, management skills, gender, age, term of office, and academic discipline) served as independent variables (see Chapter 4, Table 4.13). For the analysis, multiple linear regression and bivariate regression were used. Table 8.12 presents the influences of each background factor on the attitudes and subjective norms of deans, and Table 8.13 presents the influences of each background factor on the environmental, internal, and practical controls of deans.

8.12   *Influences of Each Background Factor on the Attitudes and Subjective Norms of Deans*

Influences of each background factor on the deans' attitudes (N = 217)				Influences of each background factor on the deans' subjective norms (N = 216)			
Predictor Attitude	*r*	β	*R(R²)*	**Predictor Subjective norm**	*r*	β	*R(R²)*
Clan culture	0.62**	0.29*		Clan culture	0.43**	0.25*	
Adhocracy culture	0.52**	0.11*		Adhocracy culture	0.33**	0.03	
Market culture	0.58**	0.13*		Market culture	0.38**	0.11	
Hierarchy culture	0.66**	0.41*		Hierarchy culture	0.41**	0.23*	
			0.77 (0.58)				0.50 (0.24)
Clan skill	0.53**	0.09		Clan skill	0.31**	0.07	
Adhocracy skill	0.61**	0.22*		Adhocracy skill	0.35**	0.14	
Market skill	0.59**	0.20*		Market skill	0.31**	0.04	
Hierarchy skill	0.62**	0.30*		Hierarchy skill	0.37**	0.22*	
			0.70 (0.48)				0.40 (0.15)
Gender	0.11	0.11	0.11! (0.01)	Gender	0.01	0.01	0.01! (0.01)
Age (years)	0.07	0.07	0.07! (0.00)	Age (years)	0.03	0.03	0.00! (0.00)
Term of office (years)	0.01	0.01	0.01! (0.00)	Term of office (years)	-0.08	-0.08	0.01! (0.00)
Academic discipline	-0.07	-0.07	0.07! (0.00)	Academic discipline	-0.12	-0.12	0.12! (0.01)

Notes: *r* = zero-order correlation coefficient, β = standardized regression coefficient, *R* = Multiple correlation coefficient, *R²* = adjusted coefficient of determination, *β coefficients are significant at $p < 0.05$, **r coefficients are significant at $p < 0.01$. !R (R²) all these coefficients are not significant at $p < 0.05$.

The left column of Table 8.12 shows the influences of each background factor on the deans' attitudes. The results show that high zero-order correlations are found between the four aspects of faculty culture and attitudes. These high zero-order correlations usually indicate that the four aspects of culture are likely to have

some influence on attitudes. As expected, the results show that all four aspects of culture significantly influence attitudes. The hierarchy aspect of culture has the highest regression coefficient (β = 0.41, $p < 0.05$), followed by the clan aspect (β = 0.29, $p < 0.05$), the market aspect (β = 0.13, $p < 0.05$) and the adhocracy aspect (β = 0.11, $p < 0.05$). The results displayed in Table 8.12 show that the multiple correlation of these four aspects is high (R = 0.77). This indicates that the faculty culture is a strong factor of influence in the deans' attitudes (R^2 = 0.58).

Regarding management skills, the results show that all four aspects of management skills are highly correlated with attitudes (zero-order correlation coefficients range from 0.53 to 0.62, $p < 0.01$, see Table 8.12). However, the findings indicate that three of the four aspects of management skills significantly influence attitudes: the hierarchy aspect (β = 0.30, $p < 0.05$), adhocracy aspect (β = 0.22, $p < 0.05$), and market aspect (β = 0.20, $p < 0.05$). The clan aspect does not significantly influence attitudes (β = 0.09, $p > 0.05$). This very low regression coefficient suggests that the clan aspect of management skills (managing teams, managing interpersonal relationship, and managing the development of others) is perceived to be unimportant by the deans. It is assumed that these kinds of skills do not need to be learnt as they are inherent in the national collectivist culture (Suseno 1985; Wirawan and Irawanto 2007). The multiple correlation of management skills is quite high (R = 0.70), indicating that management skills are relatively strong factors of influence in the deans' attitudes, despite the absence of the clan aspect (R^2 = 0.48).

In contrast to faculty cultures and management skills, gender, age, term of office, and academic discipline do not influence attitudes. Clearly, the low regression coefficients were obtained due to little or no correlation between these demographic variables and attitudes (see Table 8.12). These findings suggest that demographic factors are not important factors that influence the deans' attitudes. We assume that the lack of influence of these demographic factors in attitudes is because attitudes are strongly shaped by culture. Female and male deans, for example, will have the same attitude since they have the same underlying cultural values with respect to the styles. This finding supports the findings of the previous analysis, suggesting that faculty culture is an important factor that influences the deans' attitudes.

The right column of Table 8.12 shows the influences of each background factor on the deans' subjective norms. Regarding faculty culture, although all four aspects of faculty culture are moderately correlated with subjective norms (zero-order correlation coefficients range from 0.33 to 0.43, $p < 0.01$), the results indicate that only the clan and hierarchy aspects were found to significantly influence

subjective norms (β = 0.25, β = 0.23, p < 0.05, respectively). The adhocracy and market aspects of culture do not make significant contributions (β = 0.03, β = 0.11, p > 0.05, respectively). These findings suggest that the deans' expectations of their important referents are influenced by the clan and hierarchy cultures. These two aspects of culture explain 24% of the variance in subjective norms. This indicates that faculty culture is a moderate factor influencing the deans' subjective norms.

Regarding the influence of the clan and hierarchy aspects of culture on the deans' subjective norms, we would speculate that it is because of the power-distance and collectivistic culture in Indonesia (Hofstede Online; Wirawan and Irawanto 2007). The findings are consistent with the findings of the previous analysis, indicating that the clan and hierarchy aspects of cultures are stronger factors of influence in attitudes.

Furthermore, the results displayed in Table 8.12 shows that only the hierarchy aspect of management skills significantly influences subjective norms, although moderate correlations are found between all four aspects of management skills and subjective norms (zero-order correlation coefficients range from 0.31 to 0.37, p < 0.01). This suggests that hierarchy skills strongly influence the deans' behavioural expectations of their referents. The deans experience social pressure to display skills in managing information, managing control systems, and managing coordination. The hierarchy aspect of management skills explains 15% of the variance in subjective norms. This suggests that the hierarchy aspect of management skills is an important but weak factor of influence in the deans' subjective norms.

Gender, age, term of office, and academic discipline have no significant influence on subjective norms. This is consistent with the findings of the previous analysis of attitudes, indicating the insignificance of demographic factors. The same arguments hold true for the insignificance of demographic factors on subjective norms as for attitudes.

Table 8.13 *Influences of Each Background Factor on Environmental, Internal, and Practical Controls of Deans (N = 74)*

Predictor	Environmental controls			Internal controls			Practical controls		
	r	β	R(R²)!	r	β	R(R²)!	r	β	R(R²)!
Clan culture	0.19	0.10		0.18	0.18		-0.14	-0.02	
Adhocracy culture	0.15	0.03		0.06	-0.04		-0.18	-0.09	
Market culture	0.25*	0.21		0.14	0.09		-0.25*	-0.22	
Hierarchy culture	0.03	-0.08	0.27(0.02)	-0.01	-0.09	0.21(0.01)	-0.02	0.09	0.27(0.02)
Clan skills	0.18	0.00		0.03	0.02		-0.19	-0.13	
Adhocracy skills	0.19	-0.06		-0.00	-0.06		-0.22	-0.26	
Market skills	0.32*	0.34		0.00	-0.03		-0.05	0.24	
Hierarchy skills	0.18	0.03	0.32(0.10)	0.08	0.12	0.10(0.04)	-0.16	-0.06	0.29(0.03)
Gender	-0.02	-0.02	0.03(0.01)	-0.01	-0.01	0.01(0.01)	0.03	0.03	0.03(0.01)
Age (years)	-0.12	-0.12	0.12(0.00)	-0.11	-0.11	0.11(0.00)	-0.18	-0.18	0.18(0.02)
Term of office (years)	-0.00	-0.00	0.00(0.00)	0.04	0.04	0.04(0.01)	-0.04	-0.04	0.04(0.01)
Academic discipline	-0.08	-0.08	0.08(0.01)	-0.16	-0.16	0.16(0.01)	0.14	0.14	0.14(0.01)

Note: r = zero-order correlation coefficient, β = standardized regression coefficient, R = multiple correlation coefficient, R^2 = adjusted coefficient of determination, !R (R^2) all these coefficients are not significant at $p < 0.05$.
*r coefficients are significant at $p < 0.01$, !R (R^2) all these coefficients are not significant at $p < 0.05$.

Table 8.13 shows the influences of each background factor on the environmental, internal, and practical controls of deans. The results indicate no significant influence between all background factors and environmental, internal, and practical controls. This suggests that background factors do not influence the deans' control beliefs. People's perception of their own ability to perform a given behaviour is not related to their working culture, their perceived management skills, or their demography. For example, consider two deans who both think that they have the financial resources to attend a conference. The deans will have the same perception about their ability to attend the conference, regardless of their background factors.

Finally, the influence of faculty cultures and management skills on the deans' attitudes and their subjective norms can be depicted as follows.
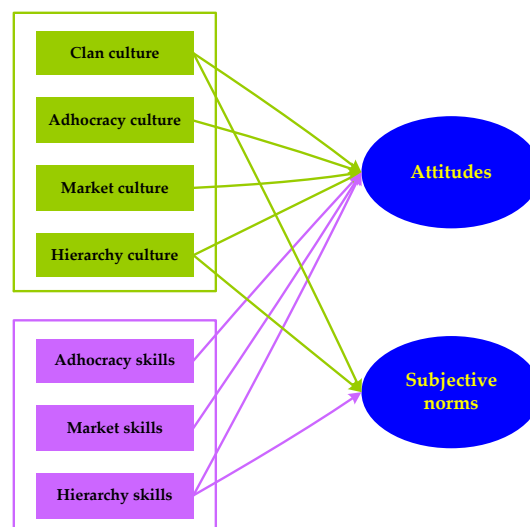
Figure 8.6   The Influence of Faculty Cultures and Management Skills on the Deans' Attitudes and their Subjective Norms

8.4   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter has investigated and described the explanatory paths of the behavioural models of this study. In the first section, we examined the explanatory paths of the volitional behavioural model of this study which included the influences of attitudes and subjective norms on the managerial

leadership styles of deans. The findings of this volitional behavioural model indicated that the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities are primarily influenced by their attitudes. Subjective norms were found to have no significant influence on the styles. Further analysis indicated that subjective norms and attitudes were intercorrelated. However, this correlation was within acceptable tolerances. Thus, the results of the study were still reliable.

Regarding the absence of subjective norms in the equation, this does not mean that this variable was not an important factor influencing the styles. In fact, its contribution was integrated in attitudes. To conclude, based on the volitional behavioural model of the study, the managerial leadership styles of deans can be explained by their attitudes.

Furthermore, the volitional behavioural model also assumes that the more positive the attitude towards a behaviour, the more likely it is that people will demonstrate it. To investigate this assumption, a zoom-in analysis of the deans' attitudes towards the dominant roles for each style was carried out. The results indicated that some styles were explained by a simultaneous consideration of the positive attitudes towards the dominant roles related to the styles, and others were not. Although the results were unexpected, these findings were not necessarily evidence that the results do not support the theoretical assumptions. In fact, it can be concluded that part of the findings were in line with the theory.

In the second section of this chapter, we investigated the explanatory paths of the non-volitional behavioural model which included the influences of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (i.e. environmental, internal, and practical controls) on the managerial leadership styles of deans. The findings of the non-volitional behavioural model indicated that the managerial leadership styles of deans are primarily under the influence of attitudes and practical controls. Internal controls, together with attitudes and practical controls, were found to significantly contribute to some styles. Subjective norms and environmental controls did not, however, influence the styles. The results confirmed the previous findings on the insignificance of subjective norms.

Interestingly, the deans have a more positive attitude towards a style when they believe that they have control over practical factors (in relation to workloads and the complexity of the faculty) and internal factors (in relation to conflicts of personal values and faculty culture, lack of skills, unclear and fragmented authorities within the faculty, and lack of interest from faculty academics on faculty matters). To conclude, based on the non-volitional behavioural model of

the study, the managerial leadership styles of deans can be explained by their attitudes and perceived practical controls and internal controls.

In the third section of this chapter, we investigated the explanatory paths of background factors (i.e. faculty culture, managerial skills, gender, age, term of office, and academic discipline) to the attitudes, subjective norms, environmental controls, internal controls, and practical controls of deans. Regarding faculty culture, the outcomes showed that the adhocracy, market, hierarchy, and clan aspects of faculty culture influenced the deans' attitudes; only the clan and hierarchy aspects of faculty culture influenced the deans' subjective norms; and none of the four aspects of faculty culture (the adhocracy, market, hierarchy, and clan) influenced the environmental controls, the internal controls, or the practical controls of deans.

Regarding management skills, the results indicated that the adhocracy, market, and hierarchy aspects of management skills influenced the deans' attitudes. Only the hierarchy aspect of management skills influenced the deans' subjective norms. And none of the four aspects of management skills (the adhocracy, market, hierarchy, and clan) influenced the environmental controls, internal controls, or practical controls of deans.

Demographic factors, including gender, age, term of office, and academic discipline, were found to not influence attitudes, subjective norms, environmental, internal, or practical controls. In other words, these demographic factors did not influence the behavioural, normative, or control beliefs of deans.

Finally, to answer one of the main research questions of this study, we conclude that attitude is the primary factor that explains the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities. From the perspective of our theoretical models, both the volitional and non-volitional behavioural models are useful to explain and understand the managerial leadership styles of deans. However, the findings indicate that the non-volitional behavioural model seems to be the better model for this study.

9

CHAPTER

Summary, Conclusions and Reflections

"There never seems to be enough time to do the things you want to do once you find them."
Jim Croce (1943-1973)

This study investigates the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities, and aims to better understand the deans' managerial leadership styles as manifested in their behaviours. Based on Fishbein and Ajzen's theories of behaviour and operationalised through Quinn's competing values framework, deans' behaviours, and, subsequently, their roles and managerial leadership styles, are explored by examining attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. After studying secondary literature, a large-scale survey was conducted to gather information on the deans' behaviours, attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and background factors such as faculty culture, management skills, gender, age, term-of-office, and academic disciplines. Regression analysis was used to test the theoretical assumptions and to explain the managerial leadership styles of deans.

This final chapter begins with a summary of the study, followed by its main findings and conclusions. In the last sections, we reflect upon our study from various angles, discuss some critical issues, and make some recommendations for further research.

9.1   THE STUDY IN A NUTSHELL

9.1.1   Context and Problem Statement

Leadership and management in general, and in higher education in particular, have attracted enormous interest from both academics and practitioners. While studies have focussed on various topics and different managerial levels, the number of studies that explicitly investigate middle management is limited. Leadership studies usually concentrate on those at the top, such as CEOs or presidents.

In the sphere of higher education studies, the deanship is an under-investigated topic. This is somewhat surprising given the key role deans (can) play in higher education institutions: "Universities are only as strong as their colleges, and colleges reflect the strength of their dean" (Wolverton et al. 2001, p. 97). Our study intends to contribute to filling this gap by researching the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities.

An additional reason to investigate the deanship is derived from the current changes in Indonesian higher education. The winds of change, caused by, among other things, globalisation and the spread of a neo-liberal spirit in re-organising the public sector (e.g. the introduction of new public management approaches), combined with new political leadership, have affected Indonesian higher education and its institutions. Universities have been granted more institutional autonomy. It appears likely that Indonesian universities are moving towards stronger corporate governance structures. We can, therefore, assume that the deanship is also undergoing change. One could argue that in contemporary higher education, with universities increasingly seen as enterprises or corporations, the deanship is becoming more entrepreneurial and executive-based (e.g. see De Boer and Goedegebuure 2009). However, the changing deanship is not the topic of our study; we want to determine how deans run their faculties and the reasons for running them in a particular way.

Deans at Indonesian universities have to fulfil their roles in an environment that is characterised by change. Given these dynamics, in combination with the pivotal position middle managers such as deans have, it has become vital to the success of university organizations to better understand how deans lead and manage. A better understanding of university middle management should deepen our knowledge of the 'nature of the academic organisation' and the way these professional organisations function (from an organisational point of view) in environments characterised by 'super complexity' (e.g. Barnett 2000). The key questions of our study are: What kind of managerial leadership styles do deans at Indonesian universities exhibit? How can these styles be explained?

9.1.2   Theoretical Background of the Study

Ajzen and Fishbein's theory of reasoned action (1980) and Fishbein and Ajzen's reasoned action approach (2010) have guided the study's approach to explain and understand deans' behaviours. The theory of reasoned action (TRA), developed by Ajzen and Fishbein in the 1970s and 1980s, is known as a *volitional* behaviour model. This model assumes that intention, leading to performance of a behaviour, is a function of two basic determinants: a personal and a social factor, respectively labelled as attitudes and subjective norms. In other words, according to this theory, a particular behaviour is best explained by the intention to perform this particular behaviour, and the intention to perform a behaviour is determined by having favourable attitudes (towards this behaviour) and positive subjective norms (for such behaviour).

Based on Ajzen's later research work (1985), Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) suggest that people may not form strong behavioural intentions to perform a behaviour of interest when they believe that they do not have control over it, even if they hold a positive attitude and perceive strong social pressure to do so. Their original theory of reasoned action is extended by a third determinant explaining behavioural intentions: perceived behavioural control. Ajzen (1985) referred to this extended version of TRA as the theory of planned behaviour (TPB). Recently, Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) reconcile the differences between their models. They outline their theory as the reasoned action approach (RAA) which comprises three determinants: attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. The extended TRA-models (both TPB and RAA) address *non-volitional* behavioural aspects.

We used the volitional and non-volitional behavioural models to understand and explain why deans exhibit a particular leadership style. We have measured the deans' managerial leadership styles, their attitudes, their subjective norms, and

their perceived behavioural control. We expected, in line with the theory, to find a positive relationship between attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control on the one hand and managerial leadership styles on the other. We also gathered information on a number of background factors. Theoretically, background factors play only an indirect role in determining behaviour. We assume that they may colour personal beliefs that determine attitudes but do not directly determine intentions or behaviours.

Over the years, many leadership and management theories have been developed, advocated, and researched, stressing and arguing various explanations for personal characteristics (as in great man and trait theories) to situational factors (as in contingency and situational approaches). In our study, we selected Quinn's Competing Values Framework (CVF) to operationalise the theories of behavioural models.

Based on an analysis of a comprehensive list of indicators for organisational effectiveness, Quinn and his research colleagues described two major dimensions underlying effective organisations (Quinn and Rohrbaugh 1983; Quinn and Cameron 1983; Quinn 1988). They noticed that some organisations were effective if they were stable, whereas other organisations were successful if they had efficient internal processes or were strongly outward looking (market-oriented). In other words, there were different ways to be or become effective. The two dimensions were used to represent two axes that constitute the rudiments of the CVF. The vertical axis ranges from flexibility to control and the horizontal axis concerns the organisational focus, from an internal to an external focus (see Chapter 3, Figure 3.1 and section 3.4.1 for more detailed information and see also Figure 9.1 the CVF part). These two axes form four quadrants, representing four different kinds of organisations, including different cultures, leadership roles and so on. The four quadrants are: the clan (collaborate, leaders as mentors and facilitators), the adhocracy (create, leaders as innovators and brokers), the market (compete, leaders as producers and directors), and the hierarchy (control, leaders as coordinators and monitors). The four quadrants represent opposite or competing assumptions; they are competing on the diagonal, and this diagonal is a continuum of the two opposite points. Empirically, it is possible to engage in behaviours at two opposite points in the framework, indicating that there is no best way to manage. One leadership role, for instance, is not treated as more desirable than another role.

The CVF convincingly integrates a number of theoretical traditions such as human relations theories, open system theories, rational goal theories and internal process theories. It distinguishes a substantial number of leadership and

managerial behaviours, clustered into eight different leadership roles, which fit the purposes of our study very well. As described in more detail in Chapter 3, the CVF makes perceptual biases clear, does not advocate one role over another, makes multiple values explicit, and provides a dynamic focus as well as consistent categories. Moreover, since its development in the early 1980s, CVF has successfully been used and tested in many research endeavours (for an overview of one example, see the "Appendices" in Cameron et al. 2006).

In our study, we have used the eight leadership roles and their underlying behaviours from the CVF to conceptualise Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) volitional and Fishbein and Ajzen's (2010) non-volitional behavioural models (as visualised in Figure 9.1). To investigate the managerial leadership styles of deans, we used the '3-1 concepts of assessment' based on the CVF: behaviours—roles—styles. Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Leadership Instrument lists 32 behaviours. Examples of such behaviours are 'setting clear objectives for the faculty', 'facilitating consensus building' or 'showing empathy and concern'. Eight managerial leadership roles are determined by these 32 behaviours. Roles include director, facilitator or mentor. Leadership styles are then explored based on configurations of the eight managerial leadership roles within the CVF. In our study, we define a style as a configuration of the eight managerial leadership roles based on the CVF that in turn are based on a set of particular behaviours.
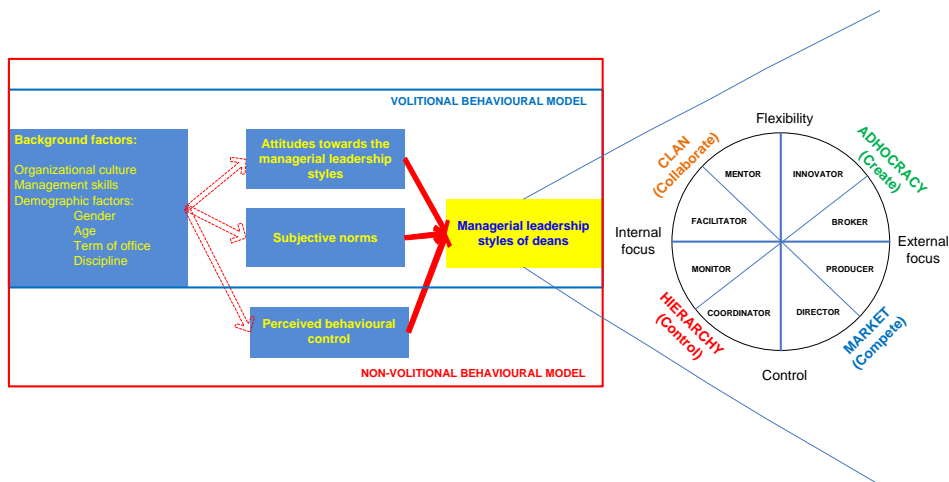
Figure 9.1 The Two Behavioural Models of the Study and the CVF Eight Leadership Roles

We selected a quantitative research approach as the most suitable method to explore and identify the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities. To collect data from a highly dispersed dean population, from Sumatera to Papua (or Irian Jaya), a postal questionnaire was developed. A questionnaire[26] is a useful survey instrument to cope with the size of the country and 419 higher education institutions. The questionnaires were sent to deans only, therefore, we measured behaviours, attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control through self-reporting. Aware of the potential threats to validity posed by the use of self-reports (for more detail, see Chapter 4), we employed methods to maximise the accuracy and reliability of the data. For example, we guaranteed participating deans confidentiality in advance, explained the importance of accurate data for scientific purposes and offered to share the results of the study. Research suggests that self-reporting can be misleading in the case of sensitive behaviours (e.g. Fowler 2009), but we would argue that this is not the case in our study. Peer reporting can, of course, face similar problems.

9.1.3   The Sample

Two surveys were carried out for the study. The first survey, based on the TRA, assessed the deans' managerial leadership styles from their attitudes and their subjective norms. Later, we extended our research model by adding perceived behavioural control as an additional determinant of behaviours. The follow-up survey was, therefore, based on the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen 1985) and the reasoned action approach (RAA) (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). The follow-up survey only assessed perceived behavioural control.[27]

There is no data available on the total population of deans in Indonesia. Of the 419 Indonesian universities, 120 are accredited (DGHE 2008). These accredited universities were the starting point for our sampling. Assuming that universities have, on average, eight faculties, there would be a total population of 960 deans. A stratified random sample was used to guarantee that universities in Western and Eastern Indonesia were represented. Due to time and budget limitations, half of the 120 universities were selected via a simple random sampling. We sent a written questionnaire to 443 deans in these 60 universities (the sample population). A total of 218 deans returned a completed questionnaire; a response rate of almost 49%. The second survey, a one-page questionnaire, was sent via fax

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[26] The (distributed) questionnaire was translated into Bahasa Indonesia (see Appendix A1). See Chapter 4 for the construction of the questionnaire in greater detail.

[27] See Appendix A2 for the questionnaire.

to all 218 deans who had participated in the first survey. A total of 75 questionnaires were returned, a 34% response rate. We can statistically show that we have a representative sample and spread across the regions in the Indonesian archipelago (see Chapter 4).

Of the 218 respondents, 82% were male and 18% female. The vast majority of respondents were between 40 and 60 years old (80%) and nearly half of the deans (47%) had been in office for two years or less. Fifty-eight per cent worked at a public university and 42% at a private one. Nearly two-thirds of the deans came from non-technical faculties (64%), 18% from health and welfare and 14% from humanities and arts. The other 36% came from technical faculties, mostly majoring in agriculture (12%) and sciences (11%). The vast majority of the deans worked at small- and medium-sized universities (a small-sized university has less than 15,000 students and less than 1,500 staff members; medium-sized universities are between 15,000 and 35,000 students and between 1,500 and 3,500 staff members). Faculties were, also for the vast majority of the deans, small- and medium-sized (medium-sized means between 1,000 and 5,000 students and between 100 and 500 staff members).

9.1.4   Findings and Conclusions

9.1.4.1 Managerial Leadership Behaviours, Roles and Styles of Indonesian Deans

The deans were asked to indicate how frequently they performed each of the 32 behaviours derived from the CVF. The deans reported that they generally perform all the 32 behaviours when running their faculties. More than a third of the deans (37%) reported that they always exhibit more than 24 of the 32 behaviours. Only 13% of the deans reported that they perform less than nine different behaviours. The high mean scores for each of the behaviours confirms this performance of a broad range of behaviours (from 6.3 to 5.0 on a 7-point scale).

The deans demonstrate a managerial leadership style that embraces all eight leadership roles (to some extent) defined in the CVF. To a large extent, the deans act as facilitators, producers, directors, coordinators, mentors, monitors and, to a lesser extent, innovators and brokers (see also Table 6.2). Paraphrasing Quinn, deans at Indonesian universities appear to be masters of management. They report being able to cope with competing values and playing various roles, exhibiting behaviours that are related to these different roles. We appropriately

called their managerial leadership style the Master style, which is the general picture of the deanship in Indonesian universities as diagrammed below.
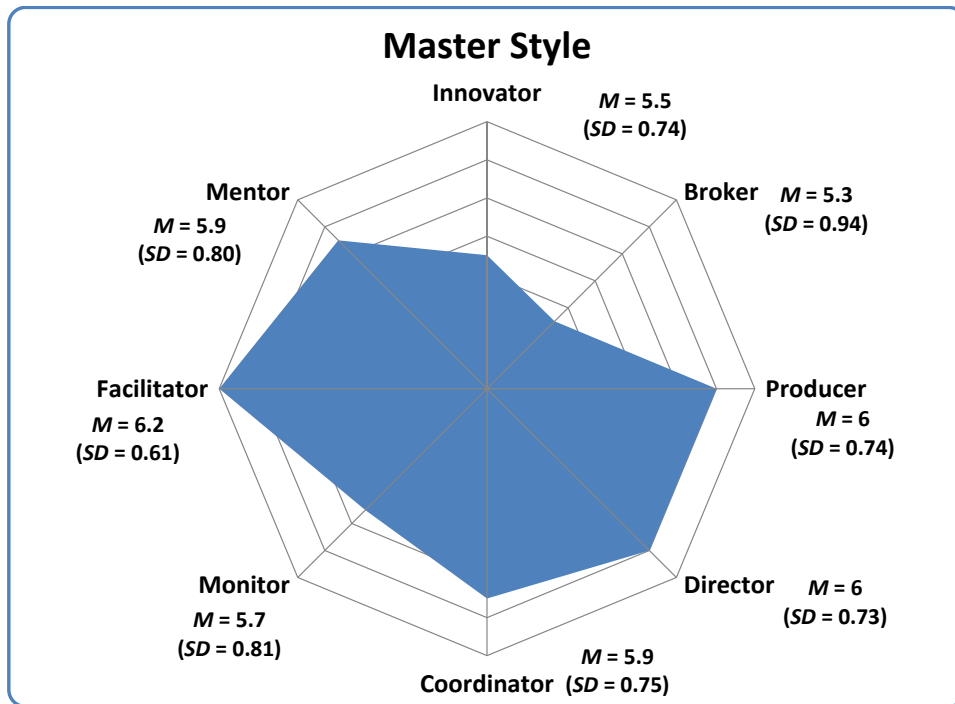
Note: The higher the mean (*M*) score, the more frequently a role is played in this style.

Figure 9.2   The General Picture of Deanship in Indonesian Universities

After this relatively simple analysis, we undertook a more sophisticated cluster analysis (for more details, see Chapter 6). Some roles are more important than others. The relative importance of each role was determined and the cluster analysis identified four clearly distinguished configurations. The specific managerial leadership styles of deans in Indonesian universities are: the Competitive Consultant, the Focused Team Captain, the Consensual Goal-Setter, and the Informed Trust-Builder. These four styles are outlined below in Figure 9.2. The numbers displayed in the figure represent the percentages of deans with this style who perceived each role as important.

Figure 9.3 The Four Specific Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans in Indonesian Universities

In summary, answering the key research question, this study has found one general, comprehensive managerial leadership style and four specific managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities.

9.1.4.2 Understanding the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans From Their Attitudes, Subjective Norms, and Perceived Behavioural Control

The essence to understanding leadership and managing styles is the understanding of human behaviours (Wolverton and Poch 2000). For this purpose, we used two behavioural models: (1) Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) volitional behavioural model which assumes that a behaviour of interest is explained by attitudes and subjective norms and (2) Fishbein and Ajzen's (2010) non-volitional behavioural model which assumes that a behaviour of interest is explained by attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control.

The attitudes of Indonesian deans
The deans were asked to rank the importance of the perceived consequences of their behaviours. The results indicate that, in general, the deans have positive attitudes towards the eight leadership roles, though some managerial leadership roles are evaluated more positively than others (see Chapter 7). The data reveal that the deans see the director, facilitator, coordinator and producer roles as their most important roles in managing a faculty, followed by the innovator, monitor, and broker roles. They perceive the mentor role as the least important when managing a faculty.

The subjective norms of Indonesian deans
The deans were also asked about the perceptions held about faculty leadership by important others based on the CVF. The results indicate that, in general, the deans believe that their faculty academics, fellow deans and central university management think that deans should perform the four aspects (adhocracy, hierarchy, market, and clan) of faculty leadership based on the CVF. The perceptions held by others were slightly higher in the adhocracy and hierarchy aspects of faculty leadership than in the clan and market aspects.

The perceived behavioural control of Indonesian deans
To determine the deans' perceived behavioural control, the deans were asked to rank the degree of control the deans have over relevant constraints (see Chapter 7). The results show that, in general, the deans are confident that they have control over environmental, internal, and practical factors. They believe that these three factors will not impede the demonstration of their managerial leadership style.

The volitional behavioural model of the study
To determine the impact of attitudes and subjective norms, both bivariate and multiple linear regression analyses were used. The results of the bivariate regression analysis show that attitudes, as expected, positively influence the managerial leadership styles of deans, for the Master style as well as for the four specific styles (see Table 8.1). Subjective norms also positively influence managerial leadership styles, though not as strongly as attitudes (see Table 8.2).

The results of the multiple linear regression analysis only partially confirms these outcomes. The analysis demonstrates that the deans' attitudes explain their managerial leadership styles, but their subjective norms do not (see Table 8.3). Attitudes and subjective norms appear to be intercorrelated. However, there is no serious multicollinearity. Therefore, our conclusion that attitude determines style holds.

In a more detailed analysis, we looked into the assumption that particular attitudes explain particular management styles. In these 'zoom in' analyses, we expected, for instance, attitudes towards the roles dominant in the Informed Trust-Builder style to be positively related to this particular style. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 8.5. The expectation that particular attitudes determine particular styles is largely met, though not in every case. For example, we expected the Informed Trust-Builder style to be influenced by attitudes towards the producer, monitor, coordinator, and mentor roles, but attitude towards the coordinator role does not make a significant contribution to this style.

The non-volitional behavioural model of the study
To determine the impact of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (i.e. environmental, internal and practical controls), both bivariate and multiple linear regression analyses were used. The results of the bivariate regression analysis show that attitudes and subjective norms influence the managerial leadership styles of deans. Only practical controls (in relation to high workloads and complex faculties) negatively influence the managerial leadership styles of deans. The negative relationship between practical controls and the styles indicates that (1) the greater the constraints related to workloads and complexity, the less likely the deans will demonstrate their managerial leadership styles, and (2) the less the constraints related to workloads and complexity, the more likely the deans in the study will demonstrate their managerial leadership styles. This suggests that not exhibiting a certain style is partially explained by practical controls.

The outcomes of the multiple linear regression analysis, displayed in Table 8.10, show that the managerial leadership styles are strongly and positively influenced by attitudes and moderately and negatively influenced by practical controls. The other theoretical explanatory variables have no impact. This holds true for the Master style as well as for the Focused Team Captain and the Informed Trust-Builder styles. The Competitive Consultant style and the Consensual Goal-Setter style are influenced by attitudes, practical controls, and internal controls. Thus, the non-volitional model suggests that the managerial leadership styles of deans are determined, at least to some extent, by the deans' attitudes and their perceived practical controls. With respect to the Competitive Consultant and the Consensual Goal-Setter, the deans' perceived internal controls also play a role.

The outcomes of the two behavioural models largely support each other. Attitudes are the most powerful determinants of the styles. Subjective norms influence the styles indirectly (through attitudes). Perceived behavioural control (i.e. practical and internal controls) has an impact on the styles.

In summary, the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities are the Master (the general, comprehensive style), the Competitive Consultant, the Focused Team Captain, the Consensual Goal-Setter, and the Informed Trust-Builder. The managerial leadership styles of deans, from the volitional behavioural model, are primarily influenced by attitudes towards the styles. The deeper analysis of the links between attitudes and the deans' managerial leadership styles shows that some styles are explained by attitudes towards these styles. This confirms the theoretical assumption that the more favourable the attitude towards the style, the more likely it is to be demonstrated. Findings from the non-volitional behavioural model indicate that some styles of deanship are influenced by attitudes and practical controls. Other styles are influenced by attitudes, practical controls, and internal controls. Overall, the more favourable the deans' attitudes towards a managerial leadership style and the greater their perceived behavioural control over this style, the more likely the deans will exhibit that particular leadership style.

9.1.4.3   Background Factors in the Two Behavioural Models

Both the volitional and the non-volitional behavioural models recognise the potential relevance of background factors which can influence one's attitudes, subjective norms, or perceived behavioural control. It is assumed that people in different background factors can have different beliefs, ultimately influencing their behaviour through attitudes. The background factors in our study include

the faculty culture, management skills, and demographics (e.g. gender, age, term of office, and academic disciplines).

Faculty culture

The organisational culture assessment instrument (OCAI), developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006) and based on the CVF, was used to measure the faculty cultures of Indonesian universities. The OCAI defines four aspects of faculty culture, namely, the clan, hierarchy, market, and adhocracy (see Chapter 4, Table 4.9). The results indicate that the four aspects of faculty culture exist in Indonesian universities. Some cultural aspects are dominant. The clan and hierarchy aspects of faculty culture are found to be the most dominant cultures in Indonesian faculties. The results of the regression analysis show that the clan, hierarchy, market, and adhocracy aspects of faculty culture influence the deans' attitudes; and only the clan and hierarchy aspects of culture have an impact on their subjective norms (see Chapter 8, Table 8.12 for both attitudes and subjective norms). None of the cultural aspects influence perceived behavioural control (see Chapter 8, Table 8.13).

Management skills

The management skills assessment instrument (MSAI), developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006) and based on the CVF, was used to identify the skills and competencies that are supposed to be related to organisational success. This MSAI defines four aspects of managerial skills—the clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy (see Chapter 4, Table 4.10). The results of regression analysis indicate that the hierarchy, adhocracy, and market aspects of management skills influence the deans' attitudes; and only the hierarchy-based skills influence the deans' subjective norms (see Chapter 8, Table 8.12 for both attitudes and subjective norms). None of the four aspects of managerial skills influence perceived behavioural control (see Chapter 8, Table 8.13).

Demographic factors

The explanatory results of the study indicate that there are no significant effects from gender, age, term-of-office or academic disciplines on attitudes, subjective norms, environmental, internal, or practical controls. This finding suggests that demographic factors do not have an impact on the determinants of the styles.

9.1.4.4   Conclusions of the Overall Findings

Based on the overall findings of the study, the empirical behavioural models of the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities can be presented as follows.
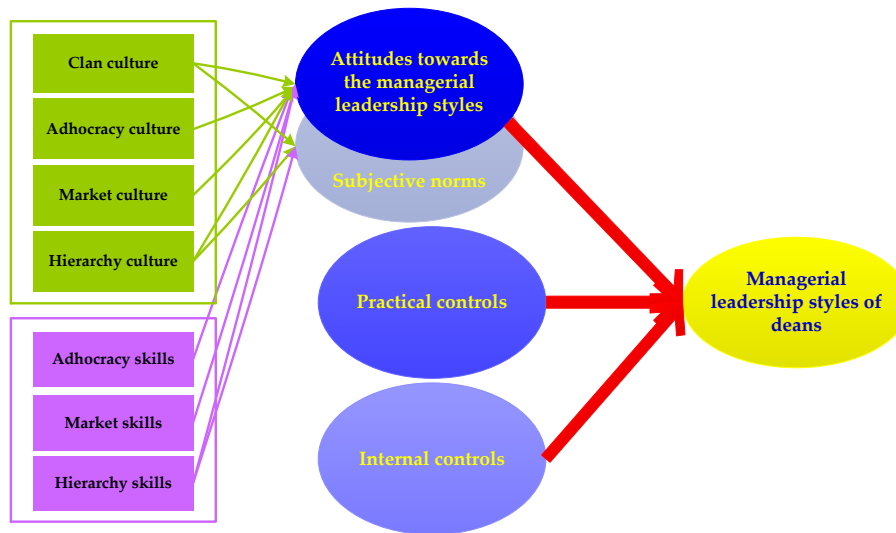
Figure 9.4 The Empirical Behavioural Models of the Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans at Indonesian Universities based on the Volitional (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980) and the Non-Volitional Behavioural Models (Ajzen 1985; Fishbein and Ajzen 2010)

9.2   DISCUSSION AND REFLECTION

In this section, we situate the outcomes of this study in the broader context of university management. We also reflect upon our theoretical approach and methodology and suggest areas for future research.

9.2.1   *The Managerial Leadership Styles of Deans at Indonesian Universities*

This study has demonstrated that deans in Indonesian universities are engaged in the 32 behaviours of management that we derived from Quinn's Competing Values Framework Instrument. These behaviours embrace the eight CVF managerial leadership roles. Following the logic of the CVF, the deans can be called 'masters of management' because they report being able to employ a variety of different managerial leadership roles, which have contrasting values and require different skills.

This outcome seems remarkable, and to some extent unlikely, because exhibiting an array of behaviours and roles with contrasting underlying values is demanding. Arguably the number of people with the skills and resources to

perform such a variety of roles is likely to be small. This is exactly why the deanship is seen as such a challenging and crucial position in the management of universities. One explanation for this outcome could be that the behaviours of the deans are measured in this study through self-reporting, which might lead to a bias in overestimating one's capabilities or giving socially desirable answers. There could be aspects of wishful thinking ("This is the way I should run a faculty, and, therefore, I will report that I do run the faculty this way").

On the other hand, we have also asked the deans to report on how often they actually perform a particular activity. This reveals neither the intensity nor the effectiveness of a particular behaviour. The deans report, for instance, that they set targets or build consensus, but we have not measured what this actually entails. Some behaviours may be executed superficially, in which case it becomes easier to perform a range of (contrasting) activities. Although Quinn assumes that such multifacetedness contributes to the effectiveness of leadership, measuring the effectiveness of leadership has not been part of this study. Whether or not the 'masters of management' from this study are effective leaders remains to be determined and requires further research.

Other studies (e.g. Wolverton et al. 2001; De Boer and Goedegebuure 2009; Thomas and Fragueiro 2011) on the deanship have observed behaviour that substantiates our conclusion that Indonesian deans perform many behaviours and roles. As reported in Chapter 5, deans are expected to perform many contrasting activities and have many different responsibilities. They are supposed to define strategies and polices for primary and secondary processes, to give direction in implementing them, and to serve and communicate with different audiences (Rector, academics, students). Candidates for deanships are, presumably, selected for the job because they are able to perform such multitasking roles. In fact, the requirements and selection criteria for deans in Indonesia are not very different from elsewhere in the world. Some studies (e.g. see Griffiths and McCarty 1980; Reid and Rogers 1981; Twombly 1992) found that academic reputation, commitment, personal skills and evidence of administrative ability are expected requirements (cited in Wolverton et al. 2001, p. 12). Twombly (1992 cited in Wolverton et al. 2001, p. 12) states that deans are expected to have "an excellent reputation as a scholar" and to possess "strong interpersonal skills or an ability to raise funds …" It should be no surprise that if universities search for people with such abilities to perform deanships, these people would also recognize and report that they perform many such leadership and management activities.

The multitudinous activities of deans at Indonesian universities reflect the greater responsibilities and multifaceted roles found worldwide (Wolverton et al. 2001; DiFronzo 2002; De Boer and Goedegebuure 2009; Thomas and Fragueiro 2011). Exhibiting behaviours to deal with markets, clans, hierarchies and adhocracies has also been observed in universities in other countries. Deans are "directly involved with others in strategic planning, budget planning" (Fagin 1997, p. 98) for "identifying new opportunities and developing policy" (Scott et al. 2008 cited in De Boer and Goedegebuure 2009, p. 357). Deans have "finely tuned human relation skills" (Bragg 2000, p. 75) by guiding their faculty and staff through "team building" (Hilosky and Watwood 1997, p. 295) as they remain "visible and participative, and working toward a collective vision" (Wolverton et al. 2001, p. 18).

One example of similar research into another country's deanship management was conducted by Gmelch and Wolverton's (2002). Their study consisted of 1,370 deans and a response rate of 60% from 360 institutions in the United States. Gmelch and Wolverton defined three dimensions for deanship: community building, setting direction and empowering others. Each dimension has eight items. Deans were asked to rate themselves on these 24 items. The mean score on each dimension was high and led to Gmelch and Wolverton's (2002, p. 3) definition of academic leadership: "the act of building a community of scholars to set direction and achieve the empowerment of faculty and staff". The 24 items that underlie their three dimensions have many similarities to the items that constitute the Master style of Indonesian deans. Items referring to "caring about others", "communicating priorities" or "providing information for effectively planning and doing work" are close to items from the CVF instrument. Though there is much communality, we would argue that our CVF-based instrument (32 behavioural items and the underlying dimensions of clan, hierarchy, market and adhocracy) is more comprehensive than the dimensions and items used by Gmelch and Wolverton. Nevertheless, the results of the two studies indicating that deans are exceptionally 'busy bees' point in the same direction.

New government policies in Indonesia, emerging global and competitive student markets and new public management doctrines are likely to challenge the traditional Indonesian deans. The outcomes of the study suggest that deans intend to meet this challenge. They seem to understand that they need to provide direction by developing the faculty strategic planning and agenda, strengthen the faculty missions, visions and goals, and communicate these new goals and strategies to the faculty members and other constituents. The rise of the 'executive' dean or 'academic manager' instead of the traditional *primus inter pares* is reported in various countries (e.g. De Boer and Goedegebuure 2009;

Meek, Goedegebuure and De Boer 2010). Although it has not been the purpose of this study to examine the deanship transformation at Indonesian universities, we believe that the Master style contains new elements of leading and managing in the Indonesian context that would have been less obvious in the past.

Apart from the Master style, this study has revealed the four specific styles of deanship at Indonesian universities: the Competitive Consultant, Consensual Goal-Setter, Focused Team Captain, and Informed Trust-Builder. With respect to these styles, the market and clan aspects seem particularly important, referring to director-producer and facilitator-mentor roles. The innovator and broker roles, in the adhocracy aspect, are the least important. This implies that the deans are less likely to perform activities associated with creativity, innovation, risk, and external legitimacy (Quinn 1988; Cameron et al. 2006). Traditional Indonesian values of *gotong royong* (mutual assistance) (Wirawan and Irawanto 2007) and the Indonesian culture of collectivism (Hofstede, Online) may prevent deans from being pro-active and entrepreneurial change agents. The traditional values seem to underline a family culture.

This suggestion of leadership styles strongly focusing on people-oriented leadership and teamwork is in line with the findings of House et al.'s (1999) leadership study on Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE). GLOBE examined the interrelationships between societal culture, organisational culture and practices and organisational leadership in 62 countries, including Indonesia. They surveyed thousands of middle managers in food processing, finance and telecommunications and identified six global leadership dimensions. Compared to the overall GLOBE sample, "the scores of Indonesian middle managers on all the six leadership dimensions are above the overall mean for five of the six leadership dimensions" (cited in Storey and Kenny 2004, p. 3). This means that Indonesian middle managers are more likely to perform charismatic/value-based, team-oriented, and humane (caring) leadership. The Indonesian deans, though leading and managing in a sector that is supposed to be in several ways, seem to fit this pattern rather well.

The reason for the deans' people-oriented leadership is that Indonesia has a strong cultural tradition of communal living and collective actions. As stated by Bowen (1986 cited in Wirawan and Irawanto 2007, p. 360), "Cooperation is important to Indonesians as it reflects the traditional values called *gotong royong* (mutual assistance). The idea of *gotong royong* in Indonesia has been the basis for political discourse concerning the nature of authority, the characteristics of village society, and the legitimacy of demands for labour by the state." The traditional value of *gotong royong* in Indonesia is also supported by Gani (2004 cited in

Wirawan and Irawanto 2007, p. 361), indicating that there is "a strong emphasis on loyalty and cohesiveness within the family and work units as they take the *gotong royong* philosophy on their everyday life, as well as a shared belief in the importance of encouraging practices that reward collective distribution of resources."

A cultural study by Hofstede (Online) indicates that Indonesia has one of the lowest world scores for individualism (a score of 14), suggesting that Indonesian society is collectivist in nature. Dimensions of leadership that represent individualism are unpopular styles of leadership in Indonesia. Because of Indonesian's collectivistic culture, leadership that focuses on a sense of "we-like" and of "family-like" are particularly seen as effective. Where collective culture predominates, deans tend to work in and manage through groups/teams and involve others in participative and supportive consensual decision making. Apparently the macro (national) culture strongly influences such beliefs and values as reflected in the deans' behaviours in leading and managing an organisation (see Ensari and Murphy 2003; Raihani 2008; Wirawan and Irawanto 2007). This finding is also reflected in this study.

9.2.2   Reflections on the Theories and Methodology Used

The outcomes of the study indicate that Indonesian deanship behaviour is primarily influenced by attitudes towards faculty leadership and management. This is in line with other research that uses the theories of reasoned action and planned behaviour and finds a strong relationship between attitudes and behaviour (e.g. Albarracin et al. 2001; De Boer 2003). Our outcomes also seem to fit the general trend in higher education that, in modern university governance structures, authority has cascaded down and empowered the deans (e.g. De Boer and Goedegebuure 2009). The outcomes of the study suggest that the empowered middle managers use their discretion to run a faculty mainly in accordance with their own values and beliefs. De Boer (2003) reaches a similar conclusion when investigating the behaviours of professors. Their behaviour was also largely explained by their attitudes, from which De Boer concluded that professors are in an autonomous position that enables them to follow their own beliefs and norms.

By the same token, this implies that deans at modern universities may not necessarily comply with their subjective norms. Although this seems logical, at the same time, the insignificance of subjective norms in determining the behaviours and roles of university middle managers looks somewhat contradictory in the light of the potential impact of Indonesian culture (Suseno 1985; Wicaksono and Irawanto 2007; Hofstede, Online). Stressing values of

mutual assistance and the "we-feeling", it would be expected that subjective norms would play a major part in influencing the managerial leadership styles. Although the deans comply with their important referents to some extent (see Table 7.2 in Chapter 7), subjective norms play a secondary role. In fact, attitudinal considerations as causal factors influencing the managerial leadership styles outweigh subjective norms. As we argued in Chapter 8, it seems that subjective norms are partially intercorrelated with attitudes.

The dominance of attitudes as an explanatory factor is supported by other leadership studies. Many researchers believe that leadership is an outcome of personality (Hogan et al. 1994; Sadler 2003). Personality, according to Pervin et al. (2005, p. 6 cited in Mayer 2007, p. 1), refers to "those characteristics of the person that account for consistent patterns of feelings, thinking, and behaving." A leadership style is strongly linked to a person's personality (Bass 1990; Sadler 2003) which represents the person's beliefs (cognition), feelings (affect), and action (behaviour) (Rosenberg and Hovland 1960 cited in Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, p. 19). Therefore, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980, p. 19) point out that "it would be difficult to assume anything other than a strong relationship between attitude and behaviour" (as shown in this study in the managerial leadership styles of deans).

In this study, based on the volitional behavioural model, attitudes are the most dominant factors influencing the styles (see Chapter 8, Table 8.3). Based on the non-volitional behavioural model, attitudes together with perceived behavioural control explain the styles (see Chapter 8, Table 8.10). The findings suggest that the deans, for example, may not exhibit a certain style, not because they do not have positive attitudes towards this style, but rather because they perceive possible barriers to demonstrating it. Based on these findings, the non-behavioural model appears to be a better model for explaining the managerial leadership styles of deans.

According to the theoretical models, background factors play an indirect role in explaining behaviour. The background factors are expected to mould beliefs and consequently attitudes. For instance, faculty culture, as one of the background factors, is found to significantly influence the behavioural beliefs underlying the attitudes the deans hold (see Chapter 8, Table 8.11). In this study, the four aspects of faculty culture based on the CVF, and in particular clan culture, contribute to the deans' attitudes. This reflects the nature of Indonesian collectivist culture. Thus, the national culture could be embedded in the faculty culture, which in turn could influence an individual's attitudes and subjective norms. In contrast, faculty culture is not found to significantly influence perceived behavioural

control. This suggests that faculty culture does not determine control beliefs underlying perceived behavioural control. Thus, the degree to which the deans believe that they are capable of performing a given behaviour is not dependant on their working culture.

Demographic factors used in the study (such as gender, age, term of office and academic discipline) do not have any impact. We would argue that this is due to the national culture. Culture encompasses explicit or tacit beliefs, norms, values, and underlying assumptions that people share about behaviour (Schein 1992). The beliefs that people hold are important as they weigh a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour (Eagly and Chaiken 1993). "If culture is seen as an integral part of the organisation, then the thinking, feeling, and responses of leaders are moulded by the culture" (Schein 1992; Bass and Avolio 1993 cited in Ogbonna and Harris 2000, p. 770). If deans in Indonesian universities have a set of shared cultural beliefs that underlie leadership styles, the demographic factors of this study may not matter. Male or female, old or young, deans share the same underlying values with respect to their attitudes. This confirms the findings of the previous analysis, indicating that faculty culture affects the deans' attitudes.

Reflections on the methodology of the study
Earlier in this chapter, we referred to measuring behaviour through self-reporting. Many studies support the methodological and practical advantages of self-reports of behaviours compared with direct observations of behaviours (see also Chapter 4). First, many behaviours are not directly accessible to investigators. Second, it can be difficult to assess whether or when a particular behaviour has been performed. Third, self-reports provide information that may not be obtained during observation. Fourth, self-reports can be obtained free of context, action, or time elements. Finally, self-reports require less effort, time, and money.

We are, however, aware of potential shortcomings, such as overrating one's behaviours and capacities or being influenced by socially desirable answers. "The Indonesian culture discourages individual displays of assertive or confrontational behaviour" (Wirawan and Irawanto 2007, p. 364). A 360-degree feedback approach seems to be an attractive alternative. Feedback that comes from relevant individuals, for example academic staff, university boards (Rector or Vice-Rectors), and administrative staff, could provide more accuracy and reduce the halo effect (Tornow and London 1998; Healthfield 2001). Such an approach also has downsides. People may inflate ratings to make someone look good or they may deflate ratings to make someone look bad (Healthfield 2001). In Indonesian culture, people "are concerned about the effect of their actions on the feelings of others and take care not to upset others" (Wirawan and Irawanto 2007, p. 361)

and, therefore, the 360-degree feedback approach is not a good alternative for this study. Moreover, such an approach is likely to face pragmatic problems. Apart from low response rates, it would require a huge number of participants. Nevertheless, we believe it would be of value to conduct future research to determine whether the styles that we have discovered in this study are supported by the views of the deans' relevant others. Questions that remain to be answered by a 360-degree feedback approach might include: Do academics, students or rectors recognise the "Competitive Consultant dean" in their faculty? Do they confirm that deans are "masters of management"?

To explore and investigate leadership styles of deans in Indonesian universities, we adopted Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Framework leadership instrument which was originally developed from research conducted in the United States. "Many American leadership theories dominate management literature" (Wirawan and Irawanto 2007, p. 365), therefore, "the vast majority of studies of leadership have originated within American culture" (Sadler 2003, p. 127). Consequently, many leadership instruments are developed from an American perspective. Regarding the leadership instrument used for this study, the context of the questions asked in the CVF leadership instrument is significant. In Indonesia with its group-oriented culture (collectivism), individuals (in our study, deans) might tend to answer questions as if they are addressed to the group they belong to. In a highly individualistic culture like in the United States of America, the answers will most likely be perceived through the eyes of those individuals themselves (Hofstede, Online; see also Chapter 3, section 3.3.1). It could be that the highly individualistic American culture in the CVF leadership instrument reflects a different set of values and behavioural norms from those of highly collectivistic Indonesian culture.

This implies that we have to be aware of and ready for some challenges as a result of these cultural biases. First, a factor analysis on the 32 behaviours of the CVF did not yield the eight leadership roles based on the CVF. Second, the data show that the scores of Indonesian deans on the 32 behaviours of the CVF are more clustered in very often (5), almost always (6), and always (7) based on a seven-point Likert scale. Nevertheless, the distribution of the data is still within the range of normal. Third, the results have smaller variability. However, small but meaningful variability can be found in our data and generate particular styles of deanship at Indonesian universities.

9.2.3   Ideas for Further Research

This study is an initial study of the deanship at Indonesian universities. As a pioneering study of the deanship in the Indonesian context, we faced some challenges in analysing the data. As we discussed above, the limited variance in the dependent variable is one of those concerns. The use of the CVF instrument to measure behaviour could be a reason for this. Socially desirable answering (for example, "Of course I come up with new ideas" and/or "Of course I set the direction of the faculty") in combination with self-reporting can create bias. Moreover, the CVF instrument originates from a different cultural background. For future research, a stronger emphasis on adaption of the instrument from a cultural point of view could be interesting.

Another topic for further research is the extent to which the deans have changed the way they run a faculty. We assume that deans have been responsive to major changes in and around their universities. A longitudinal study with an historical component should shed more light on this issue. This change, if it is there as we would expect, could further add to our understanding of middle management in universities.

Another step to better understand the deanship at Indonesian universities is more in-depth investigations. This would call for a qualitative approach via case studies. The outcomes of this current study could provide a valuable starting point. Case studies would enable the researcher to more deeply delve into the styles and their effects, for example, by exploring the intensity of behaviour (instead of frequency). In particular, a case study approach could investigate the effectiveness of particular managerial leadership styles. Possible questions for future research might include: Does a particular style matter in terms of university or faculty performance? How are the more successful universities or faculties governed, taking management styles as one of the key variables?

This study has explored the managerial leadership styles of deans at Indonesian universities. The styles are explained by attitudes towards these styles and the extent to which deans believe that they have control over these styles. Some studies have investigated the reverse direction of causation from behaviour to attitude (Olson and Stone 2005). To further understand leadership behaviour in (Indonesian) universities it would be interesting in future studies to investigate the influence of managerial leadership styles on attitude.

In conclusion, as the context of Indonesian higher education has moved towards institutional autonomy, the role of university middle management has gained

more importance. This study indicates that deans value the pursuit of collectivist ideals. We believe that this traditional value will continue to shape the middle management of universities in Indonesia. Given the rapid growth and dynamic context of Indonesian universities, we believe that future deans will have more experience and be better trained in entrepreneurial activities. In the future, being successful as a dean will mean being innovative, taking risks, and having a clear vision for faculties through collective approaches. The future success of universities in Indonesia moving towards being entrepreneurial and research-based institutions sits squarely on the shoulders of its middle managers, that is, their deans.

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Lions or Lambs? How deans lead and manage their faculties at Indonesian universities.

Nederlandstalige samenvatting

Inleiding en probleemstelling

Leidinggeven en management, in het hoger onderwijs en daarbuiten, heeft zich altijd op een grote belangstelling mogen verheugen, zowel van onderzoekers als mensen in de praktijk. Een breed scala aan onderzoek belicht diverse facetten van het besturen en beheren van organisaties. Het is opvallend dat er relatief weinig aandacht is voor het middenniveau in organisaties. Doorgaans richt het onderzoek zich op de bedrijfstop. Ook in het hoger onderwijs trekt leidinggeven en management op het middenniveau tamelijk weinig aandacht. Over het decanaat is niet veel geschreven. Wat er is verschenen is vaak van Amerikaanse origine. De geringe belangstelling voor bestuur en beheer op het middenniveau is opmerkelijk omdat het middenniveau van grote invloed kan zijn op het functioneren van organisaties. Dit geldt zowel voor hoger onderwijsinstellingen als andere publieke en private organisaties. Het doel van deze studie is om een bijdrage te leveren aan het vergroten van inzicht in het bestuur en beheer op het middenniveau in universiteiten. Het decanaat, in dit geval in het Indonesisch hoger onderwijs, staat centraal.

De veranderingen die het hoger onderwijs in Indonesië heeft ondergaan vormen een aanvullende reden om het decanaat te onderzoeken. Globalisering van het hoger onderwijs, de diffusie van een neo-liberaal gedachtegoed over de inrichting van het publieke domein (New Public Management), de financiële crises in Azië en de wisselingen in de politieke macht in Indonesië hebben het hoger onderwijs en de instellingen aldaar niet ongemoeid gelaten. Zoals in veel landen is een van de uitkomsten van deze ontwikkelingen dat de instellingsautonomie is vergroot. De gedachte is dat hoger onderwijsinstellingen in Indonesië in meer of mindere mate een bedrijfsmatiger karakter moeten krijgen. Het ligt voor de hand dat de decanen hierdoor worden beïnvloed. De veronderstelling is dat evenals in veel andere landen de decanen in een meer bedrijfsmatige organisatie hun rol en functioneren op een andere wijze (moeten of willen) inkleden (De Boer en Goedegebuure 2009). De centrale vraagstelling in dit onderzoek is dan ook hoe de decanen in Indonesië leidinggeven aan hun faculteiten en welke factoren deze wijze van leidinggeven verklaren. Welke leiderschapsstijl wordt gehanteerd en door welke factoren kan deze stijl worden verklaard?[1]

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[1] In hoofdstuk 3 is ingegaan op de overeenkomsten en verschillen tussen de begrippen 'leiderschap' en 'management'. Omdat decanen zowel besturen als beheren, is besloten om

Theoretisch kader en uitwerking

In dit onderzoek is gebruik gemaakt van uit de sociaal-psychologie afkomstige gedragsmodellen die zijn ontwikkeld door Fishbein en Ajzen (1980, 1985, 2010). In het eerste gedragsmodel, de theorie van beredeneerd gedrag, opgesteld in de jaren zeventig van de vorige eeuw, wordt gedrag verklaard door de intentie om een bepaald gedrag te vertonen. Deze intentie wordt op zijn beurt bepaald door enerzijds een persoonlijke en anderzijds een sociale factor. De persoonlijke factor is de attitude van een actor jegens een bepaald gedrag. De sociale factor – aangeduid als subjectieve norm – weerspiegelt de opvattingen uit de directe omgeving die er met betrekking tot een bepaald gedrag in de ogen van een actor toe doen. Het gedrag van een actor kan met andere woorden het beste worden verklaard door vast te stellen of een actor voornemens is het gedrag in kwestie te vertonen. Een dergelijk voornemen is het resultaat van enerzijds een positieve attitude en anderzijds een positief gepercipieerde subjectieve norm. Dit basismodel is in zeer veel onderzoek gebruikt en heeft daarbij naast veel waardering ook veel kritiek gekregen, vaak gericht op de robuustheid en eenvoud van het gedragsmodel. Enerzijds wordt deze robuustheid als een kracht ervaren, anderzijds is het verwijt dat dit een te eenvoudige voorstelling van zaken is. Er wordt vaak voorgesteld het model uit te breiden met nieuwe variabelen (zie hoofdstuk 2). In de jaren tachtig heeft Ajzen (1985) dit gedaan door toevoeging van gepercipieerde gedragsbeheersing als verklarende variabele voor gedragsintentie. Voorgenomen gedrag is volgens dit model niet alleen een vraag van 'willen' maar ook van 'kunnen': er kunnen gedragsbeperkende of – stimulerende factoren van invloed zijn op de gedragsintentie. Dit uitgebreide gedragsmodel is in eerste instantie aangeduid als het model van gepland gedrag, later door Ajzen en Fishbein de beredeneerde actiebenadering genoemd.

In ons onderzoek hebben wij zowel het basismodel als het uitgebreide gedragsmodel gebruikt om leiderschapsstijlen te bepalen en te verklaren. In de uitwerking van de gedragsmodellen voor deze studie is een aanpassing gemaakt. Omdat uit eerder onderzoek blijkt dat er een zeer hoge samenhang bestaat tussen gedrag en gedragsintentie is besloten gedragsintentie niet op te nemen. Dit betekent dat wij de volgende kernvariabelen uit de twee gedragsmodellen hebben geoperationaliseerd: leiderschapsstijl, attitude jegens een leiderschapsstijl, subjectieve norm over een leiderschapsstijl en de gepercipieerde gedragsbeheersing. Een attitude kan worden gemeten door de opvattingen over

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de begrippen in deze studie als synoniemen te gebruiken. Er wordt gesproken van 'managerial leadership styles'. In deze samenvatting spreken wij gemakshalve van 'leiderschapsstijlen'.

en te verwachten effecten van een bepaald gedrag te achterhalen. Een subjectieve norm wordt bepaald door de opvattingen van belangrijke derden (door de ogen van een actor), gecombineerd met de geneigdheid tot navolging hiervan.

In de gedragsmodellen van Ajzen en Fishbein spelen achtergrondfactoren op indirecte wijze een rol. Deze variabelen verklaren volgens hen niet het gedrag zelf. De context wordt geïnternaliseerd in de normen en waarden van een actor. Zij zijn bijvoorbeeld van invloed op de inschatting en waardering van de effecten van bepaald gedrag en zijn zo van invloed op de attitude. De achtergrondfactoren die op deze wijze in het onderzoek zijn meegenomen betreffen onder meer leeftijd, zittingstermijn, type en omvang van de faculteit en faculteitscultuur.
Bij de uitwerking van de gedragsmodellen voor het beschrijven en verklaren van de leiderschapsstijlen van decanen uit Indonesië is gebruikt gemaakt van het concurrerende waarden model (Competing Values Framework - CVF) dat voornamelijk is ontwikkeld door Quinn (1988). Het CVF is een van de vele kaders die in de leiderschaps- en managementliteratuur is ontwikkeld (hoofdstuk 3 biedt een overzicht van deze literatuur en de verschillende conceptualisaties van leiderschapsstijlen). Het voordeel van het CVF is dat het verschillende wetenschappelijke invalshoeken weet te combineren (zoals de human relations, open system, rational goals en internal process benaderingen). Bovendien is het CVF veel gebruikt in diverse onderzoeken en is de validiteit en betrouwbaarheid van de bijbehorende instrumenten uitvoerig getest (Cameron 2006).

In de jaren zeventig en tachtig kwamen Quinn en Rohrbugh (1981) tot de conclusie dat de effectiviteit van organisaties, en hun leiderschap, door verschillende, en soms tegenstrijdige factoren wordt bepaald. Twee dimensies worden onderscheiden: de eerste dimensie betreft de mate van flexibiliteit, de tweede de focus van de organisatie. Op basis van deze twee dimensies zijn vier kwadranten gevormd: de clan, de adhocratie, de hiërarchie en de marktorganisatie. Bij ieder type passen andere leiderschapsrollen. Er worden acht verschillende leidersrollen gedefinieerd: mentor, facilitator, innovator, makelaar, producent, directeur, coördinator en monitor. Elk van deze rollen kunnen van waarde zijn; de ene rol is niet per se beter of effectiever dan de andere. Een effectieve leider is in de ogen van het CVF in staat om verschillende rollen te spelen. Aangezien de onderliggende waarden conflicterend of concurrerend zijn is goed leiderschap geen sinecure.

Bij de operationalisatie van de kernvariabelen uit de gedragsmodellen heeft het CVF als leidraad gediend voor het door ons gehanteerde '3-1 concept': van gedrag via rol naar stijl. Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Leadership Instrument gaat uit van 32 gedragingen, waaronder bijvoorbeeld "het bepalen

van de doelstellingen", "het bevorderen van consensusvorming" of "het tonen van betrokkenheid". Voor iedere leiderschapsrol zijn vier gedragingen gedefinieerd, die gezamenlijk een van de acht leiderschapsrollen weerspiegelen. Vervolgens wordt een stijl gezien als een bepaalde configuratie van bepaalde rollen (waarover later meer).

In plaats van een beperkt aantal casestudies die in detail het gedrag van decanen zou kunnen beschrijven en analyseren is gekozen om een beeld in de breedte te creëren. Om gedrag, attitudes, subjectieve normen en gedragsbeheersing van decanen in kaart te brengen is, gezien de omvang van het land, de spreiding van het grote aantal instellingen en het grote aantal decanen, gekozen voor het uitzetten van een schriftelijke vragenlijst. Dit beperkt weliswaar de diepgang maar bevordert de omvang en de mogelijkheden om de resultaten te generaliseren. De vragenlijsten zijn gestuurd naar de decanen en niet naar andere betrokkenen. Dit betekent dat gedrag (en andere kernvariabelen) wordt gemeten op basis van zelfrapportages. Van zelfrapportages is bekend dat zij vertekenend kunnen zijn, zeker als sprake is van gedrag dat gevoelig ligt. Dit lijkt ons in onze studie niet het geval, zij het dat het aannemelijk is dat de decanen hun gedrag rooskleuriger kunnen voorstellen dan dat het in werkelijkheid is. Een 360-graden benadering lost dit probleem echter niet op omdat dan een vergelijkbare vertekening (bijvoorbeeld in de andere richting) mogelijk is.

De onderzoekspopulatie

In het onderzoek zijn twee vragenlijsten uitgezet. De eerste vragenlijst is gebaseerd op het basismodel van beredeneerd gedrag. In een later stadium is besloten om ook gedragsbeheersing als verklarende variabele voor gedrag mee te nemen, wat heeft geleid tot het verzenden van een tweede vragenlijst. Beide schriftelijke vragenlijsten zijn in het Indonesisch opgesteld en de gebruikelijke eisen van zorgvuldigheid en anonimiteit zijn in acht genomen.

De totale populatie van decanen in Indonesië is niet bekend. Wij zijn in eerste instantie uitgegaan van 120 hoger onderwijsinstellingen die zijn geaccrediteerd (van de in totaal 419 instellingen). Op basis van de veronderstelling dat een instelling gemiddeld acht faculteiten heeft wordt de totale populatie geschat op 960 decanen. Op basis van een gestratificeerde steekproef onder de instellingen is beoogd recht te doen aan de geografische spreiding van de instellingen. Omwille van tijd en geld is besloten om random de helft van de 120 instellingen te nemen. De aldus verkregen nominale steekproef kent 443 decanen. Hiervan hebben 218 decanen de eerste vragenlijst ingevuld geretourneerd (de feitelijke steekproef; 49% van de nominale steekproef). De tweede vragenlijst, uitsluitend geadresseerd

aan de respondenten uit de feitelijke steekproef, is door 75 decanen ingevuld
teruggestuurd. Van de 218 decanen is 82% man en 18% vrouw. Het overgrote
deel is tussen de 40 en 60 jaar oud (80%). Bijna de helft van de decanen is minder
dan twee jaar decaan op het moment van invullen van de vragenlijst. 58% is
decaan aan een publieke instelling, de overige 42% aan een private instelling.
Bijna twee derde van de decanen bestuurt een niet-technische faculteit, de
anderen een technische. De ruime meerderheid van de decanen leidt een kleine
tot middelgrote faculteit (dat wil zeggen tussen de 1.000 en 5.000 studenten met
100 tot 500 medewerkers).

De uitkomsten van de studie

De decanen geven te kennen dat zij in het algemeen alle 32 gedragsactiviteiten
ontplooien. Dit blijkt onder andere uit de hoge gemiddelde scores op de 32
gedragsactiviteiten. Meer dan een derde van de decanen geeft aan dat zij meer
dan 24 van de 32 activiteiten 'altijd' uitvoeren. Slechts 13% van decanen zegt dat
zij minder dan negen verschillende gedragsactiviteiten uitvoeren (dat wil zeggen
minder frequent uitvoeren). Dit betekent logischerwijs dat de decanen ook alle
leiderschapsrollen zoals gedefinieerd in het CVF vervullen. Alleen de rol van
innovator en makelaar, beide uit het adhocratie-kwadant, komen iets minder
frequent voor. Deze uitkomst impliceert dat de Indonesische decanen naar eigen
zeggen in het leidinggeven aan hun faculteit alle rollen in sterke mate vervullen.
In Quinn's terminologie zou dit duiden op een kwalificatie 'master managers'. De
decanen suggereren in staat te zijn om te kunnen gaan met de concurrerende
waarden die aan de verschillende rollen ten grondslag liggen. Wij duiden deze
algemene stijl dan ook aan als de masterstijl.

We hebben deze algemene masterstijl verder verfijnd. Hoewel alle rollen frequent
voorkomen, komen bepaalde rollen vaker voor dan andere. Via een two-step
cluster analyse (zei hoofdstuk 6 voor details) is het relatieve belang van een rol
vastgesteld op basis waarvan vier specifieke configuraties van leiderschapsstijlen
zijn geïdentificeerd; de concurrerende consultant, de gefocuste teamcaptain, de
consensus-georiënteerde doeleindenbepaler en de geïnformeerde
vertrouwensman. In figuur 6.4 tot en met 6.7 zijn de vier specifieke
leiderschapsstijlen van Indonesische decanen weergegeven.

Het door ons opgestelde basismodel van beredeneerd gedrag geeft aan dat de
gevonden leiderschapsstijlen worden verklaard door de attitudes van de decanen
en door de door hen gepercipieerde subjectieve normen. Dit verklaringsmodel is
getest door middel van bivariate en multivariate regressieanalyses. De bivariate
regressieanalyses laten zien dat de attitudes de leiderschapsstijl verklaren, zowel

wat betreft de algemene masterstijl als de vier specifieke stijlen. Ook de subjectieve norm verklaart de leiderschapsstijl, zij het in minder sterke mate. Deze uitkomsten worden ten dele ondersteund door de multivariate regressieanalyse. De subjectieve norm valt in deze regressies weg als verklarende factor, omdat deze norm correleert met de attitude. Omdat er geen sprake is van sterke multicollineariteit is de conclusie gerechtvaardigd dat de leiderschapsstijl wordt verklaard door de attitude van de decanen jegens een leiderschapsstijl. Voorts is bezien of specifieke leiderschapsstijlen worden verklaard door de specifieke attitudes die er aan ten grondslag liggen. Dit is bij de meeste specifieke leiderschapsstijlen het geval, maar niet bij alle.

In het uitgebreide gedragsmodel (de beredeneerde actiebenadering) is het basismodel uitgebreid met de gepercipieerde gedragsbeheersing (ziet een decaan factoren die een bepaalde leiderschapsstijl in de weg staan?). Er zijn drie soorten gedragsbeheersing onderscheiden: omgevingsgerelateerde, interne en praktische; zie hoofdstuk 4). Ook hier zijn bivariate en multivariate regressieanalyses uitgevoerd. Alleen de praktische gedragsbeheersing (hoge werkdruk en complexiteit van de faculteit) blijkt van negatieve invloed op de leiderschapsstijl van de decaan. Hoe groter de beperkingen (in werkdruk en complexiteit), des te minder waarschijnlijk het is dat een bepaalde leiderschapsstijl wordt gehanteerd. Dit betekent dat de leiderschapsstijl van Indonesische decanen (positief) wordt verklaard door hun attitudes en (negatief) door praktische gedragsbeperkingen. Dit geldt voor bijna alle leiderschapsstijlen die in deze studie zijn geïdentificeerd. Bij twee specifieke leiderschapsstijlen (de concurrerende consultant en de consensus-gerichte doeleindebepaler) speelt ook interne gedragsbeheersing een verklarende rol.

Discussie en reflectie

Een van de uitkomsten van het onderzoek is dat decanen in Indonesië veel verschillende handelingen verrichten en daarmee ook praktisch alle acht leiderschapsrollen vervullen. Daaraan is het predicaat 'master stijl' verbonden. Dit is een opmerkelijke, en wellicht verdachte uitkomst, omdat het vervullen van verschillende rollen met tegenstrijdige onderliggende waarden op zijn minst een lastige opgave is die maar voor weinig mensen is weggelegd. Een verklaring voor deze uitkomst kan zijn gelegen in de wijze waarop de gegevens zijn verkregen. Het meten van gedrag door middel van zelfrapportages kan zoals eerder aangegeven leiden tot misplaatste overwaardering. De wens kan de vader van de gedachte zijn: dit zijn de rollen die een decaan zou moeten vervullen en dus geeft hij te kennen dit ook daadwerkelijk te doen. Wij merken hierbij op dat wij in deze studie gevraagd hebben hoe vaak een bepaald gedrag wordt vertoond. Dit zegt

op zich zelf niets over de wijze waarop en de intensiteit waarmee dit gebeurt. Het kan zijn dat bepaalde handelingen slechts oppervlakkig worden uitgevoerd wat het in beginsel makkelijker maakt om veel verschillende handelingen te verrichten. Dit zou kunnen verklaren waarom de decanen in deze studie zich zelf beschouwen als 'masters'.

Een andere reden waarom wantrouwen over de masterstijl kan worden getemperd is gebaseerd op de uitkomsten van andere studies (onder anderen Wolverton et al. 2001; Gmelch en Wolverton 2002). Zoals in hoofdstuk 9 is beschreven concluderen andere studies dat van decanen wordt verwacht dat zij veel verschillende activiteiten ontplooien en veel verschillende verantwoordelijkheden hebben. De verscheidenheid aan handelingen van Indonesische decanen reflecteren de vele verantwoordelijkheden en taken zoals die ook elders aan het decanaat worden verbonden (onder anderen de Boer en Goedegebuure 2009; Thomas en Fragueiro 2011). De decanen worden met het oog hierop geselecteerd. De vereisten en selectiecriteria voor decanen in Indonesië zijn niet wezenlijk anders dan elders. Vanuit dit perspectief is het wellicht minder vreemd dat deze personen vervolgens ook aangeven over dergelijke capaciteiten te beschikken en verschillende rollen te spelen.

De omgeving waarin Indonesische universiteiten opereren is het laatste decennium sterk veranderd met als gevolg dat de universiteiten aan verandering onderhevig zijn. Dit laat waarschijnlijk uiteindelijk ook het decanaat niet onberoerd. De uitkomsten van de studie suggereren dat de decanen van plan zijn hun bijdrage te leveren. Zij geven bijvoorbeeld aan dat richting geven, strategische planning en interne communicatie van belang zijn. Evenals in andere landen (onder anderen Meek, Goedegebuure en De Boer 2010) is de 'executive dean' in opkomst ten faveure van de 'primus inter pares'. Hoewel de verandering van leidinggeven aan de faculteit niet het doel van deze studie is, lijkt het er op dat de masterstijl elementen bevat die in het verleden veel minder aanwezig waren.

Naast deze masterstijl zijn in deze studie vier specifieke stijlen van leidinggeven naar voren gekomen. Vooral de leiderschapsrollen gerelateerd aan interne focus en flexibiliteit (clan) en externe focus en stabiliteit (markt) zijn belangrijk; leidinggeven gericht op bevorderen van participatie en samenwerking enerzijds en doelgericht en externe concurrentie anderzijds. Leidinggeven gericht op het bevorderen van creativiteit, innovatie, risico en externe legitimiteit treden minder op de voorgrond. De gedachte dat leidinggeven aan faculteiten in Indonesische universiteiten zich sterk richt op samenwerking strookt met traditionele Indonesische waarden die (familie)banden van groot belang achten. In ander

onderzoek naar management op het middenniveau van organisaties in 62 landen (House et al. 1999) wordt voor Indonesische bedrijven in de private sector een vergelijkbare conclusie getrokken: 'team-oriented' en 'humane (caring)' leiderschap scoort bij Indonesische middenamangers in vergelijking met andere landen hoog. In dit verband zijn de uitkomsten van onze studie niet vreemd. Het collectief, loyaliteit en wederzijdse samenwerking liggen stevig verankerd in de Indonesische samenleving (onder anderen Wirawan en Irawanto 2007) en komt klaarblijkelijk ook tot uitdrukking in facultair leiderschap.

De gevonden leiderschapsstijlen worden voor een groot deel verklaard door de attitudes van de decanen. Dit strookt met eerder onderzoek in het hoger onderwijs waar eenzelfde verklaringsmodel is gehanteerd (de Boer 2003). Ook andere leiderschapsstudies (buiten het hoger onderwijs) wijzen op het belang van attitudes als verklarende variabele. Het past ook goed bij de algemene trend in het hoger onderwijs dat als gevolg van veranderingen in de bestuursorganisatie van universiteiten de positie van de decanen met meer bevoegdheden is omkleed. Het is aannemelijk dat decanen hiervan gebruik maken door hun eigen waarden en normen zwaar te laten wegen in de wijze waarop zij leiding geven aan hun faculteit. Dit zou ook kunnen verklaren waarom de subjectieve norm (de opvattingen van anderen) minder belangrijk is. Dit laatste verhoudt zich echter slecht met eerdere opmerkingen over het mogelijke belang van de Indonesische cultuur die vooral het collectief benadrukt.

Het gebruik van het concurrerende waarden model (CVF) in een 'nieuwe setting' vraagt om enige bezinning. Op basis van eerder onderzoek (bijvoorbeeld Cameron 2006) hebben wij aangenomen dat de instrumenten die in het kader van het CVF zijn ontwikkeld betrouwbaar en valide zijn. Echter zoals veel leiderschaps- en managementliteratuur is dit model opgesteld in een Amerikaanse context. Bovendien komt het uit de private sector. Wat betekent het dat het CVF wordt gebruikt in het hoger onderwijs in een niet-westerse context? Hoewel wij deze vraag hier niet kunnen beantwoorden, merken wij op dat de groepsgeoriënteerde cultuur in Indonesië kan inhouden dat decanen de vragen door de ogen van de groep beantwoorden. In individualistische culturen zoals de Amerikaanse is het wellicht duidelijker dat de decaan als individu de adressant is. Het is aanbevelingswaardig de gevolgen van dergelijke verschillen te betrekken in onderzoek over de validiteit en betrouwbaarheid van het CVF-instrumentarium.

Een andere interessante vraag betreft de causaliteit in de gehanteerde gedragsmodellen. Deze studie geeft aan dat een leiderschapsstijl wordt verklaard door een decaan's attitude en zijn gepercipieerde gedragsbeheersing. Er is echter

ook onderzoek dat deze causaliteit omdraait, namelijk dat gedrag bepalend is voor iemands attitude (vergelijk Olsen en Stone 2005). Ook dit zou een interessante invalshoek zijn voor toekomstig onderzoek.

Deze studie heeft deels een pionierskarakter zoals ook blijkt uit de vorige alinea's. Het is duidelijk dat de geringe variantie in de afhankelijke variabele voldoende reden is om bij vervolgonderzoek nog eens stil te staan bij de wijze waarop gedrag wordt gemeten. Een alternatief of verfijning van het instrumentarium om sociaal wenselijke antwoorden in combinatie met zelfrapportage ("het spreekt toch voor zich dat ik duidelijke doeleinden formuleer voor de faculteit") te voorkomen, is wenselijk voor toekomstig onderzoek. Ook zou toekomstig onderzoek zich kunnen toespitsen op de veranderingen in leidinggeven aan faculteiten (en universiteiten) door de tijd. Deze studie is een momentopname; longitudinaal onderzoek zou onze kennis verder doen toenemen. Een andere goede mogelijkheid tot kennisvermeerdering is om, nadat wij hier "in de breedte" zijn gegaan, de diepte in te gaan door middel van casestudies. Daar zou bijvoorbeeld niet de frequentie van gedrag maar de intensiteit en effectiviteit van dat gedrag nader kunnen worden onderzocht. Het is überhaupt wenselijk om meer aandacht te schenken aan de relatie tussen de wijze van besturen en effectiviteit (*"does governance matter and how?"*). Daar is nog een wereld te winnen.

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APPENDIX A1

A questionnaire in English

Center for
Higher Education
Policy Studies

University middle management Of Indonesian Universities.

PhD research project
Jenny Ngo
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 Jenny Ngo 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.

Instructions

This questionnaire has only closed questions. You are kindly to asked to tick the boxes in the following way:

☐ ☒ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

If you want to correct your answer, shade in completely the wrong box and thereafter mark the correct box:

☐ ▣ ☐ ☐ ☒ ☐ ☐

If you cannot state something, please leave the box unmarked.

Your reference number: _____

This reference number will only be used to identify who has completed the questionnaire in order to send you the research outcomes in due time. After I have received your completed questionnaire, this page will be eliminated. Herewith I confirm once more that your answer will be dealt with confidentially: they will no be made available to any other person or organization and in my dissertation outcomes will nowhere be linked to particular persons (anonymity).

If you have questions about my PhD research project or about this questionnaire please do not hesitate to contact me, Jenny Ngo, mobile number: 0815 531 09736 or email: jenngo051@yahoo.com

Along with this questionnaire, you will find a pen, a return envelope with a stamp and return address on it. To return your completed questionnaire you can use the provided envelope. Once, we thank you very much for your participation in our research.

Below you find alternative statements about your faculty. Please indicate to what extent these statements apply to your faculty (range from 1 = absolutely not to 7 = completely).

To what extent do the following characteristics match with the faculty you are running?	Absolutely not		To some extent			Completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
▪ My faculty is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. Faculty staff seems to share a lot of itself.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ My faculty is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. Faculty staff is willing to stick their necks out and take risks.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ My faculty is very results-oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. Faculty staff is very competitive and achievement-oriented.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ My faculty is very control-oriented and a structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what faculty staff does.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

The organizational glue that holds my faculty together is / are:	Absolutely not		To some extent			Completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
▪ commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running faculty is important.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to the faculty runs high	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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

How often do you as a dean actually:	never	very seldom	seldom	occasionally	frequently	very frequently	always
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- come up with new inventive ideas regarding teaching, research and management matters in the faculty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- protect continuity in the faculty'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 faculty staff and foster a sense of faculty competitiveness to perform better than others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- facilitate consensus building in the faculty's decision making	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- define areas of responsibility for faculty staff	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- listen to the personal problems of faculty staff members and make an effort to help them	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- minimize the disruptions in daily practices to have an untroubled faculty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- experiment with new concepts and procedures	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- encourage participative decision-making in the faculty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- make sure everyone in the faculty knows where the faculty 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 faculty delivers on stated goals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- show empathy and concern in dealing with faculty staff members	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- work with technical data en information	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- approach and consult people at the higher levels of the university	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

- set clear objectives for the faculty and restate en reinforce your vision of the faculty's future

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- treat every faculty member in a sensitive and caring way

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- keep a close track of what goes on in the faculty (using control and monitor systems)

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- solve faculty problems in a creative and unconventional way

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- insist on intense hard work and high productivity and sincerely push the faculty staff to meet the faculty objectives

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- encourage faculty 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 faculty policy priorities and future direction

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- persuasively sell new ideas to the central management of the university

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- bring a sense of order to the faculty

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- show concern for the needs of faculty staff members

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- emphasize the faculty's achievements of stated purposes

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- build teamwork among the faculty staff members

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- analyze written plans and schedules

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

In the next question we would like to get your assessment on the style of leadership and management in your faculty in general. By faculty leadership and management we mean deans, vice-deans, head of schools, head of departments, and so on. Please indicate to what extent these statements apply to your faculty (range from 1 = absolutely to 7 = completely).

The leadership and management of my faculty is **in general** considered to emphasize:	*Absolutely not*			*To some extent*			*Completely*
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
▪ a no-nonsense, aggressive, result-oriented focus.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ entrepreneurship, innovation, or risk-taking.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

The management style in my faculty is **in general** characterized by:

	Absolutely not			*To some extent*			*Completely*
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
▪ hard-driven competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ teamwork, consensus, and participation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

In running my faculty, I think that

	Not important at all			*Important to some extent*			*Extremely 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 faculty objectives is …	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- having concern for the personal needs of faculty 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 …	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- faculty staff members knowing and accepting the strategic direction and priorities of the faculty is ….	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- pushing faculty staff to achieve ambitious, highly competitive faculty goals is …	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- formal rules and policies hold the faculty together and that taking	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

formal rules very seriously and doing things by the book is …

- explicit attention for the individual staff members of the faculty, 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 faculty, for instance by creating sufficient space and time for brainstorming, is … ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

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

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

	Not important at all			*Important to some extent*			*Extremely important*
To what extent are the views and opinions of …	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- the academics of your faculty important to you for the way in which you run your faculty? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- the other deans of your university important to you for the way in which you run your faculty? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- the central management of your university important to you for the way in which you run your faculty? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Below you find two statements about your faculty. Please indicate to what extent these statements apply to your faculty (range from 1 = absolutely to 7 = completely).

My faculty emphasizes:	Absolutely not			To some extent			Completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
▪ 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. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Success is in my faculty defined on the basis of:	Absolutely not			To some extent			Completely
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
▪ 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.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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

In running my faculty, the importance of …	*Extremely low* 1	2	3	*Important to some extent* 4	5	6	*Extremely high* 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 faculty is …	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Stimulating the staff's productivity (more/better output) is …	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Having explicit policy goals that must be met is ….	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

In the next questions we would like to know what your assessment is of the beliefs of academics, other deans of your university and central university management. What do you think how they would like to see faculty leadership? (range from -3 = very negative to +3 = very positive).

I think that the academics of my faculty like to see …	*Very negative* -3	-2	-1	*Neutral* 0	1	2	*Very positive* 3
• strong coordination and detailed organization of teaching and research from faculty leadership as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• faculty leadership that encourages market-driven and results-oriented behavior of academics as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• faculty leadership actively creating a sense of collectivity with consensual decision-making and much personal attention as …	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

- faculty leadership having clear visions that embraces innovation and change as ……

  ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

I think that <u>the other deans</u> of my faculty like to see …

	Very negative			*Neutral*			*Very positive*
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
• strong coordination and detailed organization of teaching and research from faculty leadership as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• faculty leadership that encourages market-driven and results-oriented behavior of academics as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• faculty leadership actively creating a sense of collectivity with consensual decision-making and much personal attention as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• faculty leadership having clear visions that embraces innovation and change as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

I think that <u>central university management</u> like to see …

	Very negative			*Neutral*			*Very positive*
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
• strong coordination and detailed organization of teaching and research from faculty leadership as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• faculty leadership that encourages market-driven and results-oriented behavior of academics as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• faculty leadership actively creating a sense of collectivity with consensual decision-making and much personal attention as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• faculty leadership having clear visions that embraces innovation and change as ……	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

In order to succeed in your current position as a dean, how important is each of the following skills?	Not important at all			Moderately Important			Critically important
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- managing teams in the faculty *(building effective, cohesive, smooth-functioning teams)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- managing interpersonal relationships in the faculty *(listening to and providing supportive feedback to others)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- managing the development of human capital in the faculty *(helping others improve their performance and obtain personal development opportunities)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- fostering innovation in the faculty *(encouraging others to innovate and to generate new ideas)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- managing the faculty's future *(communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- managing improvement and change in the faculty *(fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement among faculty staff members in everything they do)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- managing competitiveness of the faculty *(fostering an orientation toward beating the competition)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- managing results of the faculty *(motivating and energizing others to put forth extra effort and to exceed the competition)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- managing customers service *(fostering a focus on service and involvement with students and industry)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- managing of information clarity in the faculty *(helping others become clear about expectations, goals and policies and their place in the faculty)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- managing the faculty's control system *(having measurement and monitoring systems in place to keep close track of processes and performance)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- managing coordination *(sharing information across functional boundaries and fostering coordination with other faculty units)*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Below you find eight descriptions of a leadership role. Please indicate on a scale from 1 to 10 to what extent a particular role is similar to the way in which you run your faculty in practice (range from 1 = absolutely not similar to 7 = perfect match)

In order to succeed in your current position as a dean, how important is each of the following skills?	Not important at all			Moderately Important			Critically important
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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 faculty decision making.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am caring and empathic. I am 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 moral and commitment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am unconventional and creative. I envisage change. My influence is based on anticipation of a better future for the faculty and I generate hope in the faculty. I actively pursue innovation and adaptation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am future-oriented in my thinking. My focus is on where the faculty is going and I emphasize possibilities as well as probabilities. I spend a lot of time on strategic direction and continuous improvement of faculty 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 faculty.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
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 faculty's market position. I actively pursue goals and targets of the faculty.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
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 faculty.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Personal background

Name of the university: _____

Name of the faculty: _____

Postal address: _____

City: _____

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
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Institutional background

How many students are enrolled at your university?

< 1.000	1.000 - 5.000	5.000 - 10.000	10.000 - 15.000	15.000 - 20.000	20.000 - 25.000	25.000 - 30.000	30.000 - 35.000	35.000 - 40.000	40.000 - 45.000	45.000 - 50.000	> 50.000
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

How many staff is employed at your university?

< 100	100-500	500-1000	1000-1500	1500-2000	2000-2500	2500-3000	3000-3500	3500-4000	4000-4500	4500-5000	> 5000
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

How many faculties does your university have?

< 5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	> 15
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

How many students are enrolled at your faculty?

< 1.000	1.000 - 5.000	5.000 - 10.000	10.000 - 15.000	15.000 - 20.000	20.000 - 25.000	25.000 - 30.000	30.000 - 35.000	35.000 - 40.000	40.000 - 45.000	45.000 - 50.000	> 50.000
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

How many staff is employed at your faculty?

< 100	100-500	500-1000	1000-1500	1500-2000	2000-2500	2500-3000	3000-3500	3500-4000	4000-4500	4500-5000	> 5000
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire!

A questionnaire in Bahasa Indonesia

Center for
Higher Education
Policy Studies

University middle management of Indonesian Universities

Kuesioner

Penelitian untuk program Doktor (S3)
(PhD research project)

Jenny Ngo

The Center for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS) adalah sebuah lembaga penelitian dbawah naungan fakultas manajemen dan pemerintahan di Universitas Twente, di Belanda. CHEPS menpunyai reputasi tingkat dunia untuk penelitian dan konsultasi di bidang pendidikan tinggi, penelitian dan terobosan terbaru dibidang pengajaran. Program Doktor dari Jenny Ngo merupakan salah satu proyek penelitian CHEPS yang bertemakan "The transformation of higher education in the knowledge society". Program Doktor ini dibimbing oleh prof. dr. Jürgen Enders and dr. Harry de Boer. Untuk informasi lebih lanjut tentang CHEPS, silakan membuka website kami: http://www.utwente.nl/cheps.

Petunjuk pengisian kuesioner

Berikan tanda x (silang) di dalam kotak jawaban yang tersedia.

☐ ☒ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Jika Anda ingin mengkoreksi atau mengubah jawaban, arsir jawaban yang salah dan kemudian beri tanda (x) silang pada jawaban yang benar.

☐ ■ ☐ ☐ ☒ ☐ ☐

Jika Anda tidak dapat memberikan jawaban, biarkan kotak jawaban dalam keadaan kosong.

Nomor surat: _____

Nomor surat ini hanya sebagai nomor identitas responden yang telah mengisi angket secara lengkap. Nomor surat ini akan memudahkan kami untuk mengirimkan hasil penelitian ini ke Anda. Angket ini akan langsung kami musnahkan setelah kami analisa. Bersama ini, kami juga akan mengkonfirmasikan lagi bahwa jawaban angket Anda akan kami rahasiakan: tidak ada seorangpun atau organisasi manapun yang bisa mengakses jawaban angket Anda. Kami juga tidak akan mencantumkan nama Anda di dalam disertasi kami nanti (anonymity).

Jika Anda ingin mendapatkan informasi lebih lanjut tentang penelitian dan angket ini, Anda bisa langsung menghubungi saya, Jenny Ngo, di nomor: 0815 531 09736 atau mengirim email ke: jenngo051@yahoo.com

Masukkan angket yang telah Anda isi ke dalam amplop yang telah berisi alamat kami dan berperangko. Sebelumnya kami mengucapkan terima kasih atas kesediaan Anda untuk berpatisipasi dalam penelitian ini.

A.   *Di bawah ini terdapat beberapa pernyataan alternatif mengenai fakultas Anda. Sejauh mana pernyataan tersebut mengambarkan fakultas Anda.*

Sejauh mana karakteristik berikut ini sesuai dengan fakultas Anda?	Tidak sama sekali			Dalam beberapa hal			Setuju sepenuhnya
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
▪ Fakultas saya adalah tempat yang sangat personal. Semua seperti satu keluarga. Staf akademik sepertinya selalu berbagi satu dengan lain.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ Fakultas saya adalah tempat yang sangat dinamis dan penuh tantangan. Staf akademik bersedia untuk berkorban dan mengambil resiko.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ Fakultas saya sangat berorientasi pada hasil. Hal yang terpenting adalah menyelesaikan pekerjaan. Staf akademik sangat kompetitif dan berorientasi pada pencapaian akhir.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ Fakultas saya sangat berorientasi pada aturan dan merupakan tempat yang terstruktur (birokratis). Prosedur-prosedur formal biasanya mengatur apa yang dilakukan oleh staf akademik.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Hal yang mempersatukan fakultas saya adalah:	Tidak sama sekali			Dalam beberapa hal			Setuju sepenuhnya
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
▪ komitmen terhadap inovasi dan pengembangan. Ada penekanan untuk selalu berada pada garis terdepan.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ aturan formal dan kebijakan. Mengatur fakultas agar berjalan lancar adalah hal yang penting.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ penekanan pada penyelesaian pencapaian dan tujuan kerja.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ kesetiaan dan rasa saling percaya. Komitmen yang tinggi terhadap fakultas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

B.   *Dalam pertanyaan berikut ini tercantum beberapa sikap yang mungkin dimiliki oleh dekan.*

Seberapa sering Anda sebagai dekan benar-benar:	Tidak pernah	Sangat jarang	Jarang	Terkadang	Sering	Sangat sering	Selalu
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- mempunyai ide baru mengenai pengajaran, penelitian dan manajemen di dalam fakultas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- melindungi kelanjutan operasional fakultas sehari-hari	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- menggunakan pengaruh dalam universitas untuk mempengaruhi pengambilan keputusan strategis	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- melihat laporan secara teliti dan mencari tahu atau mengecek ulang informasi secara detail	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- fokus terhadap hasil dan performa dari staf akademik dan meningkatkan rasa kompetitif fakultas untuk dapat melakukan sesuatu lebih baik dari yang lainnya	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- mendukung adanya konsensus dalam pengambilan keputusan fakultas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- memberitahukan tanggung jawab staf akademik	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- mendengarkan permasalahan pribadi anggota staf akademik dan berusaha untuk membantu mereka	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- memperkecil gangguan sehari-hari untuk menghasilkan fakultas yang bebas masalah	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- eksperimen dengan konsep dan prosedur baru	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- mendukung pengambilan keputusan yang bersifat partisipatif dalam fakultas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- memastikan setiap orang dalam fakultas tahu visi dan misi serta tujuan fakultas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- mempengaruhi keputusan yang diambil dalam tingkat yang lebih tinggi di dalam universitas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- secara teliti membandingkan data, file dan laporan untuk mencari ketidakseimbangan	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- mengawasi fakultas untuk mencapai tujuan yang ditetapkan	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

- menunjukkan empati dan perhatian saat berurusan dengan anggota staf akademik   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- bekerja dengan data dan informasi teknis work with technical data en information   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- mendekati dan berkonsultasi dengan orang-orang yang mempunyai jabatan yang lebih tinggi di universitas   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- membuat tujuan yang jelas untuk fakultas dan menetapkan serta memastikan ulang visi Anda terhadap masa depan fakultas   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- memperlakukan setiap anggota fakultas dengan cara yang sensitif dan penuh perhatian   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- mengawasi dengan cermat apa yang terjadi di dalam fakultas (dengan menggunakan sistem kendali dan monitor)   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- memecahkan masalah fakultas dengan cara kreatif dan lain dari biasanya   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- bersikeras dalam bekerja keras dan produktivitas yang tinggi dan secara gamblang mendorong staf akademik untuk memenuhi visi dan misi serta tujuan fakultas   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- mendorong anggota staf akademik untuk berbagi ide dengan Anda dan yang lainnya   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- mencari inovasi dan pengembangan potensial serta mendorong yang lain untuk menciptakan ide baru   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- mengklarifikasi kebijakan utama fakultas dan arah masa depan fakultas   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- secara persuasif memberikan ide baru kepada manajemen pusat universitas   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- memberikan keteraturan dan kedisiplinan dalam fakultas   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- menunjukkan perhatian terhadap kebutuhan anggota staf akademik show concern for the needs of academic staff members   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- menekankan pada pencapaian fakultas terhadap tujuan yang ditetapkan   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- membangun kerjasama tim diantara anggota staf akademik   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- menganalisa rencana dan jadwal tertulis   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

C.   *Dalam pertanyaan berikut ini, kami ingin mengetahui penilaian Anda tentang cara kepemimpinan dan manajemen fakultas Anda <u>secara umum</u>. Yang dimaksud dengan kepemimpinan dan manajemen fakultas adalah dekan, wakil dekan, ketua jurusan, dan sebagainya. Sejauh mana pernyataan tersebut mengambarkan fakultas Anda.*

Kepemimpinan dan manajemen fakultas saya <u>secara umum</u> ditekankan kepada:	Tidak sama sekali		Dalam beberapa hal			Setuju sepenuhnya	
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
▪ fokus yang masuk akal, agresif, berorientasi pada hasil.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ mengajar, memfasilitasi, atau membimbing.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ mengkoordinasi, mengorganisir, atau efisiensi dalam menjalankan tugas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ tantangan, inovasi, atau pengambilan resiko.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Bentuk manajemen dalam fakultas saya <u>secara umum</u> ditandai dengan:	Tidak sama sekali		Dalam beberapa hal			Setuju sepenuhnya	
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
▪ kompetisi yang sengit, permintaan yang tinggi, dan pencapaian.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ keamanan pekerjaan, sesuai standar yang berlaku, mudah dilihat, dan stabilitas dalam hubungan pekerjaan.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ kerja tim, konsensus, dan partisipasi.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ pengambilan resiko, inovasi, kebebasan, dan keunikan individual.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

D. Sejauh mana Anda mempertimbangkan beberapa aspek penting dalam menjalankan fakultas.

Dalam menjalankan fakultas, saya berpikir bahwa:	Tidak penting sama sekali			Penting untuk beberapa hal			Sangat penting
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
- sistem kebijakan yang baik di dalam dan di luar universitas adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- pada batas tertentu stardarisasi proses kerja untuk menghasilkan kesinambungan dan mudah dilihat adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- perasaan komunitas yang kuat, dengan staf merasa seperti di rumah dan mempunyai tujuan yang sama adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- memiliki tujuan fakultas yang jelas dan tidak dapat diganggu gugat adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- memiliki perhatian terhadap kebutuhan pribadi anggota staf akademik adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- figur statistik, dokumentasi yang lengkap dan sistem informasi manajemen adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- pengambilan kebijakan yang kreatif, memiliki keberanian dan mengambil tantangan tanpa terlalu takut terhadap konsekuensi kalau terjadi 'kegagalan' adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- anggota staf akademik mengetahui dan menerima arahan strategis dan prioritas fakultas adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- mendorong staf akademik untuk mencapai tujuan fakultas yang sangat kompetitif dan ambisius adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- aturan dan kebijakan formal menyokong fakultas dan menjalankan aturan formal secara sangat serius serta melakukan sesuai dengan aturan yang berlaku adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- perhatian khusus terhadap anggota staf secara individu, pengembangan pribadi dan kompetensi staf tersebut adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- mengawasi secara cermat kualitas pengajaran dan/atau penelitian adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- berperan aktif dalam pengambilan keputusan formal dan	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

informal dalam tingkat pusat universitas adalah…

- dukungan senantiasa untuk perubahan dan inovasi dalam fakultas, seperti mengadakan tempat dan waktu yang cukup untuk berpikir, adalah… ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- memgumpulkan data tentang dan berperan dalam pasar pendidikan dan penelitian yang lebih tinggi… ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- komitmen staf yang tinggi melalui pengambilan keputusan yang berdasarkan konsensus adalah… ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Sejauh apa pentingnya pandangan dan pendapat dari…	Tidak penting sama sekali			Penting untuk beberapa hal			Sangat penting
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

- staf akademik di fakultas bagi Anda dalam menjalankan fakultas? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- dekan lain di universitas bagi Anda dalam menjalankan fakultas? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- manajemen pusat universitas bagi Anda dalam menjalankan fakultas? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

E.   *Di bawah ini terdapat dua pernyataan mengenai fakultas Anda. Sejauh mana pernyataan tersebut relevan dengan fakultas Anda.*

Fakultas saya menekankan pada:	Tidak sama sekali			Dalam beberapa hal			Setuju sepenuhnya
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

- mendapatkan sumber daya dan membuat tantangan baru. Mencoba hal baru dan melihat kesempatan adalah hal yang ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

diutamakan.

- perkembangan manusia. Kepercayaan yang tinggi, keterbukaan, dan partisipasi adalah hal yang mutlak. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- performa dan stabilitas. Efisiensi, kontrol, dan operasi yang baik adalah penting. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- tindakan dan pencapaian yang kompetitif. Mencapai target yang sulit dan memenangkan pasar adalah hal yang dominan. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Sukses dalam fakultas saya adalah berdasarkan pada:	Tidak sama sekali			Dalam beberapa hal			Setuju sepenuhnya
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
produk paling unik atau terbaru. Fakultas saya merupakan pemimpin dan penemu produk baru.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
pengembangan sumber daya manusia, kerja tim, karyawan, komitmen, dan hal yang menyangkut orang banyak.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
memenangkan pasar dan melewati kompetisi. Kepemimpinan pasar yang kompetitif adalah hal yang sangat penting.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
efisiensi. Pengiriman yang dapat diandalkan, jadwal yang lancar, dan biaya produksi yang rendah adalah hal yang kritis.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

F. *Seberapa penting bagi Anda aspek-aspek berikut ini dalam menjalankan fakultas?*

Dalam menjalankan fakultas, kepentingan untuk…	Tidak penting sama sekali			Penting dalam beberapa hal			Sangat penting
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Terorganisir secara sangat efisien adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sesuai aturan dan prosedur adalah…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Memiliki partisipasi staf yang tinggi dalam pengambilan keputusan strategis…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Turut terhadap pengembangan pribadi staf (alternatif: memiliki staf yang setia dan berkomitmen) adalah… ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Mengembangkan rencana dengan ide dan konsep yang baru dan orisinil adalah… ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Mendukung adanya perubahan dalam fakultas adalah… ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Merangsang produktivitas staf (hasil yang lebih baik/banyak) adalah… ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Memiliki tujuan kebijakan yang jelas yang harus dipenuhi adalah… ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

G.   *Dalam pertanyaan berikut ini, kami ingin mengetahui* <u>*penilaian Anda*</u> *mengenai pendapat dan sikap akademik, dekan lain dalam universitas Anda, dan manajemen pusat universitas. Menurut Anda, bagaimana cara pandang mereka terhadap kepemimpinan dalam sebuah fakultas?*

Menurut saya, staf <u>akademik</u> di fakultas saya mengangap …	Hal sangat negatif			Netral			Hal sangat positif
	-3	**-2**	**-1**	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
• koordinasi yang kuat dan keteraturan organisasi pengajaran serta penelitian dari kepemimpinan fakultas sebagai…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• kepemimpinan fakultas yang mendukung sikap akademisi yang terarah pada pangsa pasar dan berorientasi pada hasil…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• kepemimpinan fakultas yang secara aktif memberikan rasa kebersamaan dengan pengambilan keputusan secara konsensus dan perhatian secara perorangan sebagai…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• kepemimpinan fakultas yang memiliki visi yang jelas yang mengarah kepada inovasi dan perubahan sebagai…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Menurut saya, <u>dekan lain</u> dalam universitas saya mengangap …	Hal sangat negatif			Netral			Hal sangat positif
	-3	**-2**	**-1**	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
• koordinasi yang kuat dan keteraturan organisasi pengajaran serta penelitian dari kepemimpinan fakultas sebagai…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• kepemimpinan fakultas yang mendukung sikap akademisi yang terarah pada pangsa pasar dan berorientasi pada hasil…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• kepemimpinan fakultas yang secara aktif memberikan rasa kebersamaan dengan pengambilan keputusan secara konsensus dan perhatian secara perorangan sebagai…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• kepemimpinan fakultas yang memiliki visi yang jelas yang mengarah kepada inovasi dan perubahan sebagai…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Menurut saya <u>manajemen pusat</u> universitas saya mengangap …	Hal sangat negatif			Netral			Hal sangat positif
	-3	**-2**	**-1**	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
• koordinasi yang kuat dan keteraturan organisasi pengajaran serta penelitian dari kepemimpinan fakultas sebagai…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• kepemimpinan fakultas yang mendukung sikap akademisi yang terarah pada pangsa pasar dan berorientasi pada hasil…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• kepemimpinan fakultas yang secara aktif memberikan rasa kebersamaan dengan pengambilan keputusan secara konsensus dan perhatian secara perorangan sebagai…	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
• kepemimpinan fakultas yang memiliki visi yang jelas							

yang mengarah kepada inovasi dan perubahan
sebagai…

☐ ☐   ☐   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Untuk dapat berhasil dalam posisi Anda sekarang sebagai dekan, seberapa pentingkah setiap kemampuan berikut ini?	Tidak penting sama sekali		Cukup penting			Sangat penting
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- menangani tim dalam fakultas *(membangun tim yang efektif, berkesinambungan dan berfungsi dengan baik)*
  ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- menangani hubungan antar sesame dalam fakultas *(mendengarkan dan memberikan bantuan terhadap orang lain)*
  ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- menangani pengembangan sumber daya manusia dalam fakultas *(membantu mengembangkan performa dan mendapatkan kesempatan untuk pengembangan diri bagi orang lain)*
  ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- mendukung inovasi dalam fakultas *(mendukung orang lain untuk menginovasi dan menciptakan ide baru)*
  ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- menangani masa depan fakultas *(memberikan visi masa depan yang jelas dan memfasilitasi pencapaiannya)*
  ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- menangani pengembangan dan perubahan dalam fakultas *(memberikan orientasi terhadap pengembangan terus-menerus anggota staf fakultas dalam segala yang mereka lakukan)*
  ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- menangani sisi kompetitif dari fakultas *(memberikan orientasi terhadap memenangkan kompetisi)*
  ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- menangani hasil dari fakultas *(memberikan motivasi dan semangat kepada yang lain untuk memberikan usaha lebih dan untuk memenangkan kompetisi)*managing results of the faculty
  ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- menangani bagian pelayanan *(memberikan fokus terhadap pelayanan dan keikutsertaan terhadap murid dan industri)*managing customers service
  ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- menangani kejelasan informasi dalam fakultas *(membantu yang lain untuk mengerti standar, tujuan dan kebijakan serta posisi mereka dalam fakultas)*
  ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- menangani sistem kendali fakultas *(memiliki sistem pengawasan dan penilaian untuk mencatat proses dan kinerja)*
  ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

- menangani koordinasi *(berbagi informasi dan memberikan koordinasi terhadap unit fakultas lainnya)* ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

    H.   *Di bawah ini tercantum delapan deskripsi kepemimpinan. Sejauh mana deskripsi tersebut menyerupai/ mengambarkan cara Anda menjalankan fakultas Anda.*

Sejauh mana deskripsi berikut ini mendekati mode/gaya kepemimpinan Anda dalam menjalankan fakultas sehari-hari?	Tidak mirip sama sekali		Mirip dalam beberapa hal				Benar-benar mirip
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Saya adalah orang yang berorientasi pada orang lain dan proses. Saya menangani konflik dan mencari konsensus. Pengaruh yang saya berikan adalah dengan cara mengikutsertakan orang lain dalam pengambilan keputusan strategis dan pemecahan masalah.Saya secara aktif mengejar partisipasi dari staf dan keterbukaan dalam pengambilan keputusan.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Saya adalah orang yang perhatian dan berempati. Saya tahu akan kebutuhan staf saya dan mengurus mereka. Pengaruh saya adalah berdasarkan rasa hormat satu dengan lain dan kepercayaan. Saya secara aktif mengejar moral dan komitmen yang tinggi dari staf.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Saya adalah orang yang tidak biasa dan kreatif. Saya menyetujui perubahan. Pengaruh saya adalah berdasarkan langkah untuk mencapai masa depan fakultas yang lebih baik dan memberikan harapan dalam fakultas. Saya secara aktif mengejar inovasi dan adaptasi.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Saya berpikir dengan berorientasi terhadap masa depan. Fokus saya adalah terhadap arah fakultas dan saya menekankan terhadap segala kemungkinan yang mungkin terjadi. Saya menghabiskan banyak waktu untuk pengarahan strategis dan pengembangan terus-menerus terhadap aktifitas staf fakultas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Saya ahli dalam bidang teknis dan memiliki banyak pengetahuan. Saya mencatat setiap detail dan memberikan keahlian saya. Pengaruh saya adalah berdasarkan informasi yang saya miliki. Saya secara aktif mengejar dokumentasi dan sistem manajemen informasi.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Saya dapat diandalkan. Saya menangani struktur dan aliran pekerjaan. Pengaruh saya adalah berdasarkan pengaturan jadwal dan pemberian tugas. Saya secara aktif mengejar stabilitas dan kendali dalam fakultas.　☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Saya adalah orang yang agresif dan penuh pertimbangan. Saya merasa tertantang terhadap situasi yang kompetitif. Memenangkan sesuatu adalah tujuan utama saya dan saya memiliki fokus terhadap pesaing luar dan posisi fakultas dalam pasar. Saya secara aktif mengejar tujuan dan target dari fakultas.　☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Saya adalah orang yang berorientasi pada tugas dan pekerjaan. Saya menyelesaikan segala pekerjaan dengan bekerja keras. Pengaruh saya adalah berdasarkan intensitas pekerjaan dan pendapat mengenai penyelesaian pekerjaan. Saya secara aktif mengejar produktivitas dalam fakultas.　☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Latar belakang pribadi

Nama universitas:　　　_____

Nama fakultas:　　　　　_____

Alamat surat:　　　　　　_____

Kota:　　　　　　　　　　_____

Apakah Anda:　　　　　　☐ pria atau ☐ wanita

Tahun berapa Anda lahir?　_____ *(tahun)*

Sejak kapan Anda menjabat sebagai dekan?　_____ *(tahun)*

Anda mendapatkan gelar akademis tertinggi dalam bidang (latar belakang akademis)

Pertanian	Pendidikan	Teknik	Kesehatan	Seni & kemasyarakatan	Ilmu Pengetahuan
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Ilmu sosial	Bisnis	Hukum
☐	☐	☐

Latar belakang institusi

Berapa banyak mahasiswa yang terdaftar dalam universitas Anda?

< 1.000	1.000-5.000	5.000-10.000	10.000-15.000	15.000-20.000	20.000-25.000	25.000-30.000	30.000-35.000	35.000-40.000
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

40.000-45.000	45.000-50.000	> 50.000
☐	☐	☐

Berapa banyak staf yang bekerja pada universitas Anda?

< 100	100-500	500-1000	1000-1500	1500-2000	2000-2500	2500-3000	3000-3500	3500-4000	4000-4500	4500-5000	> 5000
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Berapa banyak fakultas yang ada di universitas Anda?

< 5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	> 15
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Berapa banyak mahasiswa yang terdaftar dalam fakultas Anda?

< 1.000	1.000-5.000	5.000-10.000	10.000-15.000	15.000-20.000	20.000-25.000	25.000-30.000	30.000-35.000	35.000-40.000	40.000-45.000
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

45.000-50.000	> 50.000
☐	☐

Berapa banyak staf yang bekerja pada fakultas Anda?

< 100	100-500	500-1000	1000-1500	1500-2000	2000-2500	2500-3000	3000-3500	3500-4000	4000-4500	4500-5000	> 5000
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Terima kasih banyak atas kesediaan dan waktu Anda untuk mengisi kuesioner ini!

APPENDIX A2

A follow-up questionnaire on perceived control in English

In the next question we listed some constraints that a dean might face in running a faculty. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the statements range from 'not at all' (1) to 'very high extent' (6). Please kindly tick the box to indicate your answer.

	Not at all					Very high extent
Within my day to day work as a dean, I face the following issues:						
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
▪ 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 sufficient	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

A follow-up questionnaire on perceived control in Bahasa Indonesia

Berikut ini kami tampilkan beberapa kendala yang mungkin Anda hadapi dalam menjalankan fakultas Anda. Berikan pendapat Anda terhadap pernyataan-pernyataan dibawah ini dengan memilih angka 1 untuk pendapat "tidak sama sekali" sampai dengan angka 6 untuk pendapat "sangat sering". Berilah tanda x (silang) di dalam kotak jawaban yang tersedia.

Dalam menjalankan fakultas sebagai dekan, saya menghadapi beberapa hal seperti berikut ini:	Tidak sama sekali					Sangat sering
	1	2	3	4	5	6
▪ Sistem Informasi di dalam fakultas (seperti pengumpulan data dll) tidak terorganisir dengan baik.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ Tradisi di dalam fakultas saya sangat kuat dan hal itulah yang menyebabkan sulitnya membangun perubahan.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ Saya hanya mempunyai sedikit kesempatan (terbatas) berpartisipasi di dalam membuat keputusan strategis di manajemen pusat.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ Kultur dari fakultas sangat bertolak belakang dengan pandangan dan nilai-nilai saya dalam menjalankan fakultas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ Staf penunjang administrative tidak mempunyai kapasitas yang memadai.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ Saya merasa kecewa ketika saya kurang mumpuni dalam memimpin dan mengelola fakultas untuk menampilkan performa yang baik.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ Kekuasaan di dalam fakultas tidak jelas dan terpecahbelah.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ Fakultas yang saya pimpin sangat besar dan kompleks.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ Saya mempunyai beban kerja yang sangat besar dan banyak.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ Akademik staf di fakultas lebih mengutamakan disipliner daripada hal-hal yang menyangkut pengembangan fakultas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
▪ Bantuan (dana) dan dukungan dari manajemen pusat cukup memadai.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX B

Result of Factor Analysis for Chapter 4

Table 1 Three dimensions of perceived controls: Result of Factor analysis: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization (presented value ≥ 0.5)

	Component		
	1 (Environmental control)	2 (Internal control)	3 (Practical control)
Faculty's information systems are not well developed.	,578		,518
Academic values in my faculty are very strong and are obstructing change.	,613		
There are limited possibilities for me as a dean to make strategic decision at higher management levels.	,532		
My administrative support staff has insufficient capacity.	,628		
Support and resources from central management are sufficient.	,755		
The faculty culture is at odds with my values and views how to run a faculty.		,667	
I do not possess all the skills it takes.		,642	
Authorities within the faculty are unclear and fragmented.		,867	
Commitment and engagement of the faculty academics is low in the sense that they foremost focus on disciplinary rather than faculty matters.		,593	
Of the size and complexity of my faculty.			,875
My workload is too high.			,744

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APPENDIX C

Results of Data Analysis for Chapter 6

Table 1 Deans' self-reported behaviours on the 32 items of the CVF (*N* = 218, means, standard deviations, frequencies in %)

How frequent do you as a dean actually:

Behaviour (role)	Never	Some-times	Always	Mean	SD
Protect continuity in faculty's day-to-day operations (C)		20	80	6,3	0,8
See that the faculty delivers on stated goals (P)	1	23	76	6,3	0,9
Facilitate consensus building in decision making (F)	1	18	82	6,3	0,9
Build team work among the academic staff members (F)		19	81	6,3	0,8
Encourage participative decision making in the faculty (F)	1	21	79	6,2	0,9
Show empathy and concern in dealing with staff (ME)	1	30	70	6,1	1
Emphasize the faculty's achievements for stated purposes (P)	1	25	73	6,1	0,9
Set clear objectives for the faculty and restate and reinforce your vision of the faculty's future (D)	1	24	75	6,1	1
Define areas of responsibility for academic staff (D)	1	30	70	6,1	0,9
Make sure everyone in the faculty knows where the faculty is going (D)	1	33	67	6,0	1
Encourage staff to share ideas with you and others (F)		30	70	6,0	0,9
Search for innovations and potential improvements and encourage others to generate new ideas (I)	1	38	62	5,9	1
Work with technical data and information (MO)	1	36	63	5,9	0,9
Bring a sense of order to the faculty (C)	1	34	65	5,9	1
Focus on results and performance of academic staff (P)	1	32	67	5,9	0,9
Insist on intense hard work and high productivity and sincerely push staff to meet faculty objectives (P)	1	36	63	5,9	1
Clarify faculty policy priorities and future direction (D)	1	34	65	5,9	0,9
Review detailed reports and cross check information	1	43	57	5,8	1

Behaviour	never	sometimes	always	mean	sd
in detail (MO)					
Show concern for the needs of academic staff (ME)	1	36	63	5,8	0,9
Treat every staff member in a sensitive and caring way (ME)	2	36	61	5,8	1
Analyse written plans and schedules (MO)	1	43	56	5,7	1
Listen to personal problems of staff and make efforts to help them (ME)	3	44	54	5,7	1,2
Minimize the disruption in daily practices (C)	1	45	55	5,7	1,1
Come up with inventive ideas regarding teaching, research and management matters (I)	1	47	53	5,6	0,9
Keep a close tack of what goes on in the faculty (C)	4	44	52	5,6	1,1
Approach and consult people at the higher levels of the university (B)	2	47	50	5,5	1,1
Solve faculty problems in a creative and unconventional way (I)	3	51	46	5,4	1,1
Carefully compare records, files and reports (MO)	6	52	43	5,3	1,1
Persuasively sell new ideas to central university management (B)	5	56	39	5,2	1,1
Exert upward influence in the university (B)	7	49	44	5,2	1,2
Influence decisions at higher levels in the university (B)	7	53	40	5,2	1,2
Experiment with new concepts and procedures (I)	6	64	30	5,0	1,1

Note: scores derived from seven point scale; 'never' refers to the score 1, 2 or 3 (never, hardly ever, seldom), 'sometimes' refers to scores 4 and 5 (sometimes, often) and 'always' refers to scores 6 and 7 (almost always, always). Roles: I (innovator), B (broker), P (producer), D (director), C (coordinator), MO (monitor), F (facilitator), ME (mentor).

Table 2 Factor analysis of the eight managerial leadership roles based on the CVF (value ≥ 0.3, $p < 0.05$)

Behaviour	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
INNOVATOR 01 NEW IDEAS		,305	**,559**	,367				
INNOVATOR 02 NEW CONCEPTS & PROCEDURES	,324	**,518**	,388					
INNOVATOR 03 CREATIVE & UNCONVENTIONAL WAY		,413	**,563**					
INNOVATOR 04 INNOVATION & GENERATE IDEAS			**,647**				,440	
BROKER 01 UPWARD INFLUENCE		,785						
BROKER 02 DECISON MAKING AT HIGHER LEVEL		,855						
BROKER 03 CONSULT PEOPLE AT HIGHER LEVEL		,464			,364	,435		
BROKER 04 SELL NEW IDEAS TO CENTRAL MANAGEMENT		,701						
PRODUCER 01 FOCUS ON RESULTS	,404		,463					,302
PRODUCER 02 FACULTY STATED GOALS	,436			,620				

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
PRODUCER 03 INTENSE HARDWORK & HIGH PRODUCTIVITY			,457	,379				
PRODUCER 04 FACULTY'S ACHIEVEMENT OF STATED GOALS	,336		,503	,479				
DIRECTOR 01 AREAS OF RESPONSIBILITY	,310				,398			,507
DIRECTOR 02 OBJECTIVES & GOALS						,652		
DIRECTOR 03 CLEAR OBJECTIVE FOR FACULTY				,326		,666		
DIRECTOR 04 CLARIFY FACULTY POLICY			,519			,416		
COORDINATOR 01 CONTINUITY				,695				
COORDINATOR 02 MINIMIZE DISRUPTION	,411				,397		,487	
COORDINATOR 03 CONTROL & MONITOR SYSTEMS	,598				,338			
COORDINATOR 04 SENSE OF ORDER	,586							
MONITOR 01 REVIEW DETAIELD REPORTS	,718							
MONITOR 02 COMPARE RECORDS, FILES & REPORTS	,696	,404						
MONITOR 03 TECHNICAL DATA & INFORMATION	,478				,320	,349		
MONITOR 04 WRITTEN PLANS & SCHEDULES	,608							
FACILITATOR 01 CONSENSUS BUILDING								,859
FACILITATOR 02 PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING		,350		,424			,559	
FACILITATOR 03 SHARE IDEAS			,402				,694	
FACILITATOR 04 TEAMWORK				,629				
MENTOR 01 LISTEN TO PERSONAL PROBLEMS					,756			
MENTOR 02 EMPHATY & CONCERN					,595			
MENTOR 03 SENSITIVE & CARING WAY					,633	,387		
MENTOR 04 CONCERN FOR THE NEEDS OF ACADEMICS			,451	,348	,530			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 21 iterations.

Note: Theoretically, the four items of the innovator role (in bold) should be in one component.

Table 3 Factor analysis of the four dimensions based on the CVF (value ≥ 0.3, $p < 0.05$)

Behaviour	Component			
	1	2	3	4
INNOVATOR 01 NEW IDEAS		**,595**		
INNOVATOR 02 NEW CONCEPTS & PROCEDURES		,374		**,559**
INNOVATOR 03 CREATIVE & UNCONVENTIONAL WAY		**,436**	,305	,421
INNOVATOR 04 INNOVATION & GENERATE IDEAS		**,730**		
BROKER 01 UPWARD INFLUENCE				**,762**
BROKER 02 DECISON MAKING AT HIGHER LEVEL				**,855**
BROKER 03 CONSULT PEOPLE AT HIGHER LEVEL			,434	**,515**
BROKER 04 SELL NEW IDEAS TO CENTRAL MANAGEMENT				**,719**
PRODUCER 01 FOCUS ON RESULTS	,479	,442		
PRODUCER 02 FACULTY STATED GOALS	,685			
PRODUCER 03 INTENSE HARDWORK & HIGH PRODUCTIVITY	,371	,582		
PRODUCER 04 FACULTY'S ACHIEVEMENT OF STATED GOALS	,559	,511		
DIRECTOR 01 AREAS OF RESPONSIBILITY	,467		,540	
DIRECTOR 02 OBJECTIVES & GOALS	,403		,362	
DIRECTOR 03 CLEAR OBJECTIVE FOR FACULTY	,478	,371		
DIRECTOR 04 CLARIFY FACULTY POLICY	,440	,533		
COORDINATOR 01 CONTINUITY	,549			
COORDINATOR 02 MINIMIZE DISRUPTION	,314		,428	,317
COORDINATOR 03 CONTROL & MONITOR SYSTEMS	,542			
COORDINATOR 04 SENSE OF ORDER	,660		,321	
MONITOR 01 REVIEW DETAIELD REPORTS	,706			
MONITOR 02 COMPARE RECORDS, FILES & REPORTS	,673			,451
MONITOR 03 TECHNICAL DATA & INFORMATION	,590		,397	
MONITOR 04 WRITTEN PLANS & SCHEDULES	,677			
FACILITATOR 01 CONSENSUS BUILDING			,341	
FACILITATOR 02 PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING		,322		,341
FACILITATOR 03 SHARE IDEAS		,672		
FACILITATOR 04 TEAMWORK	,558	,423		
MENTOR 01 LISTEN TO PERSONAL PROBLEMS			,730	
MENTOR 02 EMPHATY & CONCERN	,303		,635	
MENTOR 03 SENSITIVE & CARING WAY			,667	
MENTOR 04 CONCERN FOR THE NEEDS OF ACADEMICS	,361	,424	,505	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Note: Theoretically, the four items of the innovator role and the broker role (in bold) should be in one component.

Table 4 Factor analysis of the two leadership roles within the clan quadrant of CVF (value ≥ 0.5, p < 0.05)

Clan quadrant (upper-left)

Behaviour	Component	
	1	2
FACILITATOR 01 CONSENSUS BUILDING		,525
MENTOR 01 LISTEN TO PERSONAL PROBLEMS	,808	
FACILITATOR 02 PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING		,768
MENTOR 02 EMPHATY & CONCERN	,670	
FACILITATOR 03 SHARE IDEAS		,774
MENTOR 04 CONCERN FOR THE NEEDS OF ACADEMICS	,703	
FACILITATOR 04 TEAMWORK		,596
MENTOR 03 SENSITIVE & CARING WAY	,725	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Table 5 Factor analysis of the two leadership roles within the adhocracy quadrant of CVF (value ≥ 0.5, p < 0.05)

Adhocracy quadrant (upper-right)

Behaviour	Component	
	1	2
INNOVATOR 01 NEW IDEAS		,734
BROKER 01 UPWARD INFLUENCE	,812	
INNOVATOR 02 NEW CONCEPTS & PROCEDURES		,641
BROKER 02 DECISON MAKING AT HIGHER LEVEL	,811	
BROKER 03 CONSULT PEOPLE AT HIGHER LEVEL	,626	
INNOVATOR 03 CREATIVE & UNCONVENTIONAL WAY	,	,643
INNOVATOR 04 INNOVATION & GENERATE IDEAS		,803
BROKER 04 SELL NEW IDEAS TO CENTRAL MANAGEMENT	,761	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Table 6 Factor analysis of the two leadership roles within the market quadrant of CVF (value ≥ 0.5, p < 0.05)

Market quadrant (lower-right)

Behaviour	Component	
	1	2
PRODUCER 01 FOCUS ON RESULTS	,676	
DIRECTOR 01 AREAS OF RESPONSIBILITY		,874
DIRECTOR 02 OBJECTIVES & GOALS		,747
PRODUCER 02 FACULTY STATED GOALS	,538	,520
DIRECTOR 03 CLEAR OBJECTIVE FOR FACULTY	,678	
PRODUCER 03 INTENSE HARDWORK & HIGH PRODUCTIVITY	,813	
DIRECTOR 04 CLARIFY FACULTY POLICY	,728	
PRODUCER 04 FACULTY'S ACHIEVEMENT OF STATED GOALS	,773	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Table 7 Factor analysis of the two leadership roles within the hierarchy quadrant of CVF (value ≥ 0.5, p < 0.05)

Hierarchy quadrant (lower-left)

Behaviour	Component	
	1	2
COORDINATOR 01 CONTINUITY		,854
MONITOR 01 REVIEW DETAIELD REPORTS	,760	
COORDINATOR 02 MINIMIZE DISRUPTION	,597	
MONITOR 02 COMPARE RECORDS, FILES & REPORTS	,799	
COORDINATOR 03 CONTROL & MONITOR SYSTEMS	,697	
COORDINATOR 04 SENSE OF ORDER	,632	
MONITOR 04 WRITTEN PLANS & SCHEDULES		,650
MONITOR 03 TECHNICAL DATA & INFORMATION		,606

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Table 8 Classification of deans who have similar patterns of emphasis on the eight leadership roles of the CVF: Reports of two step cluster analysis (*N* = 218, Distance likelihood, number of cluster auto, 15 BIC)

Cluster		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	21	9.6	9.6	9.6
	2	23	10.6	10.6	20.2
	3	14	6.4	6.4	26.6
	4	13	6.0	6.0	32.6
	5	8	3.7	3.7	36.2
	6	13	6.0	6.0	42.2
	7	11	5.0	5.0	47.2
	8	11	5.0	5.0	52.3
	9	28	12.8	12.8	65.1
	10	22	10.1	10.1	75.2
	11	14	6.4	6.4	81.7
	12	13	6.0	6.0	87.6
	13	11	5.0	5.0	92.7
	14	16	7.3	7.3	100.0
	Total	218	100.0	100.0	

Table 9 Classification of deans who have similar patterns of emphasis on the eight leadership roles of the CVF: Reports of two step cluster analysis (*N* = 218, Distance likelihood, number of cluster fixed 8)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	38	17.4	17.4	17.4
	2	23	10.6	10.6	28.0
	3	21	9.6	9.6	37.6
	4	29	13.3	13.3	50.9
	5	30	13.8	13.8	64.7
	6	28	12.8	12.8	77.5
	7	35	16.1	16.1	93.6
	8	14	6.4	6.4	100.0
	Total	218	100.0	100.0	

Table 10 Classification of deans who have similar patterns of emphasis on the eight leadership roles of the CVF: Reports of two step cluster analysis (*N* = 218, Distance likelihood, number of cluster fixed 4)

Cluster		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	81	37.2	37.2	37.2
	2	44	20.2	20.2	57.3
	3	53	24.3	24.3	81.7
	4	40	18.3	18.3	100.0
	Total	218	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX D

Results of Data Analysis for Chapter 7

Table 1 Dean's behavioural beliefs with respect to the eight managerial leadership roles: Reports of descriptive statistics [$N = 218$, means, standard deviation (*SD*)]

Behavioural beliefs with respect to	Mean*	SD
Facilitator role	6.36	0.69
Coordinator role	6.22	0.78
Director role	6.20	0.68
Innovator role	6.18	0.82
Monitor role	6.05	0.79
Producer role	6.03	0.80
Broker role	5.99	0.85
Mentor role	5.59	0.98

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

Table 1 indicates that the deans hold positive behavioural beliefs on the eight managerial leadership roles (the mean values were ranging from 5.59 to 6.36). The deans, to a large extent, believe that facilitator role is more important than other roles.

Table 2 Deans' evaluation of outcome with respect to the eight managerial leadership roles: Reports of descriptive statistics [means, standard deviations (*SD*)]

Evaluation of outcome (with respect to)	Mean*	SD	N
Stimulating staff's productivity (producer role)	6.51	0.74	218
Having clear objectives (director role)	6.50	0.70	218
Being organized in the most efficient way (coordinator role)	6.41	0.81	218
Promoting change (innovator role)	6.33	0.83	218
Having high level of staff participation in strategic decision making (facilitator role)	6.30	0.84	218

Compliance with rules and procedures (monitor role)	6.27	0.86	217
Developing new ideas & concepts (broker role)	6.08	0.97	217
Contributing to staff's development (mentor role)	6.00	1.01	218

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

Table 2 shows that the deans evaluate importantly all the eight managerial leadership roles, indicated by the mean values which are greater than or equal to 6.00 (out of 7.00). However, the deans are extremely certain that stimulating staff's productivity is very important for them to manage a faculty.

Table 3 Deans' normative beliefs: Reports of descriptive statistics [N = 216, means, standard deviations (*SD*)]

Q: I think that the academics of my faculty / the other deans of my university / the central management like to see …								
Important referents	Four aspects of faculty leadership							
	Clear visions that embraces innovation and change		Market-driven and results-oriented behavior of academics		Strong coordination and detailed organization of teaching and research		Sense of collectivity with consensual decision-making and much personal attention	
	*M**	*SD*	*M**	*SD*	*M**	*SD*	*M**	*SD*
Faculty academics	2.65	0.7	2.32	0.86	2.46	0.81	2.35	0.95
Central management	2.50	0.83	2.37	0.84	2.41	0.87	2.19	0.98
Fellow-deans	2.43	0.80	2.19	0.91	2.34	0.92	2.20	0.98

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

Table 3 shows that Indonesian deans believe that all the three important referents think that having clear visions that embraces innovation and changes (adhocracy) is the most positive aspect of faculty leadership.

Table 4 The dean's motivation to comply: Reports of descriptive statistics (N = 216, Mean, *SD*, in %)

Q: To what extent are the views and opinions of faculty academics, central management and fellow deans important to you for the way in which you run your faculty?					
Important referents	Important to limited extent	Important to some extent	Extremely important	Mean*	*SD*

Faculty academics	-	21.3	78.7	6.24	0.92
Central management	1.4	41.5	67.1	5.82	1.09
Other deans	5.5	60.6	33.8	4.95	1.22

Note: *Mean scores range from (1) 'never' to (7) 'extremely important'. Groups are defined on the basis of average score, 'not important to limited extent' refers to the Likert scale (never, hardly ever, seldom); 'important to some extent' refers to the Likert scale (to some extent, to a large extent), and 'extremely important' refers to the Likert scale (mostly, extremely important).

Table 4 shows that the beliefs and opinions of the academics for the way in which the faculty is run matter the most to the deans, followed by the central management, and the fellow deans.

APPENDIX E

Comparative Result Between SmartPLS and Statistics.

Table 1 Comparison between SmartPLS and Multiple Regression ($N = 215$)

Effects of attitude (A) and subjective norm (SN) upon the master style: **Reports of SmartPLS** ($N = 215$; 1,000 resamples; t-value ≥ 1.96, p ≤ 0.05).					Effects of attitude (A) and subjective norm (SN) upon the master style: **Reports of multiple linear regression** ($N = 215$, p < 0.05).				
Relationship	Beta	t-Value	R	R^2	Relationship	Beta	t-Value	R	R^2
A -> Master style	+0.60*	7.17			A -> Master style	+0.57*	8.63		
SN -> Master style	+0.02	0.30			SN -> Master style	+0.03	0.44		
			0.60	0.36				0.59	0.34

Table 1 shows that there is a difference in the results, however, the difference is only slight.