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“Conceptualisation of the Leading Manager Theory in Higher Education Institutions: Insights from Servant Leadership”

Being A Thesis Submitted To:

The University of Huddersfield in Partial Fulfilment for the Requirements of the Award for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Department of People, Management and Organisations
University of Huddersfield Business School
Queensgate, United Kingdom

By:

Adobi Jessica Timiyo

September, 2016
Abstract

Managing Higher Education Institutions, during periods of change and transformation, can be daunting; and calls for good leadership principles within these institutions. Unfortunately, there are no particular leadership principles by which Higher Education Institutions can effectively be managed. Servant leadership might possibly bridge this gap. Hence, this study seeks to develop and thus, present a leadership theory for the effective administration of Higher Education Institutions. Informed by an interpretivist philosophical paradigm, the study adopted grounded theory research design to purposively collect data among twenty-five leaders in nine Higher Education Institutions in England and Scotland through a semi-structured, but well-adjusted interview schedule. The data was transcribed verbatim, coded to identify core categories, and further analysed using NVivo 10, first and second order modified Prasad (1993) concept card. Based on work motivation and Upper Echelon theories, the study provides empirical evidences that the leadership narrative in Higher Education Institutions is inconsistent, yet quite fascinating. Five leadership orientations—assertive, defensive, subjective, positional and systemic, as well as five leadership practices—diversity, professionalism, open door policy, creative thinking and servant leadership principles, were identified from the data. A total of eleven servant leadership principles were found, which are accountability, awareness, communication, empathy, exemplary leading, fore-sight/vision, integrity/honesty, mentoring/pastoral care, Personal and Professional Development (PPD), self-sacrificing, and trust/humility. While most of the principles are similar to those identified from previous studies, Personal and Professional Development is quite significant to this study. Participants also suggested three leadership taxonomies—blended, collegial and contextual leadership approaches, needed for the effective management of Higher Education Institutions. However, contrary to previous research findings, collegial leadership was the most preferred among the three approaches. Beyond extending and advancing research on servant leadership and Higher Education Institutions, this study presents the Leading Manager Theory to demonstrate the complexity of managing the institutions. It uniquely combines two different theories to gain contextual knowledge and understanding of servant leadership. The study has theoretical, practical and societal implications.

**Keywords** - Servant leadership, Leading Manager Theory, Personal and Professional Development, blended leadership, collegial leadership, contextual leadership
Declaration of Originality

I certify here that, to the best of my knowledge, all aspects of this research are original and exclusively the ideas of the author. The author deemed it necessary to have clearly referenced, in order to acknowledge, all published and/or unpublished thoughts, and ideas in line with the standard referencing style (APA) of the University of Huddersfield.

ADOBI JESSICA TIMIYO

(June, 2016)
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Dedication

To God Almighty, unto whom I live, move and have my being; to my late mother, Ogeteime-ere Timiyo, who demonstrated to me, at an early age, that knowledge is power; and to my lovely children, Tonye and Disemo — for giving me a thousand and one reasons never to give up in my quest for knowledge.
## Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BAM</td>
<td>British Association of Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BDN</td>
<td>Black Doctoral Network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAQDAS</td>
<td>Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEOs</td>
<td>Chief Executive Officers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CGT</td>
<td>Constructivist Grounded Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMI</td>
<td>Chartered Management Institute</td>
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<tr>
<td>FE</td>
<td>Further Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLOBE</td>
<td>Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GT</td>
<td>Grounded Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HE</td>
<td>Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEIs</td>
<td>Higher Education Institutions</td>
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<tr>
<td>HOD</td>
<td>Head Of Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILA</td>
<td>International Leadership Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMT</td>
<td>Leading Manager Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEFCE</td>
<td>Higher Education Funding Council for England</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIV</td>
<td>New International Version</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSS</td>
<td>National Student Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>Organisational Citizenship Behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPD</td>
<td>Personal and Professional Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QA</td>
<td>Quality Assurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REF</td>
<td>Research Excellence Framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>Servant Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLI</td>
<td>Servant Leadership Instrument</td>
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<tr>
<td>SU</td>
<td>Student Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEF</td>
<td>Teaching Excellence Framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TFT</td>
<td>Two Factor Theory</td>
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<tr>
<td>TM</td>
<td>Team Membership</td>
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<tr>
<td>TMT</td>
<td>Top Management Team</td>
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<tr>
<td>UET</td>
<td>Upper Echelon Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>United States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VC</td>
<td>Vice Chancellor</td>
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Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION

Despite being the oldest phenomena in human history, leadership has never ceased to gain significant attention in academia, especially in the last few decades (Bowman, 1997). As a core managerial function, leadership exists in all types of institutions, and all human-oriented activities (Van Vugt, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2008). Its significance can be traced to the role it plays in organisations’ performance as it supposedly defines the success and/or failure of most organisations. While some organisations often depend on good leadership to strengthen their competitive positions (Spain, 2014) within an industry, others have used it to minimise negative effects from the global economic crisis (Hossain, 2011). Effective leadership is usually defined from a traditional point of view, particularly, with respect to how certain individuals, believed to have possessed some sort of unique attributes or skills, decide others’ courses of actions (Crevani, Lindgren, & Packendorff, 2010; Smircich & Morgan, 1982; Wood, 2005), within a group.

Based on this understanding, leadership is viewed as the ability of people to shape the behaviour of other people around them in order to achieve some predetermined objectives (Ciulla, 2003). Alternatively, it can also be defined as “the process whereby one or more individuals succeed in attempting to frame and define the reality of others” (Smircich & Morgan, 1982, p. 258). These definitions seems to suggest that leadership is an influential process whereby an individual directs other team members towards the attainment of common objectives (Stogdill, 1950). They further suggest that earlier definitions of leadership were more or less about exercising authority and power of one person (the leader) over others (the followers), than on fostering and maintaining strong relationships between leaders and followers. Thus, power and authority played significant roles in the earliest leadership discourses.

These two concepts (power and authority) were the mediums through which leaders perform their statutory obligations to group members. Lately, the idea of exploring leadership using the leader as a focal point is no longer appealing in academia. Presently, there are calls for researchers to start viewing leadership as an interactive process, which is made up of leaders, followers, and the social context where leadership occurs (Brungardt, 1998). Rost (1993) on the other hand, sees leadership as a social influential process that explores the leader and follower dyad. As a social process, leadership emerges from the
socially constructed interactive process among a group of people with common underlying objectives (Smircich & Morgan, 1982). These definitions suggest that rather than moving towards a consensus over the years, the concept of leadership is becoming increasingly dis-oriented (Bolden & Petrov, 2014).

However, from the social process perspective, the leader-follower dyad is of great importance within the leadership narrative. Consequently, contemporary leadership theories often pay close attention to this unique relationship as leadership discussions continue to revolve around “servant and transformational thinking” (Hadj-Hamou, 2015, p. 343). Servant leadership is one leadership theory that describes leaders’ tendency of placing followers’ interests far and above theirs (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012). The servant leadership ideology seems to coincide with the agenda of most business entities since the role of business is to serve the interest of its numerous stakeholders (Porter, 2014). Mainstream research (Donia, Raja, Panaccio, & Wang, 2016; O'Reilly, Doerr, Caldwell, & Chatman, 2014) has shown that leaders in business organisations hardly place the interests of stakeholders above theirs.

The situation is not different among Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in United Kingdom (UK), particularly with the recent move by government towards marketisation of these institutions (Newman & Jahdi, 2009). As service providers HEIs, including universities and colleges in United Kingdom, constitute a greater percentage of the country’s industrial population (Jones, Harvey, Lefoe, & Ryland, 2014). These institutions are instrumental towards boosting the economy of most countries (UK, 2015), consequently their success is a major concern to the leadership of these institutions (Casey, Brinton, & Gonzalez, 2009; Harnesk & Abrahamsson, 2007). Leaders within this sector are often saddled with the responsibility of competing to attract students, both national and international students (Douglas, Douglas, & Barnes, 2006), while at the same time trying to establish “its role in building leadership capacity and capability” (Stefani, 2015, p. 2161).

Research (Bryman & Lilley, 2009; Lumby, 2012; Wheeler, 2012) has shown that, to survive environmental fluxes within the higher educational sector, there is a need for these institutions to seek alternative leadership approaches. Servant leadership is one leadership approach, which fosters change and transformative agenda in an organisation (Dickson & Tholl, 2014) including Higher Education Institutions (Bryan & Wilson, 2014; Bryman &
Lilley, 2009; Lumby, 2012), whose complexity can be addressed by adopting servant leadership principles (Baldomir & Hood, 2016; Gowdy, 2015). Drawing insights from upper echelon and work motivational theories, this interpretive study offers empirical and compelling evidences that servant leadership is being practiced among leaders in Higher Education Institutions.

The underlying assumption behind the upper echelon theory suggests that organisational outcomes are determined by people who are in the position to make strategic decisions (Hambrick & Mason, 1984) whereas, motivational theories are grounded on the basis that individuals’ behaviour at the workplace is shaped by specific inner drives, often referred to as motives (Latham & Pinder, 2005). By empirically examining leaders accounts, this thesis advocates for HEIs to become servant leaders, not just to students, but to all relevant stakeholders including parents, government and the larger society (Davies, Hides, & Casey, 2001). The thesis is undertaken, in such a time as this, to address the urgent need for increased research on servant leadership within the education sector (Bryan & Wilson, 2014; Lumby, 2012).

1.1 Problem Statement

The “overriding challenge for Higher Education, apart from funding cuts and uncertainties, is to achieve a sustainable balance between academic freedom and scholarship and business managerialism” (Gill, 2011, p. 38). Hence, organisations are increasingly searching for leadership approaches that are more relational and less individualistic (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009) so as to maintain sustainability in these organisations. Even so, the search for good leadership principles in HEIs is rather slow (Polleys, 2002 cited in Greenleaf, 1969). The on-going leadership research (Mayer & Surtee, 2015; Stefani, 2015; Tierney, 1988; Wheeler, 2012) in Higher Education Institutions suggests that this area has not been fully explored. Studies (Lumby, 2012; Wheeler, 2012) have shown that these institutions need good leadership principles needed for their effective management (Bryman & Lilley, 2009).

Studies (Dorfman et al., 2012; Joseph & Winston, 2005; Mittal & Dorfman, 2012) have shown that servant leadership has great prospects in addressing contemporary leadership issues in different types of organisations, ranging from private, public, profit and not-for-profit organisations. The same is true for Higher Education Institutions. However, even
though servant leadership seems to have great potential for these institutions (Amey, 2006; Crippen, 2004) the concept is not yet extensively explored within the sector. Two main factors might be responsible for the lack of research on Higher Education Institutions and servant leadership. First is the contestable nature of leadership research among scholars thus, instead of building consensus, research on leadership tends to be disintegrating (Bolden & Petrov, 2014). The second reason is researchers’ inability to fully comprehend and address complex issues in these institutions such as diversity (Hogg, Van Knippenberg, & Rast, 2012). Thus, emphasizing the need for HEIs to effectively connect leadership and teaching to research and students’ outcomes (Lumby, 2012), which further increases their level of complexity.

The complexity of leading Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) towards change and transformation within a dynamic business environment can sometimes be overwhelming, and calls for a viable leadership approach. Many studies (Panaccio, Donia, Saint-Michel, & Liden, 2015; Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012) have questioned the nexus between servant leadership and organisations’ performance. These studies did investigate the connection between servant leadership and tangible organisational outcomes such as job withdrawal intentions of employees (Le Ng, Choi, & Soehod, 2016), organisational commitment (Lee, Lee, Kim, Park, & Sung, 2015), customer value co-creation (Hsiao, Lee, & Chen, 2015), high performing organisations (de Waal & Sivro, 2012), and job satisfaction (Cerit, 2009).

Another group of scholars (Panaccio et al., 2015) explored servant leadership and its impact on intangible organisational outcomes such as the well-being of employees and other stakeholders of the organisation. Few studies (Peterson et al., 2012) have also examined the determinants of servant leadership behavioural patterns in different organisational settings. Yet there is still insufficient research regarding servant leadership (Panaccio et al., 2015) particularly, within the Higher Education sector. More importantly, no study seems to have developed an appropriate leadership theory for the proper management of these institutions. Apart from these, there are divergent opinions concerning the composition of leaders in the Higher Education sector (Crippen, 2004; Lumby, 2012; Wheeler, 2012) particularly with regards to who are leaders in the sector.

A good number of studies (Mayer & Surtee, 2015; Stefani, 2015; Tierney, 1988; Wheeler, 2012), exploring servant leadership and Higher Education Institutions, did so without necessarily elucidating the composition of leaders in the sector. This may not be
unconnected with the existing separate, yet interdependent “sub-cultures in Higher Education Institutions- academic and administrative” (Gill, 2011, p. 54). In view of these, managing these institutions might be very challenging, in the sense that the more factors an organisation contends within its external environment, the more complex it becomes for leaders to pilot these organisations to an enviable future. This thesis will address these knowledge gaps, from an interpretivist philosophical position, informed by a constructivist grounded theory research strategy.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

Through a detailed description of Higher Education Institutions’ leadership practices, this thesis seeks to develop and present a leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions, which demonstrates the complexity of managing the institutions.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This thesis provides a vivid and empirical account of servant leadership as practiced in Higher Education Institutions and, the following five objectives are intended to help realise the purpose of the study.

1.3.1 To identify leaders in Higher Education Institutions.

This objective has the tendency to unravel the composition of leaders within Higher Education Institutions. It helped to address issues concerning whether leaders fall within the academic category of staff or within the administrative unit, or perhaps, a combination of both categories of staff. Also, it might be interesting to know how academics and administrative staffs of HEIs understand the composition of leaders in this sector. Therefore, a thorough investigation of the opinions of those who work within this sector is relevant towards unravelling this mystery.

1.3.2 To describe their leadership orientations.

This objective is intended to clarify some of the widely held beliefs about the leadership narrative in Higher Education Institutions. One such belief is that, HEIs lack a unified leadership approach since they consists of two separate, but yet interdependent cultures (Lumby, 2012). Thus, the outcome of this investigation could arguably challenge the traditional misconceptions of leaders, as those having the sole power and authority to
oversee the affairs of others in organisations. Particularly, while trying to explain how each cultures, academics and administration, view and interpret the concept of leadership

1.3.3 To identify existing leadership practices in Higher Education Institutions.

This objective is set to explore existing leadership approaches in HEIs. A recent study by Dickson and Tholl (2014) enjoins leaders within Canadian health sector to focus on structural and socio-cultural alignment in order to overcome the traditionally-driven rudiments of leading. While these suggestions seem plausible in addressing leadership issues within the Canadian health care sector, there might be parallel implications of this study on Higher Education Institutions within the UK context. This is because both Higher Education Institutions and the health sector share similar characteristics in terms of their bureaucratic, complex and dynamic nature. This is as a result of differences in the organisations’ performance indicators. Likewise, the performance indicators in HEIs are significantly different from those in other types of organisations (Middlehurst, Goreham, & Woodfield, 2009).

1.3.4 To conceptualise a viable leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions

An understanding of the Leading Manager Theory will enhance general and contextual knowledge of servant leadership, as demonstrated by leaders in HEIs for the purpose of advancing servant leadership research and Higher Education Institutions. Based on the understanding that there are many avenues for gaining insights to the discovery of new theories (Shoemaker, Tankard Jr, & Lasorsa, 2004). One of such avenues is through the application of grounded theory research strategy, whose main purpose allows for the emergence of theories from field data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), that forms the methodological approach of this thesis. Whether or not, Higher Education Institutions’ leadership practices are consistent with the servant leadership approach, could arguably encourage leaders within these institutions to see service as a key ingredient to leading.

Furthermore, as agents of change, Higher Education Institutions are responsible for defining and shaping positive work-related behaviour among employees, including other Higher Education Institutions’ stakeholders. There are indications that HEIs’ leaders are advocating for a supportive culture involving the collaboration of every stakeholder to be fully engaged in the management of these institutions (Bryan & Wilson, 2014). Servant leadership might be the medium for achieving this goal, in line with Bass (2000)
suggestion that servant leadership might likely be an alternative way of exploring the leadership narrative of Higher Education Institutions. This objective can arguably serve as acid-test to know if indeed servant leadership has prospects for Higher Education Institutions as shown from existing literature (Amey, 2006; Crippen, 2004; Wheeler, 2012).

1.3.5 To suggest leadership approach (es) suitable for managing HEIs.

This objective intends to understand the nature of an appropriate leadership style which might be suitable for managing Higher Education Institutions, especially in this era of global economic meltdown. Basically, particular recommendations from those regarded as leaders within these institutions might present a very interesting dialogue. Hence, the objective is set to address two main issues of concern in this thesis. One, it will unravel why the leadership research in Higher Education Institutions is increasingly becoming so disoriented as proposed by Lumby (2012), rather than integrating. Two, the objective will also investigate if it might be possible to have a consensus regarding an appropriate leadership style for the management of Higher Education Institutions.

1.4 Background of the Study

The growing interest in leadership among management theorists, and practitioners alike, is arguably based on certain assumptions. One of which is the belief that effective leadership is a prerequisite to the success of an organisation (Dignam et al., 2012; Stoller, 2009). Some scholars believe that as long as expected styles of leadership varies with actual styles, the search for effective leadership approaches is bound to continue (Cleary, Horsfall, Deacon, & Jackson, 2011). While others attributed the popularity of leadership to the effects of modernization and the poor state of traditional leadership theories. Modernization, which reflects the era in which we now live, characterized by constant environmental fluxes, has popularized leadership so much that the word ‘organisation’ is now synonymous with leadership (Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Changes occur on a daily basis thus, demanding organisations’ leaders to strategically position their organisations in ways that will enable them take advantage of opportunities and/or overcome threats.

Building on his seminal work, Greenleaf (1996) stated emphatically that “we live in an age in which there is much talk about leading” (Greenleaf & Spears, 1998, p. 163). Another possible reason is that traditional leadership theories seem incapable of solving today’s
leadership challenges because these theories have become obsolete due to time and changes that occur in the business environment. Thus, suggesting that they are less effective when applied to solve today’s leadership issues (Hunter, 2004). Servant leadership is an effective leadership concept capable of addressing contemporary leadership issues, and often emphasizes that leaders pursue the interest of followers far above their own interests as leaders (Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004). In a servant leadership environment, followers become committed to the vision and aspiration of the organisation. It ensures that followers are encouraged to develop and grow successfully (Van Dierendonck, 2011). Servant leadership behaviour is that which promotes the good of followers as opposed to leaders’ self-interests (Hale & Fields, 2007).

The implication of this is that the leader’s sole responsibility is to serve first and foremost. Thus, the leader is a servant and takes the lead to perform such obligations to exemplify good stewardship. The concept was first popularized in 1970 by the works of Robert Greenleaf, who later became known as father of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 2002). In describing servant leadership, Greenleaf (2002) offered a litmus test with which the effectiveness of servant leaders can be measured. He suggested that if those being led feel contented, healthy and fulfilled, then servant leadership is obviously in place, and is effective in addressing leadership-related crisis. Servant leadership proposes that the leader is primarily a servant to those that are being led. The tendency for leaders to wanting to serve first before assuming leadership positions is what servant leadership advocates (Greenleaf, 2002; Smith et al., 2004). Leaders who exhibit this behaviour encourage followers to grow (Van Dierendonck, 2011) and develop skills that are beneficial to themselves and the organisation at large.

1.5 Methodology Overview

Informed by an interpretivist philosophical position, this thesis adopted the constructivist grounded theory research strategy to address the issues of concern. Grounded theory involves the generation of new theories, testing and/or reinforcing existing theories from field or primary data (Glaser, 1978, 1999; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Whereas, constructivist grounded theory constructivist suggests that theories and knowledge are co-created by researchers and the participants of a study (Charmaz, 2006, 2008; Seidel & Urquhart, 2013). This is quite possible particularly when the purpose of the study is to advance and/or extend existing theories (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).
Besides lending itself to the inductive approach of collecting and analysing data (Bryman & Bell, 2011) the constructivist grounded theory version avails researchers the opportunity to focus more on the phenomenon being studied, than the processes involved in studying it (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). By adopting the constructivist grounded theory, this thesis argues that generating new theories is just as important as testing or reinforcing old theories. It further relied on convenience, snowball and theoretical sampling techniques to obtain data from twenty-five leaders, drawn from nine institutions in England and Scotland using in-depth semi-structured but well-adjusted interview schedule. The data was then transcribed verbatim, coded and further analysed using NVivo 10, First and Second Order modified Prasad (1993) concept card.

1.6 Definition of Key Terms

Some key terms, as used in this study, are hereby defined:

1. *Blended leadership*: a leadership style that emphasizes on leaders’ ability to reconcile competing and often incompatible dichotomies (Coleman, 2011; Collinson & Collinson, 2009).

2. *Collegial leadership*: refers to a situation where “decisions are taken in common by a small, face-to-face body with no single member dominating their initiation or determination” (Baylis, 1989, p. 7).

3. *Contextual leadership*: an approach that suggests that leadership effectiveness is dependent on the context in which leadership occurs (Osborn, Hunt, & Jauch, 2002; Osborn & Marion, 2009).

4. *Effective leadership*: a leadership approach that is built around two opposing philosophies— service to people and service to the organisation (Taylor, Martin, Hutchinson, & Jinks, 2007).

5. *Leadership*: an influential process, which emerges from constant social interactions between an individual and a group of people (Smircich & Morgan, 1982).

6. *Leading Manager Theory*: suggests that, regardless of their staff status, leaders in Higher Education Institutions perform both leadership and managerial duties concurrently.
Management: deals with the tasks and processes involved in planning, organising, directing, staffing, co-ordinating and accounting for organisations’ resources (Bush, 2008).

Personal and professional development: activities, such as trainings, workshops and conferences, used by HEIs’ leaders to encourage employees’ self-development.

Servant leadership: an all-inclusive, dynamic and on-going leadership construct where leaders’ inclination to lead is born out of their desire to serve.

Top Management Team: people who are often involved in strategic decision-making consistent with the upper echelon theory (Hambrick & Mason, 1984).

1.7 Outline of the Thesis

This thesis began by highlighting the entire research process in the form of an abstract, before adopting the Socratic framework to explain the entire research journey of this research in chapter 1, which contains the general introduction of the thesis. The chapter clearly stated the purpose, problem and objectives of the thesis before highlighting background of the study, methodological choices and definition of key terms used in this study. It ends with an outline of the entire thesis. Chapter 2, on the other hand, deals with relevant literature that was reviewed during the course of the research. The literature specifically explored, in chronological order, the past, present and future debates surrounding servant leadership in different organisational settings. The chapter examined Robert Greenleaf’s initial conceptualisation of the construct with respect to contemporary views while at the same time highlighting leadership research in Higher Education Institutions.

It further presents an account of how the activities of UK Higher Education Institutions have impacted the country’s economy. The chapter proceeds towards addressing with two main theories guiding this study, which are motivational (Hertzberg Two-factor Theory) and the Upper Echelon Theory (UET). Many motivational studies have been conducted over the years, to understand employees’ behaviour at the workplace; none has examined servant leadership in conjunction with the upper echelon theory. Upper echelon theorists are of the opinion that leaders are in the best position to effect strategic changes in an organisation by reason of the position they occupy within the hierarchy of that
organisation. The chapter ends by providing rationale for using theories in this study, as this seems to violate the ethos of classical grounded theory.

Chapter 3 offers detailed and systematic approach at addressing the methodology of this study. It begins by expounding the research design before proceeding to explore the different versions of the research strategy (grounded theory). The chapter further reveals the researcher’s philosophical ethos (ontology), which to a large extent, informs and bridges the gap between what is known and what remains to be known about leadership research. This was followed by a descriptive account of the entire journey and identity of the research. The chapter also presents an account of leaders in HEIs by looking at students’ representative opinions in a pilot study. An account of data collection/ analytical processes, population of study, participants’ demographics, legitimacy of the research, ethics, and role of the researcher was also provided in this chapter.

Chapter 4 on the other hand, deals with data presentation and analysis. Data derived from the study was specifically presented using excerpts from participants’ interview transcripts, tables and figures. Whereas, analysis was done using transcribe software, NVivo 10 Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) and, a modified version of Prasad (1993) concept card. Essentially, the analysis was done in line with key components of grounded theory, which include theoretical sensitivity of the researcher, coding/identification of core categories, theoretical sampling, and memo-ing.

Chapter 5 mainly addresses all the five objectives of the study. One major aspect of this chapter is the conceptualisation of the Leading Manager Theory (LMT), which eventually became the crux of this study. It was addressed as part of the fourth objective of the thesis. The chapter also examined perceived and potential weaknesses of the Leading Manager Theory. Chapter 6 provides consolidation of the findings, as well as, detailed discussion with respect to the existing literature. Whereas, concluding remarks of the study, implications, limitations, recommendations and future research areas, were addressed in chapter 7.
Chapter 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter begins with a general introduction of how the concept of servant leadership has been conceptualized over the years, but before then, the chapter examined the difference between leadership and management. This is followed by a historic overview tracing the origin of servant leadership in different time periods and across various disciplines. Then the various principles, characteristics and behavioural patterns of servant leadership proposed by different authors are highlighted, followed by an examination of the leader-follower matrix before going on to conceptualise leadership approaches that share similar characteristics with servant leadership. This is followed by an examination of leadership theories to identify aspects that either, differ from or demonstrate the servant leadership philosophy. Three such leadership theories namely; shared/distributive leadership, complexity leadership and substitute for leadership, were examined.

The next section reviews discussions around Greenleaf’s conceptualizations of servant leadership vis-à-vis contemporary views. The chapter continues by systematically reviewing various studies concerning the impact of servant leadership on organisational performance drawing upon several empirical studies conducted over the years. It then explores the literature on Higher Education Institutions, particularly in the UK, how these institutions have contributed to the UK economy, and exploring the culture of HEIs. The chapter concludes by examining the servant leadership construct within the education sector. Thus, it is expected that this would advance and extend the debate on servant leadership and Higher Education Institutions. However, for ease of understanding, the literature review has been divided into the following six broad headings:

- Leadership vs. Management
- Leadership Practices and Types
- Servant Leadership: An Historical Overview
- Principles/Approaches of Servant Leadership
- Leadership Theories in Higher Education Institutions
- Higher Education Institutions as Service Organisations
- Theoretical Foundations
- Justification for using theories/gaps in existing literature
2.1 Leadership vs. Management

Leadership and management are two overarching concepts commonly found in most management literature. There have always been divided opinions concerning which is more important than the other. While some researchers see it as an unhealthy business practice to lay much emphasis on leadership to the detriment of management (Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003), others maintained that placing management far above leadership should equally be discouraged (Kotter, 1990). Hence, some level of balance is needed in any organisation since both are strategic to the smooth functioning of the organisation. Beyond the traditional connotation of viewing leadership as a power-driven tool, as earlier mentioned in chapter 1, leadership involves influencing the activities of group members towards the achievement of group goals (Rost, 1993; Stogdill, 1950).

Leadership and management are often used interchangeably; however their difference is visibly seen in the functions performed by leaders and managers. Managers perform standardized functions using control as means of effecting desired changes, whereas leaders motivate and support subordinates to achieve the needed change in organisations (Jackson, 2008). Management, therefore, involves connecting the various activities of an organisation towards the achievement of set goals and objectives, it deals with tasks and processes whereas, leadership deals with people (Bush, 2008). The difference between management and leadership is explicitly stated, especially when compared with traditional leadership models hence there is the underlying assumption that the duties of management and leadership are the same (Cleary et al., 2011; Jackson, 2011).

Following the same line of argument, Bush (2008) added that “the concept of leadership and management overlap” (p. 3). When viewed from the traditional point of view, leadership and management might mean the same thing, as both have to do with the use and distribution of power and authority. Cleary et al. (2011) stated that traditional leadership models, in differentiating leaders from non-leaders, often use power, which represents the mace or symbol of authority. Likewise, management too rely on power in the discharge of their managerial functions. The next section presents a review of some commonly practiced leadership types within the field of management.
2.2 Leadership Practices and Types

Some of the most commonly researched leadership practices and types, within the field of management, include empowering leadership, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), egalitarianism, self-sacrifice, altruism, spiritual leadership, authentic leadership, ethical leadership, transformational leadership, level 5 leadership theory, and servant leadership. Empowering leadership involves adopting the managerial function of delegation to encourage subordinates to make decisions in the organisations (Yukl & Becker, 2006). Constant delegation enhances subordinates to easily develop personal skills that are related to their jobs (Liu, Lepak, Takeuchi, & Sims Jr, 2003). Supporters believe that this way, subordinates are able to manage and lead themselves with less supervision from superiors (Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2010). Thus, offering supportive measures for subordinates to improve themselves is where empowering leadership overlaps with servant leadership, and this is where its strength also lies.

However, empowering leadership is more or less, linked to Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, than servant leadership (Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2013). Despite this close linkage to other leadership theories, empowering leadership has been argued to be too prescriptive for merely emphasizing on how power and authority ought to be shared in a corporate body (Vecchio et al., 2010). The name Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) was coined by Dennis Organ from his popular book Organisational Citizenship Behavior: The good soldier syndrome in 1988 (Organ, 1988). The book was inspired by Organ’s personal experience as a college boy doing summer jobs in a local paper mill company. The challenges he faced and the regular assistance he got from co-workers prompted him to have a rethink of what would have happened if no one had helped him.

Organ (1988) referred to these regular and immediate supports as Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, which according to him, describes those unpaid and sometimes-unrecognized efforts people get while performing statutory obligations. He stated that the efforts are not paid for because these are not part of the responsibilities of the benefactor, but they go a long way in reliving the owners of the jobs thereby, contributing to the overall efficiency of an organisations. He further attributed OCB to the impacts of motivation on an individual’s psychological and mental framework. A similar study was undertaken to determine why people exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour in
organisations by Rioux and Penner (2001). They suggested that employees exhibit OCB due to the effects of certain motives. To this end, three different types of motives were identified and these are; concern for the organisations, one’s impression and pro-social tendencies.

Since OCB is devoid of any preconceived notions to act, the effects of motives can serve as a catalyst, which stimulates OCB. But, it is uncertain which particular motives trigger such OCB patterns seeing that motives can both be consciously and unconsciously aroused. An unconsciously stimulated motive can be described as a reflex action, while those that are consciously aroused can be viewed as reactions. Thus, Organ (1988) mentioning of motives as silent drivers of OCB could possibly mean the unconsciously aroused drives. Consequently he ignored the effect of consciously stimulated motives on OCB. Nevertheless, OCB leaders recognize that being effective is more desirable than being efficient (Organ, 1988). While efficiency does not always result in effectiveness, Organ argued that “effective organisations are reasonably efficient in the process of transforming resources into finished products” (Organ, 1988, p. 6). Organisational citizenship behaviour has its own limitations as noted by Organ (1988). He stated that OCB is boring and diffident and that these characteristics if ignored by leaders can possibly render the concept ineffective.

*Egalitarianism* refers to the tendency for leaders to pursue and maintain equality among group members (Temkin, 1986). Rather than seeking personal recognition and power, some leaders seek to maintain equilibrium so that group members can have a ‘fair share of the cake’. Egalitarianism could be seen among apartheid leaders such as; Nelson Mandiba Mandela of South Africa, Nnamdi Azikiwe and King Jaja of Opobo of Nigerian, who fought against all forms of discrimination. Temkin (1986), a major proponent of egalitarianism, believe that while the pursuit of equality is regarded as just by society, inequality itself is hard to explain. Stating that the only rational definition of inequality would be in terms of how unequal one member is economically, socially, politically and psychologically, compared to another. This means that, inequality is relational to peoples’ well-being thus, can only arguably be inferred subjectively.

Consequently, it is a waste of time and resources struggling to eliminate inequality; an elusive and unquantifiable concept. The difficulty of knowing the nature of inequality, and its perceived effects on members of society are some of the major drawbacks of
egalitarianism. *Self-sacrifice leadership* is referred to as the tendency for leaders to willingly succumb to states of perceived deprivation in order to pacify or alleviate the sufferings of followers, or to make life better for them (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999). They stated that this leadership form exist mainly in organised settings where there is need for the distribution of rewards, division of labour, and the use of power and authority.

Followers’ loyalty, respect and trust are gained by leaders who sacrifice for the good of others in the group. In a later cross-sectional and experimental study by De Cremer and van Knippenberg (2005), it was discovered that followers’ cooperation was greatly enhanced through leaders’ self-sacrificial tendencies and that this behavioural pattern does not occur instinctively or irrationally (De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2005). Instead, it is a well-calculated attempt to achieve personal fulfilment, which is often triggered by some kind of psychological drives. While addressing the reasons behind self-sacrificing behavioural patterns among leaders, Choi and Mai-Dalton (1999) argued that, the need to actualize one’s self, and the theory of reciprocity, are some of the reasons for exhibiting self-sacrificing behaviour. Nelson Mandiba Mandela and Jesus Christ portrayed self-sacrificing leadership behaviour.

A major drawback of Choi and Mai-Dalton (1999) study is that it did not categorically state if self-sacrificing leadership behaviour is applicable to informal group settings like mob actions. Ideally, the study concentrated only on organised or formal settings. The authors ignored the implication of adopting self-sacrifice leadership style in an informal setting, bearing in mind that leadership situations arise both formally and informally. Supporting this stance, Smircich and Morgan (1982) confirmed that leadership situations occur whenever individuals willingly allow others to decide the course of actions for them, and that this happens in both structured and unstructured group settings. Another drawback of self-sacrificing leadership is the way self-sacrifice is being misconstrued. Some scholars believe that self-sacrifice leadership does not always lead to self-less service (Avolio & Locke, 2002). This is because a person who offers alms to beggars may do so to gain spiritual fulfilment as prescribed by his religion.

Again, one who decides to give out his daily portion of food to a hungry man may do so because he is fasting and not, necessarily, because he cares for the hungry, and wants to feed him. In either case, the self-sacrifice was motivated by personal reasons; hence the giver and receiver are both beneficiaries. *Altruism* involves the idea of sacrificing for
others too. Avolio and Locke (2002) are of the opinion that altruism is often misunderstood as meaning self-sacrifice though they have similar characteristics, because both involve the idea of giving up something of value to another. They argued that, while altruism states the beneficiary of the sacrifice explicitly, self-sacrifice merely talks about giving up something. It does not state the beneficiary of the sacrifice.

The overlap between altruism and self-sacrifice leadership limits its practicability as a separate and viable leadership concept. Consequently, the effective application of altruism in an organisation is considered to be arguably challenging. The “purpose of spiritual leadership is to create vision and value congruence” (Fry, 2003 p. 693). It is the act of fostering team spirit and calling so that the needs of followers/workers will be easily identified (Fry & Nisiewicz, 2013) believing that this will be beneficial to both leaders and followers. Supporters of this spiritual leadership (Fry, 2003; Fry, 2009; Fry, Hannah, Noel, & Walumbwa, 2011) strongly believe that there is a connection between work and spirituality. This is because the norms and values, which underpin spirituality are founded upon service and love for mankind.

They also argued that organisational effectiveness depends on how well leaders succeed in developing the innermost state of man. Advocates of spiritual leadership argued that man’s subconscious state is as important (if not more important) as his physical well-being. It has been empirically shown that organisational performance and spiritual leadership are positively correlated (Fry et al., 2011). In view of this, it could be argued that it will be difficult for atheists to adopt spiritual leadership style because they are freethinkers who neither believes in the existence of the supernatural nor of supreme beings.

**Authentic leadership** is the ability for leaders to create the enabling environment for followers to thrive. Authenticity depicts the essence of a corporation; it is the unique identity of organisations that gives meaning to its existence as a corporate body (Tiernan, 2009). Supporters (Goffee & Jones, 2009) of this leadership theory, enjoin leaders to quickly adjust their behaviour in order to respond to changes whilst staying true to themselves. An earlier research by some authors suggests that individuals’ become more stable and confident once they are allowed to freely acknowledge their short-comings and potentials without necessarily being criticized (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). It involves clearly defining and communicating the visions, mission and objectives of the organisations to followers (Tiernan, 2009).
Goffee & Jones (2009) added that for leaders to be accepted by followers, they must be able to create exciting working atmosphere to induce followers to perform optimally. These two authors argued that most leadership theories tend to focus more on leaders than followers thus, presenting leaders as the “heroes” of the leadership equation. In doing so, the theories seemingly ignore that; leadership effectiveness is as a result of the followers, leaders and other contextual variables such as time and chance.

*Ethical leadership* is the “demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making” (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005, p. 120). Proponents of ethical leadership such as Bass and Avolio (1993a) and Hassan et al. (2013) believe that there is an ethical dimension to leadership situations. They believe that the leader/follower relationship is not dictated by economic factors, as claimed by some authors, but by social factors. Ethical leadership theorists view leaders, being given power and authority, as custodians of ethical norms and values in the workplace who should relate these norms to followers.

Since ethics involves defining right and wrong conduct of behaviour, which in effect is relative to individuals, leaders face a major dilemma trying to determine acceptable modes of practices. Ethical issues seem hard to define in the sense that leaders are left to continually make choices based on their understanding of which ethical school of thought is appealing to them, whether Universalists view or deontological school of thought. Thus, leaders’ actions are shaped by the views they hold regarding these two schools of thoughts. However, it is believed that ethical leadership is more connected to transformational, authentic, leader-member exchange theory, spiritual and charismatic leadership theories (Brown & Treviño, 2006).

Smith et al. (2004) defined *transformational leadership* as the ability for leaders to motivate subordinates to reach their maximum potentials. Supporters of this theory believe that subordinates view transformational leaders as role models (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Smith et al., 2004), even though both the leader and follower depend on each other to succeed. There is also mutual understanding between transformational leaders and their subordinates, though leaders decide on the organisational values and vision for subordinates to implement (Bass & Avolio, 1993a). This of course is the guiding principle behind servant leadership, and it is this aspect of transformational leadership that bears
semblance with servant leadership. Among the various service-oriented leadership theories, transformational leadership is the most recognized in terms of its linkage with servant leadership. This is revealed by the increasing amount of interests scholars seemed to have on both theories lately.

Quite a number of comparative studies have been conducted on servant leadership and transformational leadership, but that of Stone, Russell, and Patterson (2004) stood out among them. While the general understanding of their study suggests that transformational and servant leadership theories are very similar, major differences exist between these two leadership theories. One author (Humphreys, 2005) claimed that the main difference between the two theories is the emphasis each place on the leader/follower dyad. He believes that whereas leaders remain the focal point for transformational leadership theorists, servant leadership lays emphasis on followers. While another group of scholars (Smith et al., 2004) argued that, in terms of implementation, transformational leadership is more suitable for adopting in dynamic business environments than servant leadership, which is appropriate for stable environments. The major drawback of transformational leadership theory is that it places too much emphasis on leaders consequently; it seems to address only a part of the leadership equation.

Collins (2001) defined level 5 leadership as the ability for leaders to transform an organisation from being good to its highest capability. It is the unique ability for leaders to integrate both professionalism and personality successfully in running the affairs of the organisations (Trompenaars & Voerman, 2009). Although level 5 leadership is believed to have close resemblance with servant leadership (Trompenaars & Voerman, 2009), it looks rather exploitative when compared to servant leadership. In order to achieve maximum results, leaders are likely to do whatever it takes to realise their aim, without caring if subordinates are being treated well or not. Again, level 5 leadership also lays much emphasis on leaders as it is based more on their characteristics and style than other external factors within the leadership equation. This kind of attitude portrays a top-bottom approach to leadership that characterizes most traditional leadership theories.

The main emphasis of this leadership theory is on the accumulation and distribution of power, but recently there has been a shift of thought concerning this position (Robert, 2003; Trompenaars & Voerman, 2009) as the potency of this power leadership theories is somehow questionable. However, level 5 leadership has been criticised to undermine
cultural limitations and leaders’ value-judgment (Collins, 2001), as it offers leaders the opportunity to overstretch their boundaries. In doing this they utilize both personal and intellectual skills and knowledge to achieve maximum results. This is where the strength of level 5 leadership theory lies on.

Servant leadership theory, on the other hand, suggests leaders’ ability to exhibit a service-oriented attitude to followers. Nevertheless, servant leadership is defined in this thesis as an all-inclusive, dynamic and ongoing leadership construct, where the inclination to lead is born out of leaders’ desire to serve. It is all-inclusive in the sense that, it has the ability to combine features of the traditional leadership approaches like power and authority and the relational attributes of contemporary leadership approaches. Servant leaders strive to pursue the interest of an organisation and its stakeholders simultaneously not just the leaders, but everyone in the organisation is expected to pursue other peoples’ interests before self-interests. While its dynamism is rooted on the assumption that servant leaders are expected to reproduce themselves within the organisation.

Servant leaders in turn are expected to develop more servant leaders as successors, who will continue their works from where they stop. In this way, the underlying assumptions of the construct are fully maintained and sustained. Furthermore, as an ongoing leadership process, it describes a way of life and an act of doing. Servant leadership differs significantly from traditional leadership theories in two dimensions. First, it attempts to address issues of organisational success through individual collaboration (Spears, 1996). It is the managerial style of leadership that focuses on satisfying all organisations’ stakeholders, and sees this as means towards achieving the overall objectives of the organisations (Greenleaf, 1970 cited in Jones, 2011). This has led to an increasing demand from scholars to investigate the applicability and suitability of servant leadership in different types of organisations.

From the above discourses, it might be interesting to compare and/or contrast servant leadership and the other leadership types mentioned earlier on in this section. Similarities can hardly be drawn between OCB and servant leadership other than knowing that both are concerned with performing voluntary services. But, while servant leadership ideology demands leaders to serve followers, anyone (leaders, followers and other stakeholders) can exhibit OCB by rendering assistance when the need arises. Likewise, egalitarianism focuses on service and stresses on treating and dealing with every individual based on
equal terms. On the contrary, servant leadership emphasis is not on equality, even though this may be an outcome of the servant-leadership process as leaders seek ways of performing their diverse obligations to group members.

Thus, equality is only a means to an end for servant leaders whereas; it is an end to egalitarians. Self-sacrificing leadership and servant leadership both share similar characteristics for emphasizing on the need to render selfless service. There is an overlap between servant leadership and altruism in the sense that altruists are servant leaders since both target an identified audience for performing leadership obligations. Again, service to mankind seems to be the main common feature of servant leadership and spiritual leadership (Sendjaya et al., 2008), and the fact that both occur within an organisational context. Their differences are revealed in their practical implementation in that, while spiritual leadership sounds more like dealing with unseen forces, servant leadership is both applicable spiritually and physically.

This is where authentic leadership draws similarity with servant leadership, but however, while the strength of authentic leadership lies in its emphasis on followers; its practical implementation remains an issue that is worth considering. Interestingly, ethical leadership and servant leadership share close similarities in that, they both advocate the timeless philosophy of ‘do unto others what you would want them do unto you’. These tendencies contradict the proposed ideologies of servant leadership, which of course forms the basis of distinction between these two leadership approaches.

2.3 Servant Leadership: An Historical Overview

The strength of servant leadership lies in its ability to manage two conflicting objectives; the need to serve and the need to be served (Greenleaf, 1998; Trompenaars & Voerman, 2009). Historically, servant leadership refers to the leadership style adopted mostly by religious leaders or clerics. These leaders serve as servants to some supreme or divine authorities and carry out instructions prescribed by such authorities. By performing such services and mediating between followers and supreme authorities, they set the tone of how religious duties are carried out. Followers of such religious bodies often regard them as leaders for constantly giving out guidelines of codes of conducts. Jesus Christ, Prophet Mohammed and traditional priests all over the world exhibited servant leadership behaviour.
Sendjaya, Sarros, and Santora (2008), on the other hand, argued that while servant leaders are viewed as leaders by their followers, they in turn give reverence to higher divinities that empower them to act on their behalf. They suggested that, apart from being applied by clerics and ministers in religious sectors, servant leadership cuts across many disciplines including medicine (Cleary et al., 2011), social sciences (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; de Waal & Sivro, 2012), education (Cerit, 2009; Wheeler, 2012), profit and non-profit organisations (Sarros, Cooper, & Santora, 2011). These inter-disciplinary studies on servant leadership suggest that instead of building a consensus the widely acclaimed views on servant leadership are conspicuously diverging (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006), thus making it difficult for scholars to understand its essence and operational meaning.

Regardless of this, there is common agreement that servant leadership is practical in almost all kinds of organisations, as it enhances the performance of these organisations (Cerit, 2009; Sendjaya et al., 2008). This shows that from a religious point of view, the ultimate service and reference performed by servant leaders is not to followers, but to their respective supreme authorities. Consequently, viewing the construct from a religious perspective seems to be quite simple, because the ethos underpinning the world’s famous religions such as Islam, Christianity, Buddhism and Hinduism, espouse the tenets of servant leadership. Hence, lending credence to Spear’s (1996) assertion that servant leadership is quite simple to comprehend. It is interesting to know that the concept is no longer confined to religious circles, however its fundamental ideology differs slightly particularly when applied to other disciplines.

In management literatures the servant leadership concept shares close similarities with some leadership concepts, which made tremendous impact in organisations in the past. These leadership concepts include empowering leadership, organisational citizenship behaviour, egalitarianism, transformational leadership, stewardship, self-sacrificing leadership style, level 5 leadership, altruism, spiritual leadership, authentic leadership, and ethical leadership. Despite differences in these leadership styles, all of them acknowledge the need for leaders to serve rather than be served, which happens to be a major feature of servant leadership. Servant leadership was made popular from the works of R.K Greenleaf, in his popular seminal work ‘The Servant as Leader’, written in 1970 (Trompenaars & Voerman, 2009). Greenleaf advocated that the essence of leadership should be to serve first and not to lead (Greenleaf, 1998). This means that leadership emerges as a result of
one’s motive to serve others and not the other way round.

Although this may not always be the case, but it is expected that when it occurs, leaders will gain the subordinates’ trust and commitment which are needed in order to move the organisations forward. The concept of servant leadership is widely recognized by management practitioners and scholars due to its viability and applicability both in theory, and in practice. Quite a good number of other scholars (Al-Mahdy, Al-Harthi, & Salah Eldin, 2016; Baldomir & Hood, 2016; Boone & Makhani, 2012; Spears, 1996; Trompenaars & Voerman, 2009) also supported this concept, whilst claiming that it differs from other leadership styles in its consistent attempt towards supporting followers to achieve their maximum potential. Nevertheless, it is believed that the servant leadership idea existed long before Greenleaf’s writings in 1970 (Robert, 2003). Some authors have traced the existence of servant leadership ideology far back to the Jewish people in the Old Testament of the Bible. The Bible recorded that Jesus Christ as King and founder of the Christian religion washed the feet of His followers. Jesus told his followers in the New International Version (NIV) of the Bible in John 13:13-17 that:

“You call me ‘Teacher’ and ‘Lord,’ and rightly so, for that is what I Am. Now that I, your Lord and Teacher, have washed your feet, you also should wash one another’s feet. I have set you an example that you should do as I have done for you. Very truly I tell you, no servant is greater than his master, nor is a messenger greater than the one who sent him. Now that you know these things, you will be blessed if you do them” (Bible, 1984).

This simple act of Jesus portrayed an attitude of service and humility. By washing the feet of his followers, Jesus demonstrated that greatness can be attained through humility and service to mankind. He exemplified the attitude of a servant and not a master; this in essence is the guiding philosophy of servant leadership. Apart from the Jewish account, quite a number of servant leadership tenets are found in almost all kinds of religion (Polleys, 2002). For example Trompenaars and Voerman (2009) identified the tenet of servant leadership behavioural patterns in other forms of religions such as Buddhism, Hindu and Islam. They claimed that great and remarkable people of old like the Roman philosopher Cicero, Plato, and Aristotle exhibited servant leadership attitudes long before the concept appeared in leadership literature.

Aristotle’s statement that life is meaningless unless its purpose is “To serve others and do good” (Trompenaars & Voerman, 2009, p. 6) kind of expresses a servant leadership
behaviour. These different historical accounts undoubtedly provide servant leadership a solid foundation. They also suggest why the construct is viewed differently by authors from different background. Spears (1996) sees servant leadership as a universal principle where individuals, not just leaders, are asked to serve as they lead. He viewed the concept as an essential ingredient for all organisations’ stakeholders to embrace. Smith et al. (2004) on the other hand saw servant leadership as a leadership style whereby leaders’ ultimate priority is to serve the interests of their followers. Under this approach, the leader’s main focus is geared towards ensuring the personal development and success of subordinates (de Waal & Sivro, 2012). Servant leadership describes the process where leaders’ highest priority is to serve the interests of all organisations’ stakeholders first before given consideration to their own interest (Woodruff, 2004).

Boone and Makhani (2012) stated that servant leadership advocates that leaders and followers are directly interdependent, and that leaders should not see themselves as being superior to their subordinates. Trompenaars and Voerman (2009) added that servant leadership involves the release of power and not the accumulation of power, arguing that power is used only for the purpose of serving other people in the organisation. They further argued that, in doing this, leaders are able to create mutual trust between leaders and followers. Servant leadership thus demonstrates the need for leaders to combine the managerial functions of directing and serving—two conflicting interests, at the same time. This was what they referred to as managing workplace diversity, which suggests that the ulterior motive of servant leaders is to serve. This definition suggests that servant leaders pursue multiple objectives, without necessarily undermining any of the objectives.

2.4 Principles/Approaches of Servant Leadership

Servant leadership does not focus on organisational outcomes but rather on service to followers (Stone et al., 2004), and servant leaders are described as leaders who have the passion to serve and lead, they do not differentiate between work and personal life (Trompenaars & Voerman, 2009). Meaning that, leading is a way of life to servant leaders. They see leading and serving as inseparable duties that leaders can perform at any given time (Van Dierendonck, 2011). They believe that “work is as important for the person, as the person is for the work” (Trompenaars & Voerman, 2009, p. 4). Boone and Makhani (2012) added that servant leaders are futuristic and are capable of articulating organisations’ vision and value to the understanding of subordinates. The authors identified five major
characteristics of servant leaders: ability to envision, good listening skills, coaching and mentoring, and being a team builder.

Trompenaars and Voerman (2009), narrated that servant leaders see their own success as being dependent on how well they are able to support subordinates to maximize their potential for personal and organisational success. In summary, they assumed that servant leadership concept hinges upon the stakeholder theory in which leaders define organisational success from the viewpoints of all relevant parties. Servant leaders are not just there to maximise shareholders’ interests alone. They interpret the mission of the organisations and help in setting the pace for its successful implementation. The authors further added that servant leaders are people-oriented because they love and care for people, but while other people-oriented leadership approaches emphasize treating people with care, servant leaders treat people beyond that. They refuse to see people as toys or robots that work for them. In essence, there is a close connection between servant leaders and their stakeholders.

Due to its increased recognition across the globe, servant leadership shares close similarities with leadership styles relating to transformational (Bach, 2014) and ethical leadership styles (Bach, 2014; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Verdorfer & Peus, 2014). Most scholars have made attempts to compare and contrast servant leadership with transformational leadership style suggesting that both share similar characteristics more than other leadership approaches. Drawing upon existing literature and these characteristics, an attempt has been made to model servant leadership (see Figure 2-1 below) for proper understanding of how the construct seem to address the interests of stakeholders of an organisation. The model recognises the presence of certain preconditions, such as organisational context and leaders’ values, necessary for leaders to exhibit servant leadership characteristics (otherwise known as principles of servant leadership).

These characteristics include listening, self-awareness, empathy, developing others and having foresight (Spears, 2004), directly impact employees’ growth and development before translating indirectly into organisations’ outcomes and societal benefits. To maintain and sustain these characteristics, leaders are expected to go through certain reinforcement activities such as training, attending workshops and seminars. Reinforcement activities are an integral part of the servant leadership model because of the on-going debate on whether servant leaders are born or not (Claar, Jackson, & TenHaken, 2014). If they are born, then it may not be necessary to train people to become servant leaders. Assuming they are made,
then the tendency to train people through workshops and seminars, for them to learn and exhibit servant leadership characteristics becomes absolutely relevant.

The model is based on two key assumptions. First is that servant leadership philosophy is a negation of shareholder theory in its emphasis on giving equal treatment to all stakeholders. Some scholars argued that maximizing stakeholder value is a managerial ploy not to increase shareholders worth (Uribe, 2011). But it is unclear how maximizing stakeholders’ interest reduces shareholders’ worth, which could possibly hinder the adoption of servant leadership in organisations if it is ignored completely. The servant-leader relationship model portrays servant leaders as directly supporting subordinates to develop necessary skills that are likely to enhance subordinates’ performance in the organisation. Subordinates in turn reach out to customers with the improved knowledge and skills to serve better. Through the servant leader, the customers might possibly impact shareholders and other members of the society, who have a stake in the organisation, either directly or indirectly.
Figure 2-1: The Servant Leadership Model

Pre-conditions

Context Values:
- Leader
- Follower

Servant Leadership principles:
- Listening
- Self-awareness
- Empathy
- Developing others
- Foresight

Reinforcements:
- Training
- Workshops
- Seminars

Employees’ Growth and Development

Organisational Outcomes

Societal Benefits

Adapted from Northouse (2012, p. 225)
The shareholders and members of the society, such as government, creditors and trade agencies, in turn provide the necessary feedback to the organisations. This offers the organisations the opportunity to identify and improve upon areas that need improvement. Apart from that, a clear understanding and management of this relationship can serve as guide for overcoming competition. The second assumption of the model is that the servant leadership process can be understood as an open system in which every variable in the model is interdependent on each other for mutual support and survival. The interdependency reveals that servant leaders can approach issues from different starting points (Trompenaars & Voerman, 2009). They may decide to serve customers via other members of the society or through the company’s stakeholders, or, by directly serving customers’ interests.

A major weakness of the servant leadership model is its inability to show how organisational context and followers’ values affect the servant leadership characteristics, since these characteristics are exclusively linked to leaders, and not the followers. Higher Education Institutions are viewed as social systems (Burkhardt, 2002) because they exhibit some of the characteristics commonly found in a system. All systems have inputs and outputs, as do Higher Education Institutions. The inputs of Higher Education Institutions include newly admitted students, academic and administrative staff who aid the teaching and learning process, while the outputs consists of graduates and graduating students (Burkhardt, 2002). Systems are viewed as either open or closed depending on how resources are mobilized to ensure the survival of the system (Ansari, 1979).

Like all open systems, servant leadership effectiveness depends largely on the ability for leaders to receive, disseminate and manage relationships across all levels of the organisations. It also includes managing relationship channels throughout the servant leadership model, otherwise referred to as the synergistic effect of a system. To this end, certain relevant characteristics found to be common among servant leaders are recommended for leaders desiring success. These characteristics, generally referred to as attitudes, dimensions or patterns of behaviour, are being reviewed in the following section. Seven virtues or constructs of servant leadership were identified by Patterson (2003) which are vision, love, altruism, empowerment, humility, trust and service. Using his knowledge of Greenleaf’s initial idea of servant leadership, Spears (2004) went ahead to conceptualize ten basic principles of servant leadership namely;
- Listening
- Empathy
- Awareness
- Persuasion
- Healing
- Conceptualization
- Building communities
- Stewardship
- Foresight
- Commitment to the growth of others

Adapted from Spears (2004, p. 8)

By quantitatively examining the role of procedural justice and servant leadership on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), Ehrhart (2004), measured seven dimensions that are closely related to servant-leadership behaviour pattern. These are value-creation, empowerment, bonding with subordinates, ethical behaviour, service to others, encouraging subordinates to growth, and conceptualisation. Using a similar research design, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) identified eleven characteristics of servant leadership namely; awareness, having foresight, building team, calling, persuasiveness, listening, subordinates ‘growth, conceptualisation, empathy, stewardship and healing. Whereas, Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008) identified nine characteristics of servant leadership namely- empowerment, ethical behaviour, emotional healing, servant hood, value creation, relatedness, conceptual skills, being supportive and follower-centeredness. Sendjaya et al. (2008) on the other hand, classified the different characteristics of servant leadership into six groups namely; uprightness, being influential, willingness to serve, bonding with subordinates, being spiritual and authenticity.

Three major characteristics of servant leadership were identified from a case study conducted by Ebener & O’Connell (2010), which are empowerment, service and ability to recognize subordinates’ potentials and helping to develop them. Whereas, eight characteristics of servant leadership were identified by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011), which are; authenticity, empowerment, humility, accountability, courage, stewardship, empowerment and empathy. In the same year, Van Dierendonck (2011) merged previously identified characteristics of servant leadership from existing literature and grouped them into six categories namely; being empathetic, stewardship, being authentic, vision, empowerment and being humble. Likewise, upon reviewing the dimensions of servant leadership from previous studies Mittal & Dorfman (2012)
summarized their findings into six broad categories namely empathy, value creation, integrity, humility, empowerment and egalitarianism.

In a similar study by Choudhary, Akhtar, and Zaheer (2012) servant leadership attitudes were divided into two main groups namely; concern for followers, and behaving ethically. The authors believe servant leadership involves finding ways of helping subordinates to grow while at the same time carrying out some form of socially responsible activities in the community where organisations operate. In a later study, Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu, and Wayne (2014) identified and classified servant leadership behaviour into followers’ characteristics, and leaders’ characteristics. A total of nine characteristics which include three followers’ characteristics- proactive personality, self-evaluation, and servant-leader prototype and six leader-characteristics were identified by the authors. The six leaders’ characteristics were service-orientedness, emotional healing, moral maturity, prosocial identity, self-evaluation, and narcissism.

Whilst reviewing the leadership practices of a US multi-national corporation, Popeyes Louisiana Kitchen, Sipe and Frick (2015) came up with the seven pillars of servant leadership. In their book, the authors attributed the success of Popeyes to the adherence of certain servant leadership principles which are character, people-centeredness, effective communication, compassion, foresight, systems thinking, and moral authority. The characteristics mentioned so far, provide the basis for gaining theoretical insight for understanding the servant leadership construct as demonstrated in this thesis. The literature seem to suggests that the number and dimensions of servant leadership principles vary among authors, indicating that rather than building a consensus, research on servant leadership is increasingly disintegrating. However, for clarity of purpose, the various characteristics of servant leadership identified from these studies are presented below (see Table 2-1).

Furthermore, the characteristics that were commonly found among in most authors’ classifications are grouped into two main groups; people-driven characteristics and purpose-driven characteristics. People-driven characteristics are those characteristics that are specific towards supporting and developing subordinates to reach their full potentials. Four of the people-driven characteristics that appeared in the literature are empowerment, listening, empathy and emotional healing. Empowerment is described as the tendency for leaders to encourage subordinates to take initiative in order for subordinates to make
decisions (Ebener & O’Connell, 2010). Servant leadership demands good listening skills as this is likely to help build followers’ confidence (Boone & Makhani, 2012). Empathy is the ability for servant leaders to accept subordinates without bias and also to give equal attention to all of them (Spears, 2004), while emotional healing refers to the ability for leaders to be sensitive towards identifying subordinates’ psychological needs (Searle & Barbuto, 2010).

Purpose-driven, also referred to as job-driven, characteristics on the other hand, directly impacts on leaders’ job in an organisation. They also help to improve leaders’ personal skills as well as on-the-job skills. Five of these characteristics as identified from the servant leadership literature are; self-awareness, authenticity, persuasion, ability to conceptualize and stewardship. Self-awareness is the ability for servant leaders to keep themselves abreast with the happenings around them (Spears, 2004). Such awareness whether, past, present or future equips them to make necessary changes to either take advantage of opportunities or overcome threats in the environment. Authenticity refers to the unique ability for servant leaders to maintain their true identity in the face of calamity (Goffee & Jones, 2009). Persuasion refers to the ability for servant leaders to remain influential at all times (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author/Year</th>
<th>Number of Principles</th>
<th>Sets of principles of Servant Leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ehrhart (2004)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>value-creation, empowerment, bonding with subordinates, ethical behaviour, service to others, encouraging subordinates to grow, conceptualisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbuto and Wheeler (2006)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Awareness, foresight, building team, calling, persuasiveness, listening, subordinates’ growth, conceptualisation, empathy, stewardship, healing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liden et al. (2008)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Empowerment, ethical behaviour, emotional healing, servant hood, value creation, relatedness, conceptual skills, being supportive, follower-centeredness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sendjaya et al. (2008)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Uprightness, being influential, willingness to serve, bonding with subordinates, being spiritual and authenticity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ebener and O’Connell (2010)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Empowerment, service, and ability to recognize subordinates’ potentials, helping to develop them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Authenticity, empowerment, humility, accountability, courage, stewardship, empowerment, empathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van Dierendonck (2011)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Being empathetic, stewardship, being authentic, vision, empowerment, being humble</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mittal and Dorfman (2012)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Empathy, value creation, integrity, humility, empowerment, egalitarianism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choudhary et al. (2012)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>concern for followers, behaving ethically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liden et al. (2014)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Proactive personality, self-evaluation, servant-leader prototype service-orientedness, emotional healing, moral maturity, prosocial identity, self-evaluation, narcissism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sipe and Frick (2015)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Character, people-centeredness, effective communication, compassion, foresight, systems thinking, moral authority</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Doctoral Review, 2015
**Conceptualization** is the ability to envision ideas and at the same time maintain day to day routine work schedules when the situation demands (Spears, 2004) while **stewardship** demands leaders to lead by example (Hernandez, 2008). It means exhibiting socially responsible behaviour towards subordinates in order to gain their respect and trust (Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). These two main categories arguably capture the essence of Greenleaf’s conceptual idea of servant leadership characteristics, behaviour, principles, attitudes and philosophies. The literature also revealed that servant leadership was often described, rather than being defined, by proponents of this leadership construct. Although, the absence of a concrete definition was as a result of failure on the part of Greenleaf, to provide one from the very time he conceptualised the construct (Reinke, 2004). According to Reinke (2004), instead of defining the concept, Greenleaf only attempted to describe servant leaders and what they do that distinguish them from other kinds of leaders.

Due to this, other supporters had little or no choice than to provide their own definitions. The various classifications of servant leadership characteristics carry the central theme of putting effective leaders in organisations. In order to deeply explore servant leadership in the higher education sector, this thesis relies on previous research particularly Spears (2004) principle of servant leadership, with the intention of advocating for HEIs to be recognised as servant leaders, as well as, presenting an avenue for understanding effective leadership. Bearing in mind that effective leadership is built around two opposing but yet interdependent philosophies; service to others and service to the purpose for which the organisations exists (Kouzes & Posner, 2002 cited in Taylor et al., 2007). While pursuing the vision and purpose of an organisation, effective leaders serve the interests of all other stakeholders of the organisations. By doing this, lasting relationships between the organisations and its external environment could be built and maintained. This literarily reflects the spirit of servant leadership hence, servant leadership principles can be classified into two broad groups, as outlined below (see Table 2-2).

The first group can be referred to as purpose-driven principles because they help a leader to fulfil the goals and purpose of the organisations. Some suggested examples of purpose-driven principles include; awareness, persuasion, conceptualization and foresight. Since the tendency for organisations to pursue diverse goals at the same time cannot be ignored, leaders need to develop these principles in order to lead effectively. The second group can be referred to as people-driven group since these principles are directed towards
subordinates, although they resonate on the wider society via the subordinates. Examples of these characteristics are; communication, showing empathy, emotional healing, stewardship, commitment to employees’ growth and building communities. Through these characteristics, a leader is able to encourage and support subordinates to develop their potentials.

Table 2-2: Recipe for Effective Leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose-driven characteristics</th>
<th>People-driven Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuasion</td>
<td>Showing empathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptualization</td>
<td>Emotional healing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foresight</td>
<td>Stewardship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commitment to employees’ growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Building communities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Spears (2004, p. 8)

Servant leadership is considered to be a very successful leadership construct (Trompenaars & Voerman, 2009) probably, because the concept differs from most traditional leadership models in its emphasis on service to others. Thus, the significance of servant leadership and how it differs from traditional leadership models is shown in Table 2-3 below.

Table 2-3: Servant Leadership and Traditional Leadership Models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Servant Leadership</th>
<th>Traditional Models</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Issues are synthesized</td>
<td>Issues are analysed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holistic approach at solving problems</td>
<td>One-dimensional way at solving problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power flows from bottom-up</td>
<td>Power flows from top-bottom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combines two-opposing values</td>
<td>Chooses between opposing values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyclical thinking</td>
<td>Linear thinking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Trompenaars and Voerman (2009, p. 25)

2.4.1 The Leader-Follower Matrix

The leader-follower relationship is arguably the most important relationship in any
organisations (Ferris et al., 2009), yet researchers have always paid little attention to it (Van Vugt et al., 2008). As mentioned earlier, the traditional leadership theories emphasis was more on the acquisition and distribution of power than on managing the leader-follower dyad effectively. Power happens to be the distinguishing factor between leaders and followers; meaning that the theories focused more on leaders than the followers. The emphasis of these theories was on analysing who leaders are (traits theories) and what they do (situational theories). Hence little was known about the role that followers play in the leadership equation (Van Vugt, 2006). In view of this misrepresentation, leaders have always remained in the spotlight and organisations’ success was more or less attributed to them (Van Vugt, 2006).

Empirical analysis, based on game theory - the idea that regardless of the situation confronting a leader, certain strategies are bound to make him/her succeed (Hausman, 2005; Peters, 2013), revealed that the objectives pursued by leaders and followers often vary significantly. Leaders seem to earn more popularity than followers possibly as they stand to enjoy more privileges than followers (Van Vugt et al., 2008). Whilst leaders have the tendency to enjoy greater benefits than followers, it cannot be ignored that leaders are cumbered with the responsibility of positively reinforcing the leader-follower relationship with the right social feedbacks (Harcourt, Ang, Sweetman, Johnstone, & Manica, 2009). Leadership defines how organisations are being structured theoretically and practically, it provides followers with a clear direction on what to do (Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Thus, just the way leaders are given the credit for organisational success; they are also blamed for every woe that befalls the organisations. Interestingly, the leader-follower dyad is very crucial, at the same time complex to manage.

Recently, attention has moved towards understanding the nature of followers because without followers, leadership would be a mirage. From a social and interactive point of view, leadership is where group members (followers) willingly surrender themselves to be led by a dominant figure referred to as the leader (Smircich & Morgan, 1982; Van Vugt, 2006). Having this understanding, it would seem almost impossible to talk about leadership without mentioning the dynamics of followership (Van Vugt et al., 2008). This is because leadership situations are usually defined by the interactions of both followers and leaders (Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Obviously, the inclination to be led by others stems from the understanding that, though anyone can lead under the right atmosphere (Bass, 1990, cited
in Van Vugt, 2006), everybody cannot assume leadership position at the same time (Van Vugt, 2006). Based on this perspective, time and chance cannot be disassociated from the leader-follower relationship.

These situational factors seem to play quite a significant role in the leadership narrative. While some people occupy leadership position by merit or inheritance, others have leadership bestowed on them by group members who willingly allow themselves to be led. Hence trying to explain leadership from leaders’ characteristics alone is likely to be misleading. Being that, “leadership and followership are by-products of adaptations for dominance and submission” (Van Vugt, 2006 p. 367). Van Vugt et al. (2008) also added that followership occurs as a result of the desire for group members to address certain challenges that can only be addressed through joint collaboration among group members. Ordinarily, followers will submit themselves to anyone who is able to define and interpret this collaborative effort to the clear understanding of all group members (Martinez, Kane, Ferris, & Brooks, 2012). This is how the leader-follower dyad emerges.

For as long as there exists someone to coordinate group activities, and people who are willing to give up their rights to become leaders, a leader-follower relationship is bound to evolve whether deliberate or not (Smircich & Morgan, 1982). This goes a long way towards explaining how leadership in ad hoc situations, such as mob action, normally emerges. Servant leadership concept greatly stresses the importance of followers in the leadership process so much, that a leader is no leader unless he exhibits a servant attitude. This servant philosophy is not new in management literature. It seems the idea existed way back before servant leadership was actually conceptualized.

2.4.2 Greenleaf’s ideas vs. Contemporary views on Servant Leadership

Generally, researchers approach organisational leadership exclusively from two individualistic perspectives which are from either followers’ or leaders’ own perspectives of their leadership approach (Lumby, 2012). Followers, as key elements in the leadership function, have always played a significant role in shaping and defining leadership effectiveness. Oftentimes, followers’ perception of, and expectations from leaders varies in every organisation (Yukl, 2008). Consequently, it is assumed that there might be inconsistencies in defining leadership effectiveness from followers’ point of views. Likewise, leaders’ opinions about their individual leadership styles are not devoid of such
inconsistencies as well; hence the need to assess organisational leadership from a completely different perspective. Particularly, one which takes into cognisant the importance of both perspectives; servant leadership provides the medium of exploring the subject of leadership from the two perspectives (Northouse, 2012).

However, the issue of reconciling opposing objectives, as proposed in the servant leadership philosophy, is not only paradoxical, but also frustrating. This is because such objectives are often problematic especially when a leader tries to achieve them simultaneously. Examples of paradoxical objectives within HEIs may include leading and serving, releasing power and holding on to power, maintaining rigidity while at the same time being flexible. Moreover, none of these objectives is to suffer at the expense of the others since servant leadership philosophy, advocates a well balanced approach towards serving the interests of all organisations’ stakeholders (Trompenaars & Voerman, 2009; Wheeler, 2012). In view of this contradiction, it is quite unclear whether these latter views on servant leadership are consistent with Greenleaf’s initial idea about the construct.

This is because Greenleaf’s main emphasis was for leaders “to see service as a prerequisite to leading” (Wheeler, 2012, p. xv), and not the other way round. This suggests that, servant leaders are expected to pursue service even if this is done at the expense of leading consequently, the ability to successfully pursue both objectives might be greatly hindered. Going by Greenleaf’s (1970) conceptualizations of servant leadership, it can be argued that serving is much more important than leading, even though this contradicts the ethos upon which this leadership construct is based. Thus, till date, reconciling opposites or contradictory objectives remains an unresolved issue among supporters of the servant leadership construct. Another contemporary view is that servant leadership advocates for the pursuit and realisation of stakeholders’ interests.

Among those who lent themselves to this dimension are Trompenaars and Voerman (2009). These authors believe servant leadership goes beyond trying to reconcile conflicting objectives to that of addressing stakeholders’ needs. By adopting a holistic approach at identifying the need of each stakeholder, this view suggests that servant leaders act to satisfy the interests of the various stakeholders of an organisation. However, Joseph and Winston (2005) pointed out that servant leadership is suitable for static business environment because some of the team-related characteristics of servant leadership, such as collaboration, providing guidance and direction, are unlikely to
withstand dynamic environmental constraints. These inherent limitations portray servant leadership as an elusive and inexplicable management concept that needs further clarifications.

This particular section has clearly demonstrated the development of servant leadership from its infant conceptualisation stage, reconciling conflicting objectives, down to satisfying stakeholders’ interests. For the purpose of advancing and/or extending servant leadership beyond mere conceptualising the construct to its effectual application and ultimate theorization, there is need to appreciate how the construct had evolved over the years. To fully understand servant leadership “as both a legitimate field of study and viable leadership practice” (Bryant & Brown, 2014, p. 7), the different viewpoints of the construct ought to be scrutinized to see where they differ and where possible, draw consensus on certain aspects of the construct. This is exactly what this thesis intends to achieve, but first by developing an appropriate leadership theory to bring consistency in the leadership research of Higher Education Institutions.

In summary, the literature suggests that servant leadership has indeed evolved over the years. From being viewed as a service-oriented approach, to an approach that reconciles contradictory obligations, and more recently, to a universal leadership approach, which is capable of addressing cross-cultural leadership issues in organisations. Hence the next section presents a review of the impact of servant leadership on organisational performance.

2.4.3 Weaknesses of Servant Leadership

Research (Collinson & Tourish, 2015; Ford & Harding, 2015) has shown that aspiring to become servant leaders is arguably a challenging task, since this leadership approach is far above human accomplishment. Particularly, when viewed from its founding father, Robert Greenleaf’s, conceptualization of the concept. Greenleaf (1970) idea of servant leadership, suggests that this leadership construct emerges naturally. It clearly argues that, servant leaders are born and not made, a widely held view that seems to challenge the sustainability of the construct. There are arguments and counter-arguments concerning “whether servant leadership is an innate personality trait, a learned behaviour, or a combination of both” (Claar et al., 2014, p. 46), a position which shows that, there are divergent opinions about the emergence of servant leadership. Hence, Greenleaf (1970)
proposition, contained in section 2.3 of this chapter, together with the growing number of identified principles of servant leadership, makes the operationalization of this leadership construct somehow difficult (Collinson & Tourish, 2015).

Furthermore, Crippen (2004) had earlier identified aspects of servant leadership principles, particularly its paradoxical nature, which 300 education leaders struggle to adopt. This might include having to balance teaching and learning with doing research, pursuing academic freedom and autonomy, ensuring bureaucracy and flexibility, and maintaining vertical and horizontal relationship channels in these institutions. Crippen (2004) study suggests that, the idea of leading and serving at the same time seem to undermine the primacy of leadership upon which all other managerial duties in an organisation hinges on. These and many other arguments seem to have opened the door of criticism for this leadership construct.

2.5 Leadership Theories in Higher Education Institutions

The literature revealed that among the contemporary leadership approaches, some were commonly associated with leadership research in Higher Education Institutions. These include shared/distributed leadership, complexity leadership and substitute for leadership.

2.5.1 Shared/Distributed Leadership

The term distributed leadership was made popular from the works of Gronn (2002), and this leadership approach refers to “the co-performance of leadership and the reciprocal interdependencies that shape the leadership practice” (Spillane, 2006 cited in Jones, Harvey, Lefoe, et al., 2014, p. 605). Its origin can be traced back to the educational sector, although it has since be adopted in other organisational sectors. Distributed leadership is also referred to as shared leadership particularly in the field of medicine whereas management scholars use the term distributed leadership (Bolden, 2011). Apart from choice of preference within academic disciplines, scholars suggested that the particular term in use also depends on the setting where a research study is being conducted. Leadership authors in UK prefer to use the term distributed leadership, whereas their counterparts in America often use shared leadership (Dickson & Tholl, 2014).

The above examples suggest that the underlying philosophy of distributed leadership suggests that, just like any influential concept (such as power, authority and information),
leadership should be rotational thus; shared among people within different levels and positions (Jackson & Parry, 2011 cited in Dickson & Tholl, 2014). Distributed leadership bears close similarity to servant leadership particularly in the aspect of encouraging and involving employees to participate in the leadership process. But, the successful adoption of distributed leadership depends, to a large extent, on factors such as “structure, professionalism, work commitment and power sharing” (Jain & Jeppesen, 2014, p. 258), thereby questioning its viability as a leadership approach.

Researchers are yet to clarify how power should be distributed among group members, and also what is actually being distributed, whether it is power or authority, or both (Currie & Lockett, 2011; Gosling, Bolden, & Petrov, 2009). Its emphasis on power arguably portrays it as a traditional leadership model, and of course, this is also where distributed leadership differs from servant leadership. Thus, while distributed leadership focuses on improving organisational efficiency and effectiveness through contextual factors, servant leadership suggests achieving these objectives but doing so through subordinates. Servant leadership thus, is more interested in employees’ welfare and commitment than on contextual factors within the organisations. To the servant leader, the means is as important as the end, whereas distributed leadership places more emphasis on ends than on means.

2.5.2 Complexity Leadership Theory

Complexity leadership reflects the ideology that leadership is a dynamic activity which is made up of “multi-level, processual, contextual, and interactive” (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009, p. 631) variables in an organisations. It refers to the complex nature with which the concept of leadership is being represented (Snowden & Boone, 2007), and provides a holistic descriptions of the behaviour of social objects (McKelvey, 2008) as they interact with each other. However, just because leaders have to deal with different kinds of mitigating and opposing contextual variables does not mean that they entirely lose control of the leadership process (Dickson & Tholl, 2014). Leaders are actively involved in ensuring that work-related behaviour is tailored positively in order to meet the demands of the organisations (Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2002).

This leadership theory, though considered by some authors as another management fad, has proven to be very effective in managing very complex systems or institutions, suggesting that leaders “create transformational environments, or the conditions necessary
for innovation, rather than creating the innovation itself” (Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2002, p. 414). There is no denying the fact that this leadership theory had proved effective when applied to highly complex organisations like the health care sector (Sturmberg, O'Halloran, & Martin, 2012), and possibly within Higher Education Institutions. Complexity leadership theory has been relatively researched (Dickson & Tholl, 2014; Plsek & Wilson, 2001) particularly within the health sector in different countries.

This probably means that, like servant leadership, complexity leadership theory can also be adopted within Higher Education Institutions, due to the highly complex nature of these institutions (Middlehurst et al., 2009). However, there are divided opinions regarding the potency of this leadership approach. Some authors believe that unlike servant leadership, complexity leadership is not a distinct leadership approach in itself; it is rather a philosophical lens which is used to explore the concept of leadership in organisational studies (Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2002).

2.5.3 Substitute for Leadership

This is another leadership concept that shares similar characteristics with servant leadership in its attempt to put into consideration all the variables of the leadership equation. Substitute for leadership recognizes the existence of certain contextual variables, inherent in every organisations, which are capable of substituting, neutralizing and improving the performance of leaders (Dickson & Tholl, 2014; Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Due to the consistent call for Higher Education Institutions to seek alternative leadership approaches, particularly those that promote harmonious relationship and service, substitute for leadership was arguably inappropriate to be adopted within Higher Education Institutions. Some critics argued that substitute for leadership failed to make significant contributions towards the leadership of Higher Education Institutions, however there are indications that this leadership approach could possibly be beneficial to Higher Education Institutions (Bryman, 2007).

By way of providing a clear understanding of the various interrelatedness and interdependencies existing within Higher Education Institutions, substitute for leadership is a viable concept that these institutions are yet to maximize. In line with Bolden and Petrov (2014) argument, these different leadership theories further demonstrate the disoriented nature of leadership research in Higher Education Institutions. No one recognisable
leadership theory can be traced to HEIs; neither did these theories identify the composition of leaders in the Higher Education sector. Hence the need to explore in order to understand the nature of leaders in this sector.

2.5.4 Servant leadership vs. Contemporary Leadership Theories

Servant leadership differs significantly from traditional leadership theories in two dimensions. First, it attempts to address issues of organisational success through individual collaboration (Spears, 1996). It is the managerial style of leadership that focuses on satisfying all organisations’ stakeholders, and sees this as means towards achieving the overall objectives of the organisations (Greenleaf, 1970 cited in Jones, 2011). Since then, there has been a considerable effort towards determining the applicability and suitability of servant leadership in all types of organisations. The inter-disciplinary studies on servant leadership in different sectors of an economy both profit and not-for-profit organisations, arguably suggest that this might be true.

Even though servant leadership may not be the answer to all leadership problems, its uniqueness is shown in the writing of Spears (1996), who is an ardent supporter of servant leadership. He wrote that:

“As we approach the twenty-first century, we are beginning to see that traditional styles of leadership are slowly yielding to a better model – one which is based on teamwork and community; one which seeks to involve others in decision making; one which is strongly based in ethical and caring behaviour; and one which is enhancing the growth of people, while at the same time improving the caring and quality of our many institutions. We call this emerging approach to leadership and service, servant leadership” (Spears, 1996 p. 33).

The tenet of servant leadership suggests that followers are happy and productive when led by certain behavioural patterns. This has a trickle-down effect on followers’ attitude to work that eventually translate to a productive workforce in the long run. Second, servant leadership is not based on the possession and distribution of power unlike traditional leadership models; power is only used when necessary (Trompenaars & Voerman, 2009). Instead, servant leadership can be viewed as a product of shared or distributed style of leadership in its emphasis on building and maintaining strong relationships between leaders and subordinates. Distributed leadership posits that there are no permanent leaders as any team member can assume leadership position at any given time thus; leadership is not based on power, authority, position or hierarchy (Swanwick & McKimm, 2011).
Some scholars believe that distributed leadership is part of transformational leadership (Cleary et al., 2011). However this leadership style is also closely related to servant leadership in terms of their emphasis on sharing power equitably among group members, instead of allowing it to rest on a single individual. Cleary et al. (2011) stated that power represents the mace (or symbol of authority) and is often used by traditional leadership models to differentiate leaders from non-leaders. But servant leadership does not differentiate leaders from non-leaders although it differentiates between managers and leaders. Managers perform standardized functions using control as means of effecting desired changes, whereas leaders motivate and support subordinates to achieve the needed change in organisations (Jackson, 2008).

Thus, the difference between management and leadership was not critically highlighted in traditional leadership models which implicitly assume that the duties of management and leadership are the same (Cleary et al., 2011; Jackson, 2011). Even though these leadership theories suggest that the end justifies the means, servant leadership posits that the means justifies the end. Unlike most leadership theories, servant leaders focus more on followers’ needs and that of the organization, than their own needs (Andersen, 2009). In other words, servant leadership suggests that the means justifies the end, rather the end justifying the means.

### 2.5.5 Servant Leadership and Organisational Performance

Despite Greenleaf’s (1970) proposition that servant leadership has significant impact on organisations’ performance, researchers were uncertain about this claim for quite some time (de Waal & Sivro, 2012; Reinke, 2004). This may not be unconnected with the intricacies surrounding the concept, and the ironical name: servant and leader, given to it by its founding father, Greenleaf. Consequently, earlier studies on servant leadership were more concerned in understanding its nature (Robert, 2003; Spears, 1996, 2004) and how it is distinct from other leadership theories (Russell, 2001; Smith et al., 2004), than on its impact on organisations’ performance. Recent studies are now focusing on developing instruments for measuring servant leadership effectiveness and its effects on firms’ performance (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Liden et al., 2008; Sendjaya et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011).
The studies revealed that there is a positive connection between servant leadership and organisations’ performance. One of such studies was conducted by Reinke (2004) who surveyed 651 employees in Georgia, USA. The aim of the study was to determine the relationship between servant leadership characteristics and trust between supervisors and subordinates. Data was collected and measured empirically, and the preliminary results revealed that stewardship; a key characteristic of servant leadership, was found to have stimulated trust between employees and supervisors. Though, the existing relationship between servant leadership and organisational performance was not a direct one. Reinke’s argument was that since the overall organisations’ performance is an aggregate of all employees’ performance, whatever helps employees’ performance will invariably reflect on the performance of the organisations.

Hale and Fields (2007) adopted a different approach in examining the servant leadership-organisations’ performance link, using the dimensions of culture from Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) project. They conducted a cross-cultural study in Ghana and USA to determine how three key servant leadership characteristics: humility, vision and service, enhances leadership effectiveness in different organisational settings. The sample consisted of 157 followers working in different types of organisations, of which 60 were from Ghana while the remaining 97 came from US. Results from the study revealed that humility and service were unconnected to leadership effectiveness in both countries; however, vision seemed to have a strong relationship with leadership effectiveness particularly in Ghana. The reason for this disparity was that power distance among leaders in Ghana is greater than those in the US.

Likewise, Liden et al. (2008) sampled 182 students and employees in an organisation to verify the effect of servant leadership on firms’ performance, and also to develop a multidimensional instrument with which servant leadership characteristics can be evaluated and measured. Though data was collected from students, supervisors and subordinates, the two-phase empirical study revealed that servant leadership improves subordinates’ commitment to an organisation. Specifically, three key characteristics of servant leadership were found to have improved firms’ performance via by impacting on the employees. These are employees’ commitment to the organisations, between-role performances, and organisational citizenship behaviour.
In a similar study, Trompenaars and Voerman (2009) developed a straight-line Likert scale with which two opposing characteristics of servant leadership; serving and leading, were measured. Though the scale was unable to measure those interconnected and conflicting values at the same time, it offered a platform for determining and identifying servant leadership characteristics in organisations. This was followed by a multidimensional measuring scale as designed by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) to examine servant leadership characteristics among leaders. A cross-cultural survey was undertaken by the authors on 1571 participants in the Netherlands and UK. Eight servant leadership attributes were commonly identified as having positive impact on employees’ performance and these are; authenticity, courage, accountability, standing back, forgiveness, stewardship, empowerment and humility. Three of these attributes; accountability, humility and empowerment, had the greatest impact on employee job performance.

Searle and Barbuto (2010) took a conceptual approach at investigating the link between servant leadership and employees’ performance both at individual (micro) level and organisational (macro) levels. Two positive psychological factors namely; organisational virtuousness and hope were used as the servant leadership characteristics. While organisational virtuousness represents servant leadership characteristics at the organisational level, hope on the other hand, was used to express these characteristics at the micro-level. Twelve propositions were raised and addressed by the study, and the results showed that servant leadership enhances positive work-related behaviour among employees at individual and group levels. The significance of the study was its ability to unravel the possibility of adopting servant leadership within the field of positive psychology.

Peterson et al. (2012) sampled 126 Chief Executive Officer (CEO) in United States to determine the effect of servant leadership characteristics and organisations’ performance. The CEO characteristics that were analysed are organisational identification, narcissism and founder status. While controlling for transformational leadership, results from the study showed that servant leadership has positive association with firms’ performance, measured in terms of returns on assets. Though, the researchers assumed that this positive relationship could have been triggered by the firms’ engagement in certain corporate social responsibility activities. Again, the study revealed that narcissism— tendency to exhibit excessive love for control and power, was unconnected with servant leadership.
Taking it further, de Waal & Sivro (2012) empirically tested the existing interrelationships among three key variables; servant leadership, organisational performance and high performance organisations. The authors wanted to know the impact of these three variables on each other. Using 1200 employees in a university hospital in Amsterdam, the researchers determined the influential role servant leadership characteristics plays on three performance indicators namely; annual financial statements, patient level of satisfaction and employee loyalty. Although the findings suggested that patient satisfaction and financial reports were not directly connected to servant leadership characteristics, but employees’ loyalty was greatly improved by servant leadership behavioural patterns. The positive connection between servant leadership and employees’ loyalty was attributed to servant leadership characteristics, which were targeted at developing employees’ welfare.

Thus being the sole beneficiaries, employees’ are bound to welcome such ideas as this will in turn ignite their performance. Building on the above studies and others, Mittal and Dorfman (2012) on the other hand, conducted the first empirical study on servant leadership and national culture using 12,681 cases drawn from 10 culture-clusters in 59 societies. The authors’ intention was to identify leadership behavioural patterns that lead to organisational effectiveness among the different cultural settings. They also wanted to know if companies’ executive lead in accordance to a society’s cultural demands and the implications if they deviate. Data for the study was drawn from the Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE).

Among other things, the findings suggest that leadership behaviour was defined by the cultural expectations of a given society, and that effective leaders are those who maintain this standard. Every culture was seen to have a specific criterion for determining leadership effectiveness; leaders who could not meet societies’ expected behavioural patterns are classified as ineffective leaders. Some of the criteria were found common among organisations in all countries. For example, the study identified vision as a universally accepted and practiced leadership style. Vision is an attribute of servant leadership that determines leaders’ effectiveness; this invariably leads to an improvement in companies’ performance.

In a related study in USA, the association between three key variables; servant leadership, critical outcomes and personality traits were critically examined by Hunter et al. (2013). The aim of the study was to determine the effect of servant leadership on various outcomes.
and levels within and outside the organisations. Extraversion and leaders’ agreeableness (tendency to agree) were the two personality traits used in the study. A combination of 224 stores, 425 subordinates, 110 in-store managers and 40 district managers were sampled. Servant leadership characteristics were also analysed from followers’ point of view, as well as the leaders. Results from the study showed that leaders’ extraversion had negative association with servant leadership, while leaders’ tendency to agree was positively linked to the adoption of servant leadership principles.

Finally, a recent comparative study was conducted by Choudhary et al. (2012) to explore the effect of transformational leadership approach and servant leadership on organisations’ performance. A total of 155 line managers within the service sector such as banks, telecommunication and hotels in Pakistan were sampled. The findings suggested that though both transformational and servant leadership had positive impact on organisational learning. However, the impact on performance was greater compared on transformational leadership, than it was on servant leadership. Organisational learning was used as the performance indicator whose increase reflected on the overall performance of the organisations.

2.6 Higher Education Institutions as Service Organisations

Service organisations, including Higher Education Institutions, share certain attributes (characteristics), which make them uniquely different from other types of organisations. These characteristics include inseparability, intangibility, heterogeneity and perishability (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985; Vargo & Lusch, 2004) refer specifically to service firms alone. Vargo and Lusch (2004) defines inseparability as the inability to separate services from service providers meaning that, services are performed and consumed at the same time, unlike buying a product from a seller and claiming legitimate ownership of the product. Intangibility refers to the inability to quantify services operations thereby, demanding high-level professionalism to manage service activities. Unlike physical products, heterogeneity refers to services are not performed based on standard output levels, suggesting that services differ from one service provider to another, based on the time and location of the providers (Parasuraman et al., 1985).

While perishability refers to the inability to store services for future consumption (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) because services are performed and consumed at the same time. These
attributes seem to resonate among Higher Education Institutions as well. HEIs mean different things to different people. Essentially, they differ in terms of corporate objectives, underlying philosophy, geographic location, scope, and form, which bridges the gap between Further Education (FE) Institutions (polytechnics and colleges) and universities, by the United Kingdom “Further and Higher Education Act of 1992” (Cranfield & Taylor, 2008, p. 86). They stated that these institutions share similar, yet distinctive characteristics. Higher Education Institution is an umbrella body that broadly covers UK universities and Further Education Institutions. It specifically refers to any institution where teaching and learning supposedly takes place.

However, universities are much bigger in terms of size, they are geographically spread and, offer academically driven courses unlike FE whose courses are more or less technical in nature (Sharp, 2012). These distinctive characteristics of universities make them to be different from other service organisations such as banks, legal and hotel services. Consequently, they might require different leadership approaches, which are more or less, relational and are capable of addressing the uniqueness of these institutions. In an attempt to explore the mechanism through which Higher Education Institutions function, Birnbaum and Edelson (1989) identified five distinct elements of Higher Education Institutions. First and foremost is that, Higher Education Institutions’ staff sometimes pursue conflicting objectives, which may not be unconnected with the existing dual culture (academics and administration) within these institutions. In the sense that, staff, mostly academics often struggle to seek a balance between academic and administrative duties (Gill, 2011).

Academics, within these institutions are caught up with the responsibilities of doing research, teaching, and performing other mundane managerial duties. The second characteristic is that, like in most service firms, Higher Education Institutions deal directly with people and, people are considered the most valuable but yet difficult resources to manage. Unlike other service organisations, whose emphasis is on processes and not products (Grönroos, 2001), HEIs have end results known as outputs that represent factors such as number of graduating students (Douglas et al., 2006). As well as, students’ “employability and academic standings” (Chua, 2004, p. 2) within the labor market. A highlight of the input-output relationships in the education sector is presented below in Figure 2-2.
Instead of laying emphasis on end products as most manufacturing organisations do, service firms focus on “interactive processes” (Grönroos, 2001, p. 150). Processes refer to the way and manner in which customers’ orders are taken and processed to the time of delivering the orders to the customers (Newman & Jahdi, 2009). Customers within Higher Education Institutions are implicitly defined. However, students are regarded as the main customers as revealed by the antecedents of the National Student Survey (Douglas et al., 2006; Hill, 1995). The National Student Survey (NSS), established by the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE), is the body responsible for overseeing final year students’ opinion about the delivery of service by their respective universities. This only goes to confirm that students are viewed as customers, an idea which most academics still struggle to accept, thus are considered very important. As such, their opinions matter a great deal to the management of these institutions.

**Figure 2-2: The Input–Process–Output framework of an Education System**

![Image of Input–Process–Output framework]

- * Selection of students
- * Entry requirements
- * Teaching and learning
- * Content and delivery of course units
- * Accuracy of curriculum content
- * Academics’ knowledgeability
- * Concern for students
- * Accuracy of curriculum content
- * Instruction medium
- * Social activities
- * Assessments
- * Financially rewarding job
- * Placement
- * Academic performance
- * Unemployment

Source: Chua (2004, p. 2)

Other stakeholders are those considered to have an interest in these institutions which include parents, government, and the larger society whose actions directly impact the activities of these institutions, and vice versa (Davies et al., 2001). The third characteristics is the challenging nature of achieving goals within service firms due to the absence of unified procedures for measuring service deliveries at different levels (Birnbaum & Edelson, 1989). Fourth, is the pursuit of these two interdependent, and yet contradictory
objectives—academic freedom and autonomy, while the fifth has to do with diverse environmental impact on Higher Education Institutions.

2.6.1 Economic Contributions of UK Higher Education Institutions

Higher Education Institutions have made significant contributions to nations’ economies particularly in the area of providing employment opportunities, and the acquisition and sharing of knowledge. Consequently, they are regarded as both major physical and intellectual resources (UK, 2012, 2015) to most countries, even as they pave way for students and tutors to experience teaching and learning more meaningfully than ever before. Studies have shown that HEIs often play a key role in boosting the economies of many countries including the United Kingdom (UK). Even though all four countries share common Quality Assurance (QA) program for its Higher Education Institutions, each is governed by separate regulatory bodies; England and Wales by the Higher Education Funding Council, Scotland by the Scottish Funding Council, and the Department for Education and Learning in Northern Ireland (UK, 2015).

Apart from having global recognition, with an annual intake of more than 2 million students home and abroad UK Higher Education Institutions are highly ranked in terms of giving students value for money (UK, 2015). They ensure that students’ satisfaction is maximised through the provision of quality services as revealed in the 2014 National Students’ Survey (NSS) report (UK, 2015). The report further revealed that the UK economy has witnessed substantial increase from the activities of Higher Education Institutions. Higher Education Institutions accounted for £45.1 billion of UK Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and offered about 2.5% employment for its citizens (Kelly, McNicoll, & McLellan, 2004). Also, recent investigations have revealed that Higher Education Institutions generate more than £73 billion to UK economic activities, 2.8% to its GDP, and are responsible for about 2.7% employment opportunities (Kelly, McNicoll, & White, 2014).

2.6.2 Leadership and the Culture(s) in Higher Education Institutions

Culture includes everything around us, from the food we eat to the innate ideas, beliefs and values we use in interpreting happenings around us. It is generally defined from two different perspectives, either as a set of beliefs and values shared by a set of people or, as
that which regulates individuals’ behavioural conduct (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). It refers to the values, ideologies and beliefs of people who share a common orientation (Hofstede, 1980). It serves as the defining factor that makes one group of people to be uniquely different from others, and can be defined as a “set of beliefs and values about what is desirable and undesirable in a community of people and a set of formal or informal practices to support the values” (Javidan & House, 2001, p. 292). As a regulator of behaviour, culture comprises of the values and ideologies of individuals working together to achieve a common goal. People are usually bounded by the commonalities that they share while working in a particular organisation. Therefore culture can also be seen as a way of life, or the way and manner that people perform certain activities within their immediate environment.

Like individuals, culture (s) exists within an organisation and it happens to be the unifying factor that symbolises organisations. Most large organisations are often recognised by the underlying cultural heritage they uphold, and which they have successfully maintained and passed on from one generation to the next. Amazon has the culture of offering personalized goods so as to attract customers and gain loyalty and trust from them. Hence, by “paying close attention to their strategic stance, Amazon had transformed from serving a single market to meeting the needs of different people and markets” (Adobi, 2012, p. 230). Apple, on the other hand, is known for consistently giving customers value for their money. Over the years, the company has not failed to provide very simple but yet sophisticated products to customers (Moreland, 2011) whereas, within the automobile industry Toyota has built in the culture of reliability, consistency and durability to the vehicles that it produces. Organizational culture therefore, is the sum total of the vision, mission and aspirations held by that particular organisation (Giritli, Topçu-Oraz, & Acar, 2012).

Culture and leadership are interdependent elements, in the sense that any study on leadership is considered to be inconclusive without mentioning the predominant culture in the organisation, and vice versa (Giritli et al., 2012; Hanges, Dorfman, Shteynberg, & Bates, 2006). Culture serves as the mediator between leadership and its impact on firms’ performance (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000) thus; leadership facilitates the right atmosphere where culture and other change-related activities take place within the organisation (Hennessey Jr, 1998). Culture defines the direction of an organisation and expresses its
strengths, weaknesses, successes and failures of an organisation. It comprises of everything made by man, and organisational culture consists of everything that is made by the owners of the organisation (Bass & Avolio, 1993). This consists of the values, policies, mission, goals, visions, physical structures and designs of the organisation. It also includes the unifying beliefs and values of members of an organisation (Hinings, Thibault, Slack, & Kikulis, 1996) which makes them to be different from members in other organisations.

Studies (Bass & Avolio, 1993b; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005) have shown that a strong bond exist between leadership and organisational culture so much so that any study on leadership is presumably incomplete without mentioning or linking it to organisational culture. Culture is intricately linked to individuals’ behavioural pattern (Rollinson & Broadfield, 2002). It is visible in every act of leadership being displayed in organized settings (Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2002). Thus, culture and leadership act like catalysts as they help to shape employees’ performance in organisations through job commitment and satisfaction (Giritli et al., 2012). Organisational culture is a product of its leadership in just the same way culture eventually forms to shape an organisation’s leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 1993a). The debate on whether culture is the driver of leadership style or vice versa could have led to the emergent of these two distinct schools of thoughts; functionalist (or application), and the root metaphor (or anthropological) schools of thought.

While supporters of the functionalist school such as (Schein, 2006) believe that leaders are the facilitators of culture within organisations, the anthropological proponents challenged the ability for leaders to create culture in an organisation where they are part of (Smircich, 1983). The functionalists believe that “culture is a crucial ingredient of organisational success (Rollinson & Broadfield, 2002 p. 579). Whereas, the anthropological school of thought did not view culture in terms of expected outcome hence, it mainly focuses on analysing culture. Despite this differences in opinion, it is arguably believed that most research tend to support the functionalist school of thought more than the anthropological school just because the functionalist perspective lends itself to firms’ performance (Sarros et al., 2011). However, since it seems impossible to study all aspects of culture (Schein, 2004), this research focuses mainly on culture at the individual level.

Thus, the research focuses on leaders’ values as proposed by Schein (2006), in accordance with the upper echelon theory. Upper echelon theory suggests that leaders, due to their
influential role, are in the best position to define and modify cultural norms and values within organisations (Barlow, Jordan, & Hendrix, 2003). Moreover, values as “compass for behaviour” (Wheeler, 2012, p. 26) are one of the most important elements of organisational culture (Rollinson, 2008). Leaders’ values have significant effect on organisations and their behaviour is fashioned by the values they attach to objects and things around them (Lok & Crawford, 1999; Russell, 2001). Values are regarded as the major drivers of culture among the various elements of culture (Rollinson & Broadfield, 2002), as the reason may not be unconnected with the believe that everyone’s learnt experiences (patterns of behaviour) from childhood differs significantly from one another (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). These behavioural patterns invariably form peoples’ cultural orientation by shaping the way individuals relate with one another and the environment around them. Studies have shown that values affect leaders’ behavioural patterns in diverse ways. Seven of these different ways are hereby identified by (England & Lee, 1974):

i. Leaders’ perception of things is defined by their value system.

ii. The solutions leaders offer to problems is a product of their values.

iii. Values shape leaders’ personal relationships with people.

iv. Perception of organisational and personal success is shaped by leaders’ value system.

v. Willingness to accept organisational goals and policies are defined by leaders’ values.

vi. Ethical or unethical practices of organisations are dictated by the values of leaders.

vii. Leaders’ personal values are likely to shape their performance as managers.

Values are strongly connected to servant leadership because the underlying philosophy of servant leadership is grounded within the value system of leaders (Russell, 2001). Similarly, servant leadership characteristics such as stewardship, empowerment, integrity, trust and ethical behaviour are all rooted in value. Values thus provide the mirror with which leadership effectiveness are examined and assessed. They serve as roadmaps showing the hurdles that organisations must conquer in order to withstand competition and succeed. The extent to which leaders are shifting from a power base model of leadership to a servant base could rightly be determined by juxtaposing leaders’ values to the leadership styles they adopt (Rinehart, 1998 cited in Russell, 2001). Obviously, this is exactly what servant leadership advocates for, and this is what it stands for.

Finally, a recent study of Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) project researchers Dorfman et al. (2012) revealed some significant insights to
the culture-leadership dyad. The study showed that certain value-oriented behavioural patterns of leaders such as vision and integrity lead to leadership effectiveness in organisations regardless of the culture. Results from this study suggest that value plays a key role in defining leaders’ behaviour. The implication of their study is that some aspects of a leader’s value system are universally applicable thereby presenting value as an integral part of leadership. While the presence of universally accepted leadership styles such as vision (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012) and integrity (Dorfman et al., 2012) are inherent in all societies, these characteristics differed slightly among societies due to acculturation. Since these leadership characteristics are parts of servant leadership dimensions, this suggests that servant leadership is applicable in all organisations across the globe.

The dyadic relationship between culture and leadership cannot be ignored in any leadership study. Moreover, it is believed that successful leaders are those who lead according to societal patterns. This means that culture invariably had a greater regulating effect on leadership styles (Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010) than leadership had on culture, hence the need to critically review literature surrounding culture and leadership. The situation is not different within Higher Education Institutions. Higher Education Institutions are not exempted from being confronted with environmental constraints such as changes in socio-cultural factors, demography, political and technological advancements (Bryan & Wilson, 2014). Thus, reflecting, to a great extent, the level of complexity-structural, social and cultural complexities (Middlehurst et al., 2009) involved in managing HEIs.

Nevertheless, there are different types of cultures, counter cultures, and cultures within cultures in these institutions. Kuh and Whitt (1988) identified four different types of culture found in HEIs. These are course content culture offered by the institution, academic profession culture, institution’s culture and the Higher Education System’s culture. Course content culture is the main element that creates the uniqueness of faculty members across the institution, and goes a long way in defining the level of expertise among faculty members. Example of this type of culture include basic assumptions on the creation and distribution of knowledge in the institution, set standards for assessing students, staffs’ statutory obligations and methods for appraising the performance of faculty members.

Academic professional culture describes the underlying ideologies binding faculty members together in pursuance of a common purpose (Dill, 1982), and usually includes manner of teaching, academic freedom, autonomy, publishing criteria and progression.
Institution’s culture, otherwise known as corporate culture, is what makes one Higher Education Institution to be different from another. It consists of the “underlying values, beliefs, and meaning” (Peterson & Spencer, 1990, p. 3) held by a particular education institution. Thus, for one to know the behaviour of any institution, one may have to study its culture because culture is context specific, in the sense that every institution has its own unique culture (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). An institution’s cultural entities include the motto, mission, colour, flag anthems, held beliefs and assumptions of an institution.

While the culture of Higher Education system refers to the sum total of the regulations governing Higher Education Institutions as a sector. These may include set standards for evaluating performance, service quality and governmental policies. Higher Education Institutions in UK has the Research Excellent Framework (REF) and recently, the Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF). Both serve as instruments through which the impact of research and teaching done by faculty members are being assessed and measured. Suffice to state here that in between these four broad culture classifications exist sub-cultures like students’ sub-cultures and faculty sub-cultures, created by the constant interactions among students and faculty members (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). Culture does play a significant role in any organisation including Higher Education Institutions.

2.6.3 Cultural Elements of Higher Education Institutions

No doubt, culture cannot be observed nor measured (Tellis, Prabhu, & Chandy, 2009, p. 16) in quantitative terms, thus making it hard to compare the predominate culture in one organisation and another. However, some cultural elements are peculiar in almost all type of organisations including Higher Education Institutions. Even though the elements of culture within Higher Education Institutions are not different from other organisations, an understanding of how these elements manifests themselves within Higher Education Institutions can possibly help to reduce the complexity involved in managing these institutions. Figure 2-3 below, shows the various means by which culture can be made manifest within Higher Education Institutions as adapted from Tierney (1988) and Schein (2004). Leadership covers issues such as what employees in Higher Education Institutions expect from leadership, who the leaders are, and whether these leaders are formally or informally established (Tierney, 1988).
Defining leadership, and identifying who leaders are, in these institutions might be problematic as a result of the dual culture. Irrespective of that, leaders are often defined from the perspective of these dual cultures, that is, as either academic or administrative leaders. For example, “those running universities were regarded as academic leaders rather than as managers or chief executives” (Deem, 1998, p. 47). This cultural element is of strategic importance to the leadership process because most times, followers’ expectations of leadership differ from one culture to another. While definitions of right and wrong leadership behavioural conducts differ among societies, there exist common values in every culture. For example, most culture is opposed to leaders who are either manipulative and/or exploitative towards their subordinates (Yukl, 2008).

The service quality of Higher Education Institutions is often defined by their perceived and actual value, however the interpretation of value differs among individuals (Heizer & Render, 2014). While artefacts might manifest themselves externally to leaders, they reflect the norms and values of people in leadership positions by being objects of societal creations. A servant leader can possibly internalize the external artefacts (the underlying message that an artefact carries) through the service the artefact provides. As works of arts, artefacts seem to portray the hidden culture of Higher Education Institutions. Higher Education Institutions’ mission statement is another important cultural element as it issues of how it is defined, articulated, as well as the degree of cohesion among members of the institution (Tierney, 1988) is a strategic decision which leaders have to make from time to time.

Symbols within Higher Education Institutions are captioned in the form of logos. They represent the unspoken and hidden values and resources within Higher Education Institutions. Every institution is uniquely identified by certain symbols like anthems and mottos, which might not necessarily be homogenous in practice. Every institution has its own unique motto and this captures the fundamental ethos of that institution. These are also different from one institution to another and to a large extent; they express the uniqueness of each institution from others.
The environment of Higher Education Institution is very dynamic, and has changed quite dramatically over the last few years. Particularly, with the introduction of the Research Excellent Framework (REF), alongside the Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF), to check the impact of academics’ research and teaching outputs. Thus, how these institutions are able to effectively define and respond to their immediate environment (Tierney, 1988) greatly determines their level of success or failure. Research (Sporn, 1996) has shown that, to adapt the activities of Higher Education Institutions to changes in their immediate environment, there is need for leadership to pursue a balance between the other cultural elements (missions, symbols, structure, strategy, information and socialisation), and the environment of the institution. The culture of Higher Education Institutions is constantly shaped by the interactive forces of these institutions as well as the culture of the larger society such as the eco-system, socio-political, geographical and economic systems (Kuh & Whitt, 1988).

Likewise, the values, aspirations and beliefs of students and faculty members in these institutions interact with the factors of the institution’s external and internal environmental to create the culture of the institutions. This means that institutions themselves do not
possess a culture distinct from the network of factors acting in its environment. *Socialization* entails how new employees are welcomed and accepted into the institutions and what their performance indicators are while *information* is reflected in the way information is processed, sent, received and implemented within the institutions (Tierney, 1988). *Strategy*, on the other hand, refers to the ways of practically moving the institutions forward, and the consequences involved in doing so. These elements work together to produce the supposedly known “ideal culture” (Sporn, 1996, p. 45) in Higher Education Institutions.

They are expected to help Higher Education Institutions to address constant fluxes within the environment. Consistent with a later study by Sporn (1996), the impact of external environmental factors on the culture of Higher Education Institutions was critically reviewed. It was suggested that, the ideal culture (a combination of the aforementioned cultural elements) is likely to equip Higher Education Institutions to know where they stand, motivate employees, engage in effective communication, in order to develop and achieve realistic goals and objectives (Sporn, 1996). While the managerial implications of all these elements are inviolable, environmental impacts on Higher Education Institutions’ activities are very profound in shaping the performance of these institutions.

### 2.6.4 Servant Leadership and Higher Education Institutions

The various conceptualized approaches to servant leadership suggest that it is not just another management fad that is likely to fade away sooner or later. This leadership construct is gradually becoming a way of life, needed by both humans and organisations desiring to make sustainable impacts. Thus, it can be argued that the potency of servant leadership can hardly be denied because it permeates all aspects of human life (Wallace, 2011). The concept has been relatively adopted in schools across the globe, although most of the previous research was based in US. Since the concept originated from the US, it is not surprising that it gained more acceptance and popularity there than anywhere else, as can be seen from the extant literature. However, following recent activities by the UK government, such as quality assurance programs, nationalising and the marketisation of Higher Education (Barr & Crawford, 2005; Brown & Carasso, 2013; Hoecht, 2006), there is a parallel and renewed interest in leadership development of UK Higher Education Institutions.
Government approved bodies such as; Leadership Foundation for Higher Education, Public Service Leadership Alliance, Council for Excellence in Management and Leadership, and the National Health Service Leadership Centre (Goreham, Middlehurst, & Woodfield, 2009) are concerted efforts to resound the growth and development of leadership in the UK. Even though, the search for effective leadership styles in Higher Education Institutions is relatively slow (Greenleaf, 1969 cited in Polleys, 2002), there are suggestions by some scholars that Higher Education Institutions should present themselves as servant leaders to society (Wheeler, 2012). No doubt, due to its consistent emphasis on service to people and society, it is believed that this leadership construct has great prospects for Higher Education Institutions (Crippen, 2004). Theoretically, Higher Education Institutions comprise of people who are regarded as inputs and outputs of Higher Education Institutions (Greenfield, 2004).

Since servant leadership is a people-driven leadership approach, if implemented wisely, it might help HEIs overcome the complexities in the business environment. Servant leadership is needed by Higher Education Institutions to pilot them to a promising future while at the same time addressing their different cultural demands (Amey, 2006). The need to address environmental constraints literally compelled education institutions to organize series of workshops on leadership for members of staff (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006). In order to emphasize the relevance of servant leadership in Higher Education Institutions, there have been consistent calls to incorporate this leadership construct as an aspect of schools’ curriculum (Taylor et al., 2007). In view of this, extant literature on servant leadership and Higher Education Institutions focused on applying the concept to aid teaching and learning (Hays, 2008). Only few examined the effect of servant leadership on subordinates’ work-related behaviour among Higher Education Institutions.

A recent study by Paul and Fitzpatrick (2016) found a positive link between servant leadership and students’ satisfaction with respect to how satisfied students were advised by tutors. Some of studies went as far as exploring the challenges faced by leaders in Higher Education Institutions in their attempt to embrace the concept. One of such studies was conducted by Crippen (2004) explored servant leadership in an American education institution with respect to how each stakeholder in the institution relates with certain principles of servant leadership. She identified aspects of servant leadership principles which 300 education leaders struggle with while trying to adopt this leadership construct.
Examples are consistency, helping others to grow (but not at the expense of the leader’s growth), humility, sacrifice and leading by example, hence, a blended leadership approach might work well in these institutions. It is believed that leaders in this sector prefer a blend of “both delegation and direction, both proximity and distance and both internal and external engagement” (Collinson & Collinson, 2009, p. 365) in performing their leadership obligations. Servant leadership is one of such leadership approaches as it uniquely combines service to people and service to the organisation’s goals (Greenleaf, 1970, 2002). It is upon this premise that servant leadership is based on. Thus, rather than viewing this construct as a paradoxical approach to leading, it can best be used as a complementary tool in the managing Higher Education Institutions. Especially, in this era of globalisation and competition, organisations need to effectively align their operations to the cultural demands of the society in which they operate.

2.7 Theoretical Foundation

Having discussed the main subjects of this thesis; servant leadership and Higher Education Institutions quite extensively in the last section, it is expedient to explore the theoretical foundation upon which this thesis is based on. Thus, this section presents a detailed examination of the two overarching theories- work motivation theory (Herzberg Two-factor theory) and the upper echelon theory that guide this research. Leadership theories are generally based on learning, behaviour modification, and work motivational theories. Notable among the learning and behaviour modification theories are classical conditioning and Skinner’s operant conditioning theories. However, the most researched work motivation theories include; Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory, Herzberg two-factor theory, Alderfer’s ERG theory and McClelland’s theory of learned needs.

Motivational theories are mostly used to explain work behaviour in quite a number of organisational studies however, this thesis is based on two theoretical foundations namely work motivational theory and the Upper Echelon Theory (UET). These two theories strongly laid the foundation upon which this thesis is based on. Thus, by critically reviewing these two theories, some of the intricacies surrounding servant leadership as a concept are undoubtedly brought to the limelight, for properly understanding this leadership construct.
2.7.1 Work Motivation Theories

Issues of employees’ dissatisfaction and low productivity were some of the factors that prompted management and scientists to constantly seek for alternative ways of increasing organisational performance. Motivation itself is defined as “a psychological process resulting from the interaction between the individual and the environment” (Latham & Pinder, 2005, p. 486) thus, motivational theories often suggest that peoples’ work-related behaviour is prompted by certain inner drives within them. These inner cravings could not be fulfilled by the propositions offered by scientific management theorists whose believe is that money can easily lead to an increase in productivity. By and large, money did not always motivate employees as was revealed from the Hawthorne studies in 1932. Instead, employees responded positively to work as a result of being able to develop interpersonal relationship with one another.

This led to a shift from in researchers’ focusing on employees’ task to paying attention to their well-being. Thus, the human relations movement was birthed out of management desperate move to increase employees’ productivity. Many motivational theories have been used by researchers to explain work behaviour over the years. Among the theories is the Herzberg’s (1968) Two-Factor theory whose basic principle clearly espouses key aspects of servant leadership as was initially proposed by Robert Greenleaf. In view of this, this research therefore based on Herzberg two-factor theory in its attempt to explore leaders’ behaviour and attitude towards work.

2.7.2 Herzberg Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg (1968) identified two sets of drives which leads to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction of employees at the workplace. The first set consists of motivators, which he claimed helps employees to get satisfaction from the job that they perform; as such they are referred to as satisfiers. Examples of motivators are personal achievement, growth and responsibility. Because motivators are related to the job itself, they actually stimulate employees to increase their level of productivity. Consequently, their absence will certainly make employees to feel dissatisfied, thus, leading to low output levels of productivity from employees. The second sets of drives are referred to as the hygiene factors. The name hygiene factor suggests that they are closely linked to the working environment. These sets of factors do not have any linkage with employees’ jobs, thus their
presence does not cause job satisfaction but rather no dissatisfaction.

Hygiene factors exist in form of condition of work, working hours and open communication. Herzberg argued that factors that cause satisfaction in the work place are uniquely different from those that cause dissatisfaction. Hence management was urged to pay close attention to both sets of drives to maintain a balance in the organisation since they are all critical to employees’ performance (Herzberg, 1968). He further suggested that since it is the job-related factors (satisfiers) that are likely to cause either dissatisfaction or satisfaction, jobs need to be patterned in such a way as to suite employees’ capabilities through job enrichment. However, studies have shown that even though job enrichment is readily applicable, its ability to continually increase employees’ satisfaction is very uncertain (Rollinson, 2008; Rollinson & Broadfield, 2002). This can be seen as one major drawback of Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory (TFT).

Another drawback is that Herzberg two-factor theory seems to be job-centred for its over-emphasis on the job performed by employees and less on their social needs. Certainly, social needs such as pressure, anxiety and loneliness cannot be satisfied through job enrichments. It is thus assumed in this thesis that these needs might possibly be addressed through some form of social interactions or relationships. As humans, employees crave to relate with each other in order to ease social tension and other forms of internal psychological deprivations in the workplace.

2.7.3 Herzberg Two-Factor Theory and Servant Leadership

Though, Herzberg two-factor theory provided an alternative way of analysing and addressing issues of low productivity in the workplace, but it paid little attention to employees’ innate drives, which definitely contradicts the tenets of servant leadership. Ironically, it is these innate drives or promptings that form the premise upon which Greenleaf’s conceptualisation of servant leadership is based on. He proposed that, servant leadership “begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to lead. He is sharply different from the person who is leader first, perhaps because of the need to assuage an unusual power drive or to acquire material possessions” (Greenleaf, 1970, p. 15). This suggests that servant leadership occurs naturally and that servant leaders are born rather than being made — the basis of discussion in Claar et al. (2014) article.
While Greenleaf (1970) is of the opinion that servant leadership behavioural patterns starts off naturally within an individual, others like Claar et al. (2014) believe that the behaviour can be learnt and sustained through conscious efforts made by the leader. But, contrarily to Greenleaf’s suggestions, this research is arguing that servant leadership behaviour is triggered by ‘something’ as opposed to ‘nothing’ in the sense that leaders’ craving for self-actualisation might also provoke these drives. The drives are traceable to a combination of motivators (or satisfiers) and, the hygiene factors in Herzberg Two-factor theory. In other words, that ‘something’ could be likened to factors like status, acknowledgment, personal growth and development, favourable working hours, holidays packages and good working conditions.

For example, individuals’ pursuit for growth and recognition could possibly arouse in them the need to behave in a certain manner consistent with the values, mission and demands of the organisation he/she works for. As suggested by a group of authors that, “every person carries within him- or herself patterns of thinking, feeling, and potential acting that were learned throughout their lifetime” (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005, p. 2). These behavioural patterns invariably form an individuals’ cultural orientation which is based on their values, assumptions and beliefs, thereby shaping the way they relate with others as well as how they react to events around them. Thus, a leader who maintains strong morals is more likely to encourage subordinates to perform to high standards, than one who lacks such values (Hassan et al., 2013).

A person’s life experiences are also likely to shape servant leadership behaviour which can either be innate attributes or learnt behaviour. Moreover, the literature suggest that leadership effectiveness depends on these two contradictory philosophies- service to others on one hand, and service to the cause of the organisation on the other hand (Taylor et al., 2007). Servant leadership is premised upon these two philosophies in the sense that it emphasizes that a leader places the interests of an organisation’s stakeholders above his personal interests.

2.7.4 The Upper Echelon Theory (UET)

One of the most widely reviewed and acclaimed researches on upper echelon theory was written by Hambrick and Mason in 1984, which was published in volume 9, issue 3 of the *Academy of Management Review* (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). Their research provided an
interesting conceptual framework for upper echelon theory; hence, they were commended by the editorial team of the *Academy of Management Review*, who persuaded the authors to further elaborate on the theory (Hambrick, 2007). In their original article Hambrick and Mason (1984) claimed that performance and other organisational outcomes depended to a large extent on top management team’s cognitive ability and value system. Their stance opposes earlier views on upper echelon theorists whose belief was that organisational outcomes are determined only by top executives or Chief Executive Officers (CEOs), and that these outcomes depend on the chief executive officers’ social, mental and intellectual capabilities.

Based on dominant coalition, the upper echelon theory suggests that organisational performance and other related outcomes are products of those vested with the power and authority to make strategic changes (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). These people who are sometimes referred to as Top Management Team (TMT), CEOs or Team Membership (TM) of organisations, are often recognized by the hierarchical positions they occupy in the work place. Thus, by analysing their behaviour, one can have a sound understanding of why organisations respond to issues differently. To further substantiate their claim, Hambrick and Mason (1984) provided a model of upper echelon theory which shows the interaction between executives’ visible and invisible characteristics vis-à-vis perceived organisations’ performance. This model is presented below in Figure 2-4.

The model shows the total managerial characteristics that influences management decision-making process in an organisation. These include the visible characteristics of executive such as financial status, social class, age, educational level, while the invisible (cognitive) characteristics include executives’ belief and value system (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). However, the authors fail to explicitly show the effects of the cognitive characteristics on the decision making process, thus they assumed that organisations’ performance are directly linked to their CEOs or Top Management Team (TMT) visible characteristics (Carpenter, Geletkanycz, & Sanders, 2004). A good understanding of all the variables within the interactive process is not only necessary, but can possibly serve as key indicators for predicting organisational performance, and how this can effectively be measured. The effects of these variables on the decision making process can easily be determined by examining individual manager’s characteristics.
In their model, Hambrick and Mason (1984) identified two key decision areas found in any organisation and these are strategic and operational decisions areas. Strategic decisions are made on very sensitive aspects of an organisation such as policies, capital budgetary decisions and sourcing for funds. Due to the nature of sensitivity, these decisions are made solely by top-level managers or CEOs of organisations whereas, operational decisions are made by departmental or heads of operations. Since they are made more regularly than strategic decisions, decision-making at this level tend to be more decentralized. Examples of operational decisions include sales, credit and inventory management decisions (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). Even though, Hambrick and Mason (1984) model offered a well-grounded conceptual framework upon which later supporters of the upper echelon theory built on, it failed to address the impact of employees and other micro environmental factors on organisations’ performance. This is a major drawback of their model.
Figure 2-4: The Upper Echelon Theory

The objective situation
(external and internal)

Upper Echelon Characteristics

Psychological
Cognitive base
Value

Observable
Age
Functional tracks
Other career experiences
Education
Socioeconomic roots
Financial position
Group characteristics

Strategic choices
Product innovation
Unrelated diversification
Acquisition
Capital intensity
Plant and equipment newness
Backward integration
Forward integration
Financial leverage
Administrative complexity
Response time

Performance
Profitability variations
Profitability
Growth
Survival

Hambrick and Mason (1984, p. 198)
This drawback seemed to portray their model as being a closed system needing no interactions with the wider societal network, disregarding that the importance of viewing organisations as open system is inviolable. Organisations are viewed as open systems and their constant interdependency with the environment goes a long way in determining their growth and survival. Furthermore, the model failed to clearly show feedback mechanisms for the flow of information. Hence, what the authors ignored in their study was later addressed by Carpenter et al. (2004). These authors provided a more detailed and comprehensive review of the components of the upper echelon theory, as presented below in Figure 2-5. By showing interconnections between environmental factors and specific organisations’ characteristics vis-à-vis management visible and invisible characteristics, Carpenter et al. (2004) conquered some of the drawbacks of Hambrick and Mason’s model.

Extant literature on upper echelon theory was critically reviewed by Carpenter et al. (2004) to determine prospects and problems of the upper echelon model which was developed by Hambrick and Mason. The significance of their article was that of canvassing for the universal acceptability of Top Management Team (TMT) theory. Thus, Carpenter et al. (2004) suggested that instead of focusing exclusively on chief executive officers, upper echelon theory researchers should also include the top management team as units of analysis so as to provide a comprehensive analysis of organisational performance (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). This was a welcomed idea for upper echelon theorists especially when previous studies tend to focus more on CEOs’ characteristics until TMT was popularized by Hambrick and Mason (1984).

Moreover, it was shown that top management team is also involved in the managerial decision making process alongside CEOs. Therefore, ‘TMT should be given sufficient attention and be included in the organisations’ performance narrative (Carpenter et al., 2004; Hambrick, 2007). However, for the purpose of understanding executives’ characteristics in great detail, this thesis is premised upon Hambrick and Mason (1984) proposed version of the upper echelon theory because, it provides the foundation upon which later versions were developed.
Figure 2-5: The Upper Echelon Theory

Antecedents

External Environment
- External stakeholders
- External managerial labor markets
- Environmental characteristics

Organizational
- Firm characteristics
- Board characteristics
- Internal labor markets

Theoretical Constructs Proxied by TMT Demographics
- Skills and orientations or social
- Cognitions cognitions
- Behavioral Propensities
- Access to information
- Access to resources
- Human capital
- Social capital
- Relative status within TMT or across firms
- Heir apparent

Moderators/Mediators of TMT Demographics Effects
- Power
- Discretion
- Incentives
- Integration
- Team processes

Organizational Outcome

Strategic
- Business
- Corporate
- International
- Change
- Strategic interactions
- Policies

Performance
- Financial
- Market
- Social
- Innovation

TMT/Board
- Turnover
- Composition

Carpenter et al. (2004, p. 760)
Specifically, Carpenter et al. (2004) findings revealed that upper echelon theory is of strategic importance to all organisations because every organisation experiences the effects of executives’ characteristics on firms’ outcome. Hambrick (2007) also emphasized on the importance of upper echelon theory to firms as he disabuses the view that this theory is an attempt to show case executive talents. Empirical research (Lieberson & O’Connor, 1972) revealed that executives’ contribution leads to a significant increase in firms’ performance, and that studying the executives to understand their dynamics in an organisation should not be taken for granted. Lieberson and O’Connor (1972) opined that both executives and top management team account for between five to twenty per cent increase in organisations’ profit level. While top management teams are responsible for a greater percentage of this increase, executives’ contribution is equally significant.

The theory also suggests that regardless of being influential factors in the decision-making process, executives, managers and leaders are all mortals beings (Hambrick, 2007), and as such are bound to make mistakes. Hence they are likely to seek the help of others (subordinates) without entertaining fear of being ridiculed by their subordinates. By acknowledging this, management are humbled and are constantly reminded that leading takes a collaborative effort. This attitude seems to reflect the underlying tenets of servant leadership. All the theories tend to provide the theoretical base for servant leadership as they expressly show how leaders’ cognitive ability and other behavioural elements interact to shape their leadership styles in organisations.

However, research on the upper echelon theory is not limited to top executives or top management team alone as this is likely to present a fragmented view of the population of any given study. This study focuses on a combination of top executives and top management team (TMT), as these seem to provide the basis for analysing organisational performance. With the hope that the dis-oriented nature of leadership research, absence of effective leadership principles in HEIs and, the paucity of research on servant leadership and HEIs might thoroughly be addressed. Research (Finkelstein, Hambrick, & Cannella, 2009; Peterson et al., 2012) has shown that leaders’ cognitive and demographic factors such as age, gender and position shape leaders behavioural pattern towards the organisation as well as employees perception about leaders and the organisation.
2.7.5 Upper Echelon Theory and Servant Leadership

Since the upper echelon theory suggests that organisational outcomes are products of executives’ characteristics- cognitive attributes, which in turn are also shaped by the executives demographic factors (Carpenter et al., 2004), servant leadership could possibly be a by-product of these characteristics. However, while the theory focuses mainly on top executives of an organisation, which could be seen as one major weakness of the upper echelon theory, this study proposes that the characteristics can be exhibited by virtually anyone who that is occupying leadership position.

2.8 Justifications for Using Theories/Gaps in Existing Literature

Incidentally, the use of theories in this research goes against the tenets of the classical (Glaserian) version of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), since this version prohibits the use of existing literature, including theories, in any study that adopts grounded theory as its methodology (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This is to allow for the emergence of new theories, embedded within the data, to be discovered. However, with the researchers’ shift from the classical version to the evolved version— that is (Charmaz, 2006) constructivist version, of grounded theory, it is imperative to use theories as well as existing literature. For the purpose of fully understanding the subject matter (servant leadership) of this study, two different theories namely work motivation (Herzberg Two-factor) and upper echelon theories, are used in this thesis.

Both theories serve to complement each other. Studies on work motivation often tend to focus more on understanding the influence of external factors, such as pay and other forms of benefits, on individuals’ work-related behaviour, than on their internal psychological drives (Klein, 1989). Thus, the upper echelon theory was used to overcome the weaknesses of work motivation theories, by way of addressing leaders’ psychological attributes. Upper echelon theory is likely to present useful insights into the behaviour and functioning of servant-led organisations. Particularly, with regards to how leadership impacts on subordinates’ behaviour translates to positive results in an organisation, since “it is the leader who models service by humbly serving the led, rather than expecting to be served by them” (Graham, 1991, p. 111).
In view of these arguments, one cannot help but wonder how else this leadership approach could be explored to arrive at meaningful conclusions, other than through the lenses of the upper echelon theory? Upper echelon theory, in particular, lends itself to the type of research strategy (grounded theory) adopted in this study. A detailed explanation of this strategy is provided in chapter 3, which addresses all methodological choices of the study. Furthermore, the use of theories enhances, while at the same time, deepens the theoretical sensitivity of the researcher’s attitude towards understanding the nuances of servant leadership. Again, a detailed explanation of the researcher’s theoretical sensitivity is also presented in the analysis section in chapter 4 of this thesis (see section 4.2).

From the reviewed literature, one might argue that leadership research in general is still very much disoriented (Bolden & Petrov, 2014), despite being one of the most investigated concept in academia (Masood, Dani, Burns, & Backhouse, 2006) and that, the search for effective leadership principles in HEIs is very slow (Polleys, 2002). Hence, leading to the absence of effective leadership principles in Higher Education Institutions (Bryman & Lilley, 2009; Lumby, 2012). UK Higher Education Institutions, on the other hand, is faced with serious tension as a result of changes and on-going restructuring within the sector (Bolden, Petrov, & Gosling, 2008). One of the changes has to do with the marketisation of these institutions (Newman & Jahdi, 2009), as such as, it is believed that these changes are likely to have significant implications for faculty members, leaders of these institutions and the institutions themselves (Bolden et al., 2008).

It was also revealed that servant leadership is researched more in other types of organisations than Higher Education Institutions; hence it might be needful to scrutinize extant literature on this leadership construct for purposes of gaining contextual knowledge and understanding. The literature showed that servant leadership has been relatively explored using work motivational theories, but only little account was given concerning servant leadership and the upper echelon theory. Qualitative research, exploring servant leadership and the upper echelon theory is very scanty till date, only one empirical study, conducted by Peterson et al. (2012), explored servant leadership using the lenses of the upper echelon theory. In the research, the authors investigated the effects of four variables, namely servant leadership behaviour of Chief Executive Officers (CEOs), their narcissistic tendencies, organisational identification and founder status, on organisations’ performance.
Since the emphasis of their study was on the examination of the relationship among the three variables, Peterson et al. (2012) took a quantitative approach towards addressing the issues of concern in their article. While the authors took a quantitative approach at addressing servant leadership, using the upper echelon theory, this thesis takes a qualitative grounded theory approach thus, providing robust information needed to address this contemporary leadership construct. The service-oriented nature of servant leadership suggests that this leadership approach might have great potentials for understanding the power dynamics in Higher Education Institutions. Arguably, research on servant leadership is skewed, mostly adopting quantitative methods in exploring this leadership construct.

In a recent study, out of the thirty-nine peer-reviewed articles on servant leadership, which were systematically reviewed by Parris and Peachey (2013), only one-third adopted qualitative methods. Twenty-seven of the articles conducted quantitative studies, whereas only one adopted a mixed methods design, suggesting that the servant leadership construct had been explored mostly from an objectively quantitative point of view. In view of these findings, exploring the construct qualitatively within the Higher Education context is seen as a novel gesture. More importantly, there are no distinct leadership principles guiding these institutions (Bryman & Lilley, 2009; Lumby, 2012; Wheeler, 2012), which informs the rationale for conducting this study. The purpose of this study is to develop and present a leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions, while the five objectives of the study are;

1. To clearly identify leaders in Higher Education Institutions.
2. To describe their leadership orientations.
3. To know existing leadership practices in these institutions.
4. To conceptualise a leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions.
5. To suggest leadership approaches suitable for managing HEIs.

2.9 Summary of the Chapter

Chapter 2 of this thesis, addresses two main issues; one was the literature on servant leadership and Higher Education Institutions, while the other focuses on the overarching theories of the study. The evolution of servant leadership from Greenleaf’s initial conceptualisation to contemporary views was also discussed, but first by identifying some commonly researched leadership theories before tracing the historical background of servant
leadership. The chapter also examined the relationship between servant leadership, contemporary leadership theories, and organisational performance using both conceptual and empirical studies and, then reviewing the literature on Higher Education Institutions as service organisations.

Thereafter, an overview of the economic contributions of Higher Education Institutions to the UK Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and, the unique culture of Higher Education Institutions was presented. Particularly, with respect to how and why Higher Education Institutions’ culture seems to be different from other service organisations. The chapter also addresses the relationship, if any, between servant leadership and Higher Education Institutions and, further argues that the absence of, and search for, effective leadership principles in HEIs, is slow due to two main reasons. The first reason is due to lack of clear composition of who the leaders are in this sector while the second has to do with insufficient knowledge of what ‘effective leadership’ means in this sector.

Building on the works of Taylor et al. (2007), this thesis argues that ‘effective leadership’ is one that rests on two opposing philosophies — service to employees and service to the organisation. It also argues that leaders’ psychological/cognitive and behavioural elements interact to shape servant leadership behaviour in individuals, as demonstrated by the two overarching theories — Herzberg Two-factor theory and Upper Echelon theory. Having reviewed the literature extensively, the next chapter, 3, addresses the methodological concerns of this study, including the research journey/identity, legitimacy of the study, ethics, and role of the researcher.
Chapter 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the methodological concerns that are relevant to this research. For purposes of clarifications, the chapter began with an overview of the research design. It is divided into four broad sections. Section one dealt with the research strategy and debate on whether or not; there exists any difference between qualitative and quantitative research methods. Thereafter, the researcher took a position on the particular research design that was adopted in this study, and provided the rationale for choosing this particular design. The second section addressed the researcher’s philosophical position of this study, beginning with a general overview of what constitute reality, and moving on to objects of social inquiry. While the third section addresses the population of the study, sampling technique and the sample size for the study as well as the rationale for choosing these methodological designs. Data collection method and analysis forms the last section of the chapter, and was followed by an account of the code of conduct (ethics) guiding the study.

The fourth section of the chapter presents a detailed account of collecting the study’s data, interpreting it, as well as, the entire analytical processes involved throughout the research journey. This chapter commenced by examining an account of students’ representatives’ opinion about who a leader is with Higher Education Institutions, as contained in a pilot study. It addresses the population of the research; sampling procedures, sample size instrumentation and, data analytical tools. It also treated issues of trustworthiness and authenticity of this research while the chapter concluded with an examination of role of the researcher in ensuring the successful completion of the research. A brief summary of the entire chapter in the form of conclusion is also provided at the end of the chapter.

3.1 Research Design

Research design refers to a blueprint which describes the entire research process from inception to its final conclusion (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). Basically, there are two approaches towards conducting any research, which are qualitative and quantitative approaches, including mixed methods research design. Though differences between the two approaches have been the subject of philosophical debates among social science researchers as a result of similar characteristics between both approaches, this has not deterred researchers from using each approach as a separate research tool. Their similarities are so clear that it can be misleading to separate one from the other. No wonder, adopting both
qualitative and quantitative approaches (mixed methodology) produces good results (Gorard, 2010), than using any of them separately. While this might be the reason why mixed methodology is very common among research in the social sciences (Sandelowski, 2014), some scholars hold that no research should sorely be categorized into either qualitative or quantitative research (Allwood, 2012).

Generally, every research has a qualitative aspect to it (Voils, Sandelowski, & Knafl, 2009), and that the difference between the two methodologies, particularly in a social context, depends, more or less, on the type of phenomenon that is being considered (David & Sutton, 2011). Nevertheless, according to David & Sutton (2011), words are the major source of metadata in qualitative research. This type of research usually adopts an inductive, interpretivist and unquantifiable approach towards collecting and analysing research data. Whereas, the quantitative method adopts a statistical, deductive and quantifiable approach in handling and utilising research data. Studies (Allwood, 2012; Voils et al., 2009) have arguably shown that all researchable topics can be explored either quantitatively or qualitatively, depending on the researcher’s philosophical positions as well as the nature of the topic that is being investigated (Creswell & Tashakkori, 2007; Worrell, Franz, & Vögele, 2013).

While researchers’ philosophical assumptions strategically inform this decision, the nature of the phenomenon plays a crucial role in enabling the process. Thus, it seems the decision to choose one over the other depends on how well the phenomenon can be understood, and how it fits into the context of the study. In view of these propositions, this thesis adopts a qualitative research design to understand the intricacies of the phenomena (servant leadership) that is being investigated. Qualitative methods depend on the use of written and/or oral words and texts to provide the bases of the analysis of a research process. This method often describes peoples’ attributes, values and preferences that cannot necessarily be measured using statistical tools, but which can only be inferred (Ronald, 1996; Ryan, 2009).

By offering robust explanations, through which research concepts are usually investigated and clearly understood, qualitative research has the potential of increasing the quality of leadership studies (Geertz, 1973 cited in Klenke, 2008). This research design avails researchers the opportunity of seeing themselves as part and parcel of the knowledge creation process consequently; researchers are actively involved all through the process (Klenke, 2008). Klenke (2008) opined that qualitative research design is the right medium
for participants to share their real life experiences without external influences and interference.

3.1.1 Research Strategy

There are different approaches towards conducting qualitative research studies. Five of the most commonly used approaches in the social sciences are; case studies, grounded theory, phenomenology, biographic approach (also known as narrative research), and ethnography (Creswell, 2009). Specifically, the approach to adopt depends, among other things, on the nature of the research problem, method of study and design type, however, all are suitable for conducting qualitative studies where little or nothing is known about the concept being investigated (Creswell, 2014). In view of these arguments, this research is premised upon the guiding principles of grounded theory. Believing that, leadership behaviour can possibly be explained and understood by generating theories from field data.

Drawing from various sources of literature, such as theoretical frameworks and empirical studies to get deeper insights of servant leadership, the researcher relied upon Corbin and Strauss (2008) version of grounded theory to address the issues of concern in this study. The purpose of this study is to develop and present a leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions, while the five objectives of the study are;

1. To clearly identify leaders in Higher Education Institutions.
2. To describe their leadership orientations.
3. To know existing leadership practices in these institutions.
4. To conceptualise a leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions.
5. To suggest leadership approaches suitable for managing HEIs.

3.1.2 Grounded Theory

Grounded theory research strategy describes the use of different sources of literature by researchers for deeply understanding the variables in a study. Especially, when the aim of the research is not to develop theories, but rather to “elaborate and extend existing theory” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 12). It is hoped that the knowledge obtained from this research will helps towards advancing and extending research on servant leadership in the Higher Education sector. In its simplest term, Grounded Theory (GT) refers to the process of investigating a phenomenon from field data, as well as the outcome of the investigation
process itself (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). This definition literally refutes earlier notions (Charmaz, 2003a, 2003b) of grounded theory as solely a technique for analysing field data. Some authors are of the opinion that grounded theory had been erroneously used in the past to mean any qualitative study involving some form of coding techniques (Hood, 2007).

To date, some researchers still indulge in the practice of adopting grounded theory to analyse, not just primary data, but secondary data as well. Goddard, Assad, Issa, Malagila, and Mkasiwa (2015) are among such researchers. The authors’ research design consists of a mixture of both qualitative and quantitative data such as in-depth interviews; financial statements, personal observations, budgets and minutes form meetings. Leaving one to question whether or not, such studies are qualitatively or quantitatively-inclined. These widely held misconceptions of grounded theory are quite common. Likewise, strong supporters (Charmaz, 2006) of grounded theory have had to question the potency and applicability of this research strategy with respect to the creation of theory from field data. This undue emphasis on generating theories inductively is a major weakness of grounded theory. While no qualitative study is completely free from having some form of deductive reasoning (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008), these arguments have come to suggest that grounded theory literally means the creation of ‘something’ from ‘nothingness’.

In view of these arguments, it is believed that this research approach is just a mere “epistemological fairytale” (Wacquant, 2002, p. 1481). Theory generation has been, and still remains, the major characteristic feature of any grounded theory research activity (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1994), and is an important aspect of conducting research, especially in organisational studies (Eisenhardt, 1989). As an approach towards conducting qualitative studies, grounded theory was selected to help elucidate servant leadership behaviour in Higher Education Institutions. It was observed from the literature review that there is lack of studies in this area particularly in the UK setting. In other words, the exclusive use of grounded theory for developing new concepts as opposed to the validation and/or clarifications of existing concepts (Locke, 1996), hinders its full operationalization. While the context of the study is as important as the concept, which is being explored, adopting grounded theory is not an attempt to de-emphasise the significance of context in this research.

Thus, placing a serious challenge on the researcher, to explore other alternative methods of conducting qualitative studies such as case studies, ethnography and action research. Case
study design could have been an appropriate research methodology to adopt especially as the research intends to examine the “how and what” questions consistent with Yin (2014) propositions. Yin (2014) clearly proposed three pre-conditions necessary for researchers to adopt case study designs. First, the research questions should be such that contain the “how” questions, and second, when it is quite impossible for the researcher to influence the variables of the study. The third reason is that the phenomenon must be an up-to-date (contemporary) concept, although with historical foundation. As far as this research is concerned, servant leadership is regarded as a new leadership approach that is still very much in vogue. Case studies are quite useful especially when the researcher’s intention is towards generating new theories, testing, reinforcing and/or contesting existing ones (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Jack & Kholeif, 2007).

While case study would have been an ideal research design to adopt in this study, it was not chosen because the researcher’s interest was deeply rooted in expounding the concept of servant leadership, rather than on the context of the study. Moreover, case studies are usually not linked with the inductive approach of conducting research (Whittington, 1989 cited in Bryman & Bell, 2011), which underpins the tenets of this study. Consequently, the researcher depended on grounded theory to collect data for the study. In spite of the misrepresentations of grounded theory, it was chosen due to its suitability for most research within the social sciences (Glaser, 1978). Apart from bringing the researcher closer to the data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008), the strength of grounded theory lies in its ability to generate and verify theories at the same time during the course of conducting a research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This unique characteristic of grounded theory makes it more appealing than other forms of research designs where theories are basically prescribed.

However, the existence of different versions of grounded theory (see Figure 4-1) could possibly be seen as one major weakness of grounded theory research strategy. Each version is premised upon the proponents’ differing philosophical assumptions (Hutchison, Johnston, & Breckon, 2010). Thus, rather than building a consensus, these different versions suggest that opinions on grounded theory are increasingly diverging. While on the other side, this can be seen as an avenue to question the viability of grounded theory as a research approach in terms of determining which version is more effective and superior to others. Regardless of the version that is being adopted, there is a general understanding that grounded theory
studies tend to address the following key components namely theoretical sensitivity, literature, data analytical technique, coding, theoretical sampling and memoing (Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006).

### 3.1.3 Different Versions of Grounded Theory

The existence of different versions of grounded theory, as shown in Figure 4-1, avail researchers the opportunity to choose which of the two versions, whether classical or modified versions, best informs their research philosophy. These different versions are illustrated below in Figure 4-1. The classical version, also referred to as the Glaserian version, strongly lays emphasis on the generation of theories through inductive means, and sees this as the most critical factor guiding any grounded theory research (Glaser, 1978; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Contrary to this view, the evolved version, pioneered by Strauss and Corbin, and Charmaz, believe that the classical version places a limitation to the use of grounded theory. Premised upon Glaser (1978) ideas, Strauss and Corbin (1998) took a step further away from focusing on theory generation- creating novel theoretical insights, to the verification and/or modification of existing theories.

**Figure 3-1: Different Versions of Grounded Theory**

![Diagram of different versions of grounded theory](image)

Source: (Barnett, 2012; Charmaz, 2008; Mills et al., 2006; Morse, 2009)

These two authors believe that verifying existing theories is as important as discovering novel theories, as is expected of a grounded theory research endeavour (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998). This dimension of approaching grounded theory studies challenges relying on novelty by researchers in order to validate the potency of their
Critics of the classical version are of the opinion that “induction does not logically lead to novel theoretical insights” (Timmermans & Tavory, 2012, p. 167). Charmaz constructivist version suggests that theories and knowledge are non-existent without researchers’ involvement and that the researcher is part and parcel of the knowledge creation process (Charmaz, 2006, 2008; Seidel & Urquhart, 2013). Though theory generation is the crux of grounded theory research (Glaser, 1999), but for purposes of understanding a study’s phenomenon (Barnett, 2012; Charmaz, 2008; Morse, 2009), this thesis is based on the constructivist version of grounded theory.

3.1.4 Constructivist Grounded Theory (CGT)

One key reason for adopting grounded theory in this thesis is that, grounded theory lends itself to the interpretivist or constructivist philosophical position (Charmaz, 2005; Mills et al., 2006) which informs this study’s research philosophy. Instead of focusing on the procedures for conducting a research, adopting the constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 1990, 2003b) avails the researcher the opportunity to focus on the significance of the underpinning variables or concepts of a research study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). The constructivist approach to grounded theory focuses more on the phenomenon being studied than on the means of studying it, hence its techniques are used to inform the researcher’s understanding of a concept or phenomenon (Charmaz, 2005). Thus, by offering “predictions, explanations, interpretations and applications” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 1), grounded theory helps to understand the ontological assumptions of social realities which this research explores.

Examples of social realities within Higher Education Institutions include; leaders, their attitudes, beliefs and the leadership process as a whole (Mason, 1996). Hence, the emphasis of this research is not only on generating a servant leadership-informed theory, although bearing in mind that the “hallmark of good theory is parsimony” (Eisenhardt, 1989, p. 547), but on the contextual reinforcement of servant leadership within UK context, as earlier discussed in the literature. Since servant leadership has been considerably explored in other industrial settings, it might be interesting to know if the experience is the same within the UK Higher Education Institutions or not. Thus, the constructivist version avails the researcher the opportunity to actively engage with the study’s data and with the participants in the co-creation of knowledge through the co-construction of participants’ lived experiences and realities of the social world.
3.2 Research Philosophy

Even though research philosophy is not a yardstick for determining a good study, research philosophy is a very crucial aspect of any research. It does account for the dependability and trustworthiness of the research (Bunniss & Kelly, 2010). However, this depends largely on, whether or not; the researcher assumes a constructivist and/or interpretivist, positivist, pragmatist or realist position (Henn, Weinstein, & Foard, 2006). Since the researcher forms part and parcel of the knowledge creation process, this research is based on the constructivism philosophical stance. This is where researchers try to interpret and reasonably construct what happens around them by way of listening, watching and observing happenings around them, particularly as they communicate with their study’s participants (Bunniss & Kelly, 2010). It is also referred to as the interpretivist philosophical paradigm. Even though one recognises that this study can be guided by other research philosophies, social constructivism was considered specifically for exploring the contextual intricacies of the overarching phenomenon (servant leadership) of this research.

Thus, the researcher understands that as a social phenomenon and outcome of human interactions, leadership reflects the interdependency of leaders, followers and the context within which leadership emerges (Alvesson & Spicer, 2014). Hence, adopting the social constructivism philosophy to address the concept of leadership may arguably be the best approach for investigating the servant leadership narrative in this thesis. Besides enhancing good understanding of different styles of leadership, social constructivism lends itself to the pertinent issues of this research. One of which is, the recognition of the presence of multiple realities as constructed by people within a social relationship. All individuals are guided by their value system and experience in defining what reality means to them hence, leading to the construction of different and/or multiple realities.

Nevertheless, this researcher’s philosophical position is strongly guided by four underlying suppositions as stated by Burr (1995). The first supposition is that the social constructivism paradigm supports the use of proactive measures towards investigating concepts that are difficult to investigate using other philosophical paradigms. This study is premised upon the understanding that despite the increasing number of leadership research conducted over the years, the concept is yet to be fully understood (Prilipko, Antelo, & Henderson, 2011) thus, resulting in the skewed nature of leadership research. The researcher believes that due to existing differences in people’s attitude and value system, interpretations of what constitutes
reality is bound to differ from one individual to another. A person’s thinking patterns, as learnt from childhood, differs from one individual to the next (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005), hence there are bound to be multiple connotations of reality. This supposition seems to coincide with Mason (1996) recognition of the existence of different accounts of objects of social inquiry.

Supporters of social constructivism recognise the existence of differing ontological viewpoints within a particular research (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 2002). Even though actors in a social relationship can possibly create reality, some aspects of reality would naturally exist independent of external influences. The second is that individuals’ interpretations of concepts and things depend on their ability to constantly interact with other people who are in a social relationship. This suggests that leadership does not exist outside a social context, even as we (researcher and the participants of this study) constantly try to construct reality various perspectives. Leading to the third supposition, which states that knowledge or epistemology is created each time individuals engage in constant interactions with one another. The fourth supposition suggests that social interactions and knowledge creation occurs concurrently.

Furthermore, there is a consensus that researchers can investigate the concept primarily from the social constructivism perspective whilst adhering to some ontological and epistemological propositions (Crevani et al., 2010). Interestingly, these propositions are further expressed within two different leadership schools of thought. School one comprises of researchers who explore the concept of leadership based on the skills and abilities possessed by a leader, while school two include those that focus on leadership styles and processes adopted by individual leaders. Due to these divergent opinions, Levy, Carroll, and Richmond (2008) decided to create a pathway for leadership researchers to follow. They suggested that the concept of leadership is better off being explored from the practices and styles adopted by leaders rather than the skills and attitudes of the leaders.

Again, this shows that the concept of leadership has different ontological suppositions. One of which is that leadership activities often resonate in terms of organisational outcomes such as workers’ commitment, performance and trust (Drath et al., 2008). While many researchers (Cerit, 2009; Choudhary et al., 2012; Peterson et al., 2012) seem to have extensively explored these outcomes in relation to servant leadership, this thesis goes beyond identifying servant leadership characteristics among HEIs’ leadership practices, to
developing a servant leadership informed theory with which service firms like HEIs could be properly managed.

### 3.2.1 Ontological Position of the Researcher

Between the two extreme research philosophies — subjectivism and objectivism, guiding any research in the social sciences (Searle, 1995) exist others such as realism, pragmatism, interpretivism and relativism. Thus, on one end of the continuum lie the objectivists who believe in the existence of a single reality separate from any external influences. Reality itself is construed as non-dynamic and static, as such, its connotations are not affected by space and time. Thus, it seems that this philosophical paradigm believe in a one best way of addressing social phenomena, which of course happens to be objectivism. On the other extreme of the continuum lies the subjectivist whose underlying assumptions permit the existence of multiple realities. Reality itself is a product of what a person sees and feels hence, it is hard to offer a single definition of what it is. This is because individuals define and interpret reality differently from one another.

Ironically, the different paradigms are adopted in both qualitative and quantitative studies, since they are either complementing one another, or competing against each other (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). In view of this belief, defining reality is somehow fuzzy and depends very much on what aligns with a person’s belief system. Reality, therefore, is based on whatever coincides with an individual’s belief system, and is bound to change from one leader to the other. Consequently, as mortal beings (Hambrick, 2007), leaders are likely to narrate events differently from one another. All these have further demonstrated that reality indeed consists of very complex but well-structured arrangements of enduring activities (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). This, to a large extent, defines the ontology of leadership in this thesis with respect to the subjectivism-objectivism debate, and the researcher’s ontological stance is premised upon this divide.

In a broader sense, ontology describes how events and people are being accessed within any research (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). It refers to aspects of what is real so as to enable one assess the viability of the choice of method that one decides to adopt (Pratten, 2007). This research acknowledges that leadership studies often adopt a scientific hence objective approach (Hansen, Ropo, & Sauer, 2007) towards exploring the concept. Thus, disregarding the possibility that every ontological-objective situation (see Figure 3-2 below) has a
corresponding subjective dimension (Searle, 1995). Hence, the researcher’s ontological-objective stance is that regardless of size and status, leadership as a socially constructed phenomenon (Berger & Luckmann, 1966), exists in all types of institutions, whether organized and/or unorganized (Smircich & Morgan, 1982).

**Figure 3-2: Researcher's Ontologically Objective/Subjective Positions**

Furthermore, different leadership approaches exist in organisations regardless of the type of organisation, and the type of leader and/or follower. The researcher’s ontological-subjective stance is that leadership is an enduring, socially constructed, and interactive process (Drath et al., 2008) whose reality is void outside of this process. Another ontological-subjectivism position is that leaders often adopt different leadership approaches depending on the situation that they find themselves. Consequently, it is often difficult to determine the effectiveness of a leader who uses a particular leadership approach, from another who uses a different kind of approach. This is because key indicators such as organisational performance (in terms of productivity, labour turnover, trust and workers’ commitment) often measure leadership effectiveness. Despite the existence of different leadership approaches, authors often look at leaders’ competences and/or their skills when addressing the concept (Bolden & Gosling, 2006; Gronn, 2002).

However, since leadership skills, processes and competences are rooted within a multifaceted web (Crevani et al., 2010), there is no need for researchers to focus on just an aspect of the leadership process. The objectivism-subjectivism divide has clearly shown the researcher’s philosophical position though with some major implications. Crevani et al. (2010) maintained that leadership ontology presents specific challenges to researchers for three reasons. One, researchers might find it hard combining both process-based and
practice-based leadership models even though they are interconnected. Two, it is hard to simply capture leadership as a concept due to its abstract nature and, the third reason is that, there are time and space limitations concerning the elements within the leadership equation such as the leader, follower and the interactive process.

Notwithstanding, the researcher’s ontological perspective helps to address leadership in its totality, both in theory and in practice based on the assumption that both dimensions have significant implications on this thesis. While the process-based dimension seems inviolable in any leadership study, this thesis is interested in trying to understand the cognitive skills — values and beliefs, of leaders, as portrayed in the upper echelon theory’s leaders demographic characteristics. These cognitive skills belong to the practice-based dimension. The thesis also takes into cognisance that even though certain aspects of reality are products of human intervention, others such as earth and sky, exist without human intervention. Therefore, based on the above arguments, this thesis is guided by three different types of realities — reality of the researcher, the participants and the interactive leadership process as presented below in Figure 3-3.

**Figure 3-3: The Three Realities Guiding this Research**

![Figure 3-3: The Three Realities Guiding this Research](image)

Reality of the *researcher* hinges on how she perceived things and how she relates with those around her, as well as the study’s participants, which happens to be a function of her unique personality and experiences. Since personality is unstable as it moves constantly in-between the states of dynamism-stability, how she views reality might be different from participants’ point of view. Her definition of reality depended very much on how she was able to relate
with the objects of her research. Blumer (1969) suggests that objects in any given research study exists in these three dimensions; physical objects, abstract objects and social objects. Physical objects are those that can be touched while abstracts objects include the norms, beliefs and traditions of people. Social objects on the other hand refer to the constant interaction among groups of people within a social relationship. However, this study simultaneously explored abstract and social objects.

With respect to this research, abstract objects include the beliefs, values and attitudes of individual leaders as they interact with other elements within the leadership process. Whereas social objects, on the other hand, consists of relationships and inter-relationships between and among the elements that are in the leadership process. Consequently, she foresaw the need to foster good communication with participants, which is crucial to the proper understanding and conceptualisation of the relationships and objects of this study (the participants). Hence, she adopted symbolic interactionism and reflexivity to infer so as to arrive at reasonable conclusions possibly without much prejudice. Symbolic interaction describes how people interpret things during an interactive session (Shibutani, 1955).

Reflexivity on the other hand describes the researchers’ ability to critically understand and fully appreciate the views and values of the participants in a research study (Henn et al., 2006), by way of laying aside any pre-conceived ideas/beliefs that researchers may have had prior to the commencement of the study. Likewise, in other to facilitate the iterative process of this qualitative study, the researcher ensured flexibility in the reflexivity process because participants’ interpretations of objects differ among each participant (Aldiabat & Navenec, 2011). Albeit, symbolic interaction is not presented in this thesis as a viable technique for exploring the behaviour of people who are engaged in a social interactive process (Homans, 1958). Participants’ reality, on the other hand, is more complex than the researcher’s reality because it is made up of multiple realities— summation of different individuals’ interpretations of how they view things.

Hence, it can be inferred that participants’ reality is constantly caught up within a multi-cultural web consisting of each participant’s belief, attitude and value. The reality of the interactive process is obscure especially when compared to that of the researcher and/or participants’ realities, possibly because it is beyond the control of the researcher. Given that reality changes with respect the researcher, participants, and the interactive process, the ontological constraint in this study would be her ability to make common sense from her
interactions with the objects of this study. Furthermore, since these realities represent mental constructions of the different elements within the leadership process, they ought to be made readily available in the broader scope of leadership ontology.

3.2.2 Epistemological Position of the Researcher

A study’s phenomenon in any given research plays significant role in determining a researcher’s philosophical positions (David & Sutton, 2011). Exploring the concept of leadership, particularly, as a process and/or as groups of individuals aligns with the ontology and epistemology perspectives of the social constructivism paradigm (Cunliffe, 2008). Hence, the researcher’s epistemological position is subject to her ontological suppositions and interpretations that the researcher has given to the abstract and social objects in this study. The researcher believes that she and the study’s participants are all involved in the co-creation of knowledge, and that knowledge itself is a by-product of the interactive process. She recognises that knowledge goes beyond facts which are known, and reality beyond the researchers’ comprehension, it also consists of thinking patterns which are built up over time due to experience (Richardson, 1950).

Knowledge from this study is made up of her interaction with participants and the interpretative meanings given to the objects in this study. Since her relationship with these objects is based on the value that they possess, there is no permanent meaning to any of the objects. Even as the meanings change with each participants of the study, they are retained again “through reconstruction” (Hansen et al., 2007, p. 553). Basically, epistemology deals with the observer and what he/she observes (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). It contains the knowledge bank of all that a researcher wants to explore (Mason, 1996) in his/her research study. Leadership epistemology therefore, goes beyond what is left to be known as far as leadership is concerned and how we can know it, to “the underlying values of knowledge” (Crevani et al., 2010, p. 80). The researcher’s epistemological position is thus addressed along the objectivism and subjectivism dichotomy.

Objectivism with regards to epistemology refers to obvious truths that might be bounded by time and space, whereas subjectivism with regards to epistemology refers to objects whose evidences are hard to prove (Searle, 1995). Therefore, the researcher decided to take a neutral position with respect to the subjectivism/objectivism debate of leadership epistemology. In view of this, there is no clear distinction between subjectivism and
objectivism since objects assume meanings relative to time and space. Instead, objectivism and subjectivism are negotiable positions (Searle, 1995), and have often referred to claims made by leaders in this study. Like the ontological constraints, earlier mentioned in the previous section, leadership epistemology poses certain limitations as observed by Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008).

A major challenge would then be the ability to construct standardized knowledge from the two conflicting worldviews— the mentally constructed world and the physical world. The underlying assumptions behind the two worlds are distinctively different, to a large extent (Arenhart, 2012). In the sense that while the mentally constructed world consists of objects or entities that are abstract in nature, the physical world comprises of objects whose existence does not depend on man’s activities. In other word, some aspects of reality such as social reality is a product of man’s construction (Searle, 1995) whereas, others occur naturally. Consequently, the researcher relied on one basic assumption that as a product of an interactive process, leadership comprises of diverse opinions. Some of which either agrees or disagrees with current debates in leadership research (Hosking, 2007).

This could be seen as one possible reason why, in spite of the numerous studies conducted so far, researchers are yet to fully understand and conceptualise the concept of leadership (Prilipko et al., 2011). A possible reason why there is an absence of good leadership models within the Higher Education sector. The next section captures the entire journey of this thesis, beginning with the metamorphosis of the topic towards conducting a pilot study, through which potential participants were identified.

3.3 The Research Journey and Identity

This research was born out of the researcher’s interest to further explore leadership research in UK Higher Education Institutions, an extension of her master’s dissertation, where she investigated international students’ perception on HEIs’ registration process. In the first year of the thesis, the researcher took a cultural perspective at understanding the servant leadership construct. The aim was to capture earlier research (Bass & Avolio, 1993b; Hassan et al., 2013) that every leadership situation does have an ethical or better still, a cultural implication to it. But, while reviewing the literature, it was discovered that employees working at service organisations, tend to prefer leadership approaches that promote support
work-culture. Hence, during the second year, the research topic became *towards creating a supportive work-culture in HEIs: A servant leadership perspective*.

The aim was to examine, in more detail, the cultural implication of servant leadership as a viable leadership tool for managing workplace diversity in multicultural organisations like Higher Education Institutions. However, this focused also changed during and after the data collection stage of the research journey, thus leading to the now captioned topic known as *conceptualisations of the Leading Manager Theory: Insights from Servant Leadership*. The Leading Manager Theory was proposed in this thesis to overcome the tendency of placing management above leadership and/or vice versa, as earlier discussed in the literature review (see section 2.2).

Identity, on the other hand, means different things to different people (Gee, 2000), but essentially it is a core element with which communication can be effectively managed (Kantanen, 2012) especially among researchers, their participants and the research data. According to Kantanen (2012) identity describes the uniqueness of a thing, people or an organisation. Many different forms of research identities can be found in academia, especially within the social sciences, which researchers usually assume to understudy a topic (Chard et al., 2014; Chard et al., 2016). These research identities include the qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods research identities. While the qualitative and quantitative identities describes unique and separate positions of inquiry, combining both identities is not only feasible but provides robust explanations of a subject matter (Ponterotto & Grieger, 1999).

Guided by this understanding, this thesis is based on the qualitative research identity, which potentially helps to develop the research identity of a researcher (Merchant & Dupuy, 1996). Qualitative research identity has to do with how a researcher is able to make meaning out of qualitative research design and/or data (Reisetter, Korcuska, Yexley, & Bonds, 2004). A major area of concern, as far as this thesis was concerned, was the decision to adopt a qualitative design as opposed to a quantitative. This also requires the ability of the researcher to systematically and critically develop the identity of a qualitative researcher, since she had earlier explored HEIs research quantitatively in her masters’ dissertation. Hence she considers this as a more familiar terrain to adopt than the qualitative design.
3.3.1 Pilot Study

Pilot studies are used to describe “mini versions of a full-scale study (also called ‘feasibility’ studies), as well as the specific pre-testing of a particular research instrument such as a questionnaire or interview schedule” (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002, p. 33). Pilot studies are used in both quantitative and qualitative research designs, and are used for a number of reasons; one of which is to check the potential feasibility of a study (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). Thus, in order to ascertain the consistency and potency of the interview schedule across the various participants (academics and non-academic), a pilot study was conducted with representatives of the Students’ Union (SU) governing body of university of Huddersfield. University of Huddersfield was selected considering the series of awards it had gotten over the past couple of years.

These include the 2014 Times Higher Education Best University Workplace, the 2013 Times Higher Education Award, the 2013 Queen’s Award for Enterprise Promotion, and the 2012 Times Higher Education Entrepreneurial University of the year award (Huddersfield, 2014). More importantly, the vice-chancellor of the university, Professor Bob Cryan, was also awarded the 2013 Guardian Higher Education Award for inspiring leader (Huddersfield, 2014). Certainly, these giant strides and awards obtained by this university might not be unconnected with the type of leadership style in this institution. The pilot study was conducted to ascertain the appropriateness of the interview schedule by way of identifying leadership composition in HEIs. Among other justifications, the interview schedule was pilot-tested for two main reasons. First, the pilot test helped to determine the suitability and authenticity of the questions in addressing the issues of concern in this study.

Second, it helped to reduce potential biases on the part of the researcher and lastly, the pilot study served as a deviant case to develop key criteria for identifying leaders within HEIs. This is because there is no consensus concerning who leaders are within the Higher Education sector, as this seems elusive. Due to the dual cultural nature of HEIs (Gill, 2011), the researcher thought it might be interesting to know if ‘leaders’ means the same kind of people for students, academics, and administrative staffs. All five executives of the students’ union governing body as well as Postgraduate Research (PGR) students’ representatives were approached to take part in the study. Out of which, three students’ union executives and a postgraduate representative willingly indicated interest to take part in the pilot study.
Hence, the pilot was based on responses from these four officials representing the entire university’s student population.

The criterion for selecting participants was based on the ease of accessibility of participants, cost constraints and ethical concerns of the researcher, consistent with Dattalo (2008) guidelines for selecting a sample size for a study. Students’ representatives were selected because they represent the more than two thousand students, at various levels, within and outside the university community. Students studying at the University of Huddersfield, look up to these representatives to channel complaints, and suggestions to the management of the institution. It is assumed that, from the students’ point of view, these representatives act as their leaders who in turn ensure that students’ interests are protected and fairly represented during board meetings. Instead of limiting discussions on leadership solely to university staff, these students’ representatives were selected to have unbiased information concerning the nature of leadership research in Higher Education Institutions.

The same sets of questions were presented to the students’ representatives in a face-to-face, audio-recorded in-depth interview, which lasted between thirty to forty-five minutes. All interviews were conducted within the students’ union complex, at an agreed date and time. The interview schedule (see Appendix G) was pilot tested using a sample of four (4) students’ representatives from the University of Huddersfield subject to their availability and their willingness to take part in the study. While the results from the pilot study were able to provide certain key criteria for identifying leaders within Higher Education Institutions, it also identified certain weaknesses concerning the interview schedule. The researcher and the supervisory team substantially addressed the weaknesses before actual data collection began. Key criteria for identifying leaders, as suggested by the students’ representatives are outlined below in table 3-1.

The table shows that students readily identified leaders in HEIs by virtue of the position that these people occupied in the institution. One of the weaknesses of the interview schedule was in the area of asking facilitating questions to prompt participants for further explanations. The initial interview schedule lacked questions that addressed specific issues as the interview progresses, instead of asking questions specifically to every main question; the interview schedule had sets of general questions. To correct this deficiency, the researcher asked participants “is there any other information you would like to share which I have not covered in our discussion? This open question thus, allowed the participants to talk
about almost anything they feel is important to make mention of during the course of the interview.

**Table 3-1: HEIs’ Leadership Categories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person Characteristics</th>
<th>Identification Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vice Chancellors</td>
<td>By Position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head of Departments</td>
<td>By Position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deans</td>
<td>By Position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Managers</td>
<td>By Position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Module Leaders</td>
<td>By Position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group Leaders</td>
<td>Charisma, Position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Representatives</td>
<td>Charisma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutors</td>
<td>Position, Charisma</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Pilot Data, 2015

Another weakness, of the interview schedule, was the non-categorisation of the questions. Initially, the interview schedule had ten questions, which generally addressed the research aim and objectives. But, after pilot testing it, the researcher thought it would be necessary to divide the interview schedule into segments; each segment was targeted at a particular issue, leading to the categorisation of the instrument into three main sections. Each section was designed, in mind, to address a particular objective, so as to include every aspect of the subject matter (servant leadership) of this thesis. Though the interview schedule was modified after every interview, based on the researcher’s personal reflections and observations, the final draft was designed after all four interviews were fully conducted. This was later given to the supervisory team for further comments and suggestions, of which approval was made so as to begin actual data collection.

**3.3.2 Limitations of the Pilot Study**

Although the pilot study was intended to capture the views of all students in the university but only students’ representatives were contacted via their university email addresses. This is because it was impossible for the researcher to reach out to all the various students running different courses within the university whether on part time or full-time basis. Again, instead of allowing all students’ representatives in different courses, departments, faculties, and schools, only postgraduate representatives and student union officials, with the
exception of one postgraduate students’ representative, were sampled. Out of the five students’ union officials, only three agreed to take part in the study, obviously, this did put a constraint to the ability of the researcher to obtain very robust information.

### 3.4 Sampling Methods, Data Collection and Analysis Procedure

This study was initially directed at all Higher Education Institutions in United Kingdom, particularly universities and Further Education (FE) colleges. However, due to ethical and cost considerations of the researcher (Dattalo, 2008), as well as ease of accessibility of participants, only HEIs situated in England and Scotland were purposively sampled using convenience sampling, snowball sampling, and theoretical sampling techniques. Since the researcher was not sure who to sample at first, in terms of identifying who leaders are in HEIs, she adopted convenience sampling technique. Convenience sampling method, otherwise known as ‘opportunity sampling’, is usually adopted for two main reasons; when the research population is not known to the researcher and/or when the researcher happens to be exploring a new area of study (David & Sutton, 2011). The researcher actually started with this sampling technique based on the accessibility of potential participants.

Moreover, the researcher does not intend to make generalised statements from the findings, hence convenience sampling technique was used to kick start the data collection process. Snowball sampling technique; also known as ‘chain referral’, was the second sampling technique adopted in this research. It refers to a situation where researchers depend on social networking to connect to participants who might help to identify suitable participants for a research study (David & Sutton, 2011). Although this sampling technique was criticised in terms of being fuzzy in theory formation, social invisibility, rebuttal and inability to generalize findings (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981), consequently, results derived from snowball sampling techniques are prone to bias on the part of the researcher (David & Sutton, 2011). Nevertheless, it was considered appropriate for this study since it has the ability to naturally facilitate social interactions among study variables (Coleman, 1958 cited in Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981).

It is useful particularly when it becomes difficult for the researcher to clearly define the exact population of the study (David & Sutton, 2011). In other words, using snowball sampling is inevitable particularly “when a population is hidden and thus difficult to identify” (Moisander & Valtonen, 2006, p. 232) by the researcher. The actual sample size
was determined at the point where the data for the study became saturated, which of course is where participants no longer provide any additional or new information. Since there are no procedures for determining non-probabilistic sample sizes (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006), data saturation point is of utmost importance to this qualitative research. However, the researcher ensured that sampling was done systematically in order to address some of the concerns raised by critics of non-probabilistic sampling techniques who argue that they are sometimes unsystematic in approaching research (Rapley, 2014).

As it is common with snowball sampling technique, the first participant who was interviewed referred other potential participants in other institutions who might be interested to take part in the study. Hence, the researcher was given their email addresses, and sent them the participant information sheet (see Appendix A) through their respective email addresses, seeking their consent to take part in the study. Some willingly obliged to participate while others insisted they did not have adequate time to participate, but were more than happy to take part in future research of this kind. A total of twenty-five participants were interviewed using an unstructured but well-adjusted interview schedule. Thus, data for this research was collected primarily from the twenty-five participants.

Twenty participants preferred to do face-to-face interviews, four (4) chose audio recorded telephone interviews while one (1) opted for Skype video calling. The researcher was able to achieve this since the research process was designed with utmost flexibility, by way of providing these options right from the beginning. Interview options were provided as indicated on the participants’ information sheet for potential participants to choose the option that they prefer for purposes of flexibility. As soon as a potential participant was located using the three set criteria listed above, the researcher sent an email attaching a participants’ information form, which is contained in Appendix A (see page 223), for them to understand the nature of the study. Unfortunately, not all participants who were contacted indicated interest to take part in the study.

Consequently, while the snowball sampling technique might be prone to bias, the researcher has little or no control over participants’ willingness or unwillingness to participate in the study. As soon as participants indicated interest to participate, by way of responding to the emails, the researcher then sent the participants’ consent form (see Appendix F). The idea was to ensure that they fully understand the nature of the study, before the interview actually took place. Theoretical sampling which is “the process of data collection whereby the
researcher simultaneously collects, codes and analyses the data in order to decide what data to collect next” (Coyne, 1997, p. 625), was also employed as newer themes began to emerge (Glaser, 1978) during the course of collecting data for the study.

As one of the key components of grounded theory research studies, theoretical sampling is guided by new and emerging themes, and allows the researcher to determine where to collect the next data and from whom (Becker, 1993; Glaser, 1978; Mills et al., 2006). Since all qualitative sampling is done with an intent to achieve some predetermined goals (Patton, 1999), the researcher started out by purposefully using convenience and snowball sampling techniques, to identify potential participants in her university. By using the core category (positional leaders), identified from the pilot study, before proceeding to use theoretical sampling technique to provide robust information for emerging themes.

3.4.1 Sample Size

Until now the debate concerning an appropriate sample size for qualitative studies remains inconclusive, however, there are indications that any qualitative study involving five to fifty (5-50) participants is considered to be acceptable (Dworkin, 2012). To this end, a non-listed sample frame consisting of twenty-five participants took part in this study. The sample size is considered appropriate since this is a grounded theory research, which involves the use of in-depth interviews. Apart from data saturation, the sample size for grounded theory studies could be one that falls in-between twenty to thirty (20-30) participants (Dworkin, 2012). The sample for this research include one (1) junior staff, twenty-four (24) senior staffs, which comprises of nineteen (19) academics, and six administrative staffs. Participants were drawn from eight (8) universities and one (1) Further Education (FE) college across England and Scotland.

3.4.2 Participants’ Demographics Characteristics

A total of twenty-five (25) participants volunteered to take part in this study, which consists of nine females and sixteen males. Six out of the twenty-five are administrative staff while nineteen are academic staffs. Four out of the six administrative staff are directors; one is an IT manager, as well as one Business school Manager, while the nineteen academic staff includes four professors, thirteen senior lecturers and two junior lecturers. The participants’ demographics showing this information are hereby presented below in Table 3-2, alongside
with their positions, staff status and years of service. All real names of the participants are concealed with pseudonyms as agreed between the researcher and the participants.

Table 3-2: Participants’ Demographics Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Staff Status</th>
<th>Years of Service</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abby</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>Zero-Ten</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abel</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>Ten-Twenty</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>IT Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adams</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Ten-Twenty</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agnes</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>Twenty-Thirty</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alice</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>Twenty-Thirty</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allen</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Ten-Twenty</td>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amanda</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>Ten-Twenty</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>School Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amey</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Ten-Twenty</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Betty</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Twenty-Thirty</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Billy</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>Zero-Ten</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chris</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Twenty-Thirty</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Professor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freddie</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Twenty-Thirty</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Ten-Twenty</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Professor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harold</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Zero-Ten</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Junior Staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kelvin</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Zero-Ten</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larry</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Zero-Ten</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Professor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucia</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Ten-Twenty</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luke</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Zero-Ten</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martha</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Zero-Ten</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nick</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Zero-Ten</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
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<td>England</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robin</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Zero-Ten</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sam</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Zero-Ten</td>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>Junior Staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarah</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Thirty and above</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Zero-Ten</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>Professor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Field Data, 2015

The sample includes module leaders, unit directors, heads of departments and school heads who took part in the study. Being an in-depth study suggests that this category of participants are expected to provide a wealth of information needed to address the overarching issues of this study. Besides, this category of participants falls within the Top Management Team (TMT) consistent with the upper echelon theory, which forms the theoretical background of this research. Consistent with the Top Management Team ideology, and knowing that “it is the leader who models service by humbly servicing the led,
rather than expecting to be served by them” (Graham, 1991, p. 111), these categories of staff were considered because;

i. They act as leaders within Higher Education Institutions.
ii. They are part of the institutions thus, can possibly provide useful and meaningful insights with regards to Higher Education Institutions’ leadership styles.
iii. They are the facilitators of change and are able to determine organisational outcomes through the strategic choices they make.

3.4.3 Interview Schedule

This research used a self-designed, and well-adjusted semi-structured interview schedule containing a total number of six (6) different sets of questions, each accompanied by one or more facilitating questions. The researcher, using these facilitating, or prompting questions, was able to adequately address new ideas and emerging themes. The facilitating questions were used only when necessary during the interview session. These questions helped to shed more light on certain issues that the researcher might be uncertain about during the time of the interview. These sets of questions also allowed participants to deeply engage themselves as they take time to explain issues in great details. The interview schedule (see Appendix G), was divided into three main sections: A, B and C, each structured to address specific objectives. Section ‘A’ literally contained two (2) main questions, and the objective of this section was to clearly identify leaders and their leadership orientations within Higher Education Institutions.

While section ‘B’ also contains two (2) main questions and its purpose of this section was to identify leadership practices within Higher Education Institutions with an emphasis on servant leadership principles. Also, leaders’ definition of leadership was also explored in this section together with a presentation of the 8th item Servant Leadership Instrument (SLI) designed by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011). The SLI was further modified to a Servant Leadership Interview Schedule (SLIS) containing eight principles, which leaders are expected to state whether they practice these principles or not. While the last section ‘C’ contained two (2) main questions too, as well as three (3) follow up questions. The objective of this section ‘C’ was to identify servant leadership principles among HEIs’ leadership practices so as to conceptualise the Leading Manager Theory. Eight principles of servant leadership, as outlined by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) were adopted in this section.
3.4.4 Data Collection Methods

Potential participants for this study were primarily, referred by other participants who were willing to take part in the study whereas; data was collected through in-depth face-to-face, audio recorded interview, telephone and video calling via Face time and Skype. As soon as a potential participant was located, the researcher sent an email attaching a participants’ information form (see Appendix E) for them to understand the nature of the study. Unfortunately, not all the participants that were contacted showed interest to take part in the study. Consequently, while the snowball sampling technique might be subject to bias, the researcher could not influence the interview process. She had no influence over participants’ willingness and/or unwillingness to take part in the study. But, as soon as intending participants indicated interest to participate, by way of replying the emails, the researcher then immediately sent out a consent form (see Appendix F) to each respective participant to ensure that they fully understand the nature of the study, before the interview actually commences.

Actual data collection covered a period of five months, and ran from March, 2015 to August 2015. All data was collected from nine (9) educational institutions in England and Scotland. On average, the interviews lasted between 30 to 65 minutes. Participants freely talked about their leadership responsibilities as well as their relationship with colleagues and students and, they were given the opportunity to take a break whenever they needed it. No interview took place in the month of May. This was due to the examinations held across universities in UK as all potential participants were somehow involved in conducting examinations in their respective schools. As soon as the exams were over, data collection continued till mid-August 2015.

3.4.5 Data Analysis Procedure

Data analysis describes “an interactive process, where data are systematically searched and analysed in order to provide an illuminating description of phenomena” (Noble & Smith, 2014, p. 2). The process began as soon as the interviews were transcribed verbatim using transcribe, which is a qualitative data transcribing software. Verbatim transcription was done after every interview so that the researcher can reflect on critical or key themes that were likely to emerge when the interviews were being conducted. This allowed the researcher to capture every detail, as well as colloquial languages, words and meanings to
ensure objectivity of the research process that may likely have occurred during the interview sessions, and during the time of analysing the data (Hennink & Weber, 2013). For utmost confidentiality, the identities of all participants including the institutions they work for were concealed using pseudonyms.

Analysis was done in line with Strauss and Corbin (1990) four steps of analyzing qualitative field data as a guide. These are; coding, gathering concepts, categorization and theorising. Coding was practically done in three stages consistent with Strauss and Corbin (1998) guidelines for coding. First, was the open coding where a detailed line-by-line examination of key ideas, themes and categories were identified from the data, followed by the axial coding, used in identifying ideas that have similar characteristics. NVivo 10, a Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS), and Prasad (1993) modified concept card were also employed to enhance the analytic process. (Becker, 1993; Hutchison, Johnston, & Breckon, 2011). NVivo 10 was used to categorise the data into manageable size necessary for meaningful interpretation. It was specifically used to code, categorise and build relevant themes associated with motherhood experiences vis-à-vis leadership practices in HEIs.

CAQDAS, on the other hand, is increasingly being used to analyse data in grounded theory studies (Bringer, Johnston, & Brackenridge, 2006a), because, it proves useful in systematically addressing the key components of grounded theory (Hutchison et al., 2010) such as coding, theoretical sampling and sensitivity, questioning and constant comparisons (Becker, 1993; Hutchison et al., 2011). Whereas, a modified version of Prasad (1993) concept card was used to display, examine and describe servant leadership principles that were identified among Higher Education Institutions’ leadership practices. As data saturation began to build up, selective coding was used to identify and include concepts into existing themes and categories.

3.5 Legitimacy of the Research

Generally, the quality of qualitative studies is often confusing and sometimes difficult to establish (Creswell & Miller, 2000). However, the researcher relied on more than one of the proposed elements used in ascertaining the quality of these types of research, to establish the trustworthiness of this study. These elements include, conformability, dependability, transferability, and credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 cited in Klenke, 2008). Creswell and
Miller (2000) also suggested five methods of enhancing the quality of qualitative researchers. These are; “member checking, triangulation, thick description, peer reviews, and external audits” (Creswell & Miller, 2000 p. 124). However, there are no indications concerning the superiority of any of these elements and methods over others as such, it is difficult for researchers to justify their preference for choosing a particular element/method (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Neither are there any guidelines for selecting any combination of elements or methods.

Though, Creswell and Miller (2000) believe that the rationale for choosing a particular method depends on researchers’ philosophical lens with which he/she views objects of reality and the study’s underlying philosophical assumptions. In view of this, the researcher solely depended on three key elements, namely transferability, conformability and transparency, to authenticate the quality of this research. Transferability refers to the level with which the findings from this research might easily be adopted in other geographical settings. It is the ability for other researchers to replicate findings from this study, especially when the results are applied to their own research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). It is possible for the findings from this research to be applied to Higher Education Institutions in other countries. Conformability on the other hand, places a strong demand on the researcher to provide sufficient evidence to back up the research (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

It shows the extent to which results from a study emanate from the data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). Examples of these evidences, which the researcher relied on, include verbatim transcription of data, researcher’s field notes, and materials used for the pilot study. Transparency refers to the systematic description of the entire research design, methods of collecting and analysing data, as well as stating explicitly how particular theories emerged from the data (Moisander & Valtonen, 2006). One way of ensuring the transparency of the research process is that, the researcher provided detailed and written account of the transformation of data from single units of analysis to the development of final and manageable themes (Noble & Smith, 2014). Hence maintaining transparency throughout the research process, the researcher clearly offered detailed methodological explanations of the entire research design and approaches used in this study.
3.6 Ethics and Role of the Researcher

Ethics are moral abstractions or principles, which can be transferred from an individual to another, or from one research output to another (Gillies & Alldred, 2002). It generally refers to that morally acceptable behavioural conduct of human beings; while ethics in social science research describes the “moral deliberation, choice and accountability on the part of researchers throughout the research process” (Edwards & Mauthner, 2002, p. 14). As such, ethical issues concerning research activities may include, how well participants are treated during the research process, how data is collected for the creation of knowledge, how the knowledge is created and how it is being utilised, either for academic or professional purposes (Gillies & Alldred, 2002). In view of these, researchers are expected to treat the study’s participants with utmost respect, ensure that the research is not harmful to participants, or at least make sure that they are not exploited in any way possible and/or placed at a disadvantageous position, by reason of agreeing to take part in the study (Oliver, 2010).

Oliver (2010) suggested that, since these issues are likely to arise at any point of the research study, the researcher is to make sure that the participants have full knowledge as to what is expected from them and also what they expect to gain from the outcome of the research process. One main area of interest in this study is the entire process of acquiring data for the generation and utilisation of knowledge. According to him while the mere acquisition or creation of knowledge may not be harmful to participants, how people who come into contact with the finished work, make use of the knowledge matters very much to both the researcher and participants who must have taken part in the study. On the part of the researcher, this goes back to his/her ability to be able to differentiate between intrinsically and instrumentally rewarding experiences. He further added that, researchers need to question their motives for commencing the research and also try to find out if the knowledge to be gained from the research process is intrinsically or instrumentally rewarding.

He further explained that, while intrinsically rewarding experiences refer to experiences that are upright and honourable hence worthy of being undertaken, instrumentally rewarding experiences merely exist to help actualize the intrinsically rewarding ones. Therefore, he suggested that only research activities that have the moral justifications “to improve the human condition” (Oliver, 2003, p. 12) are worthy of being embarked upon. In other words, these activities are intended to improve the general well-being of individuals in a society, as
such they are considered good and seen to be intrinsically rewarding. Activities that fail to meet this set criterion are considered to be unethically proven; hence the credibility of such studies might be questionable. No doubt, research credibility is usually difficult to ascertain due to the relativity of defining ethically wrong and right behavioural conduct, and because ethical issues are sometimes not clearly expressed (Oliver, 2003). Consequently, there are bound to be inconsistencies in the outcomes of the research process, in the sense that what one society considers morally right behavioural conduct may be out-rightly condemned by individuals who come from a different culture or society.

Also, in ethics “a dilemma can sometimes arise whereby we can identify a moral end, but are uncertain about the morality of the means we intend to use to achieve it” (Davis, 1993, p. 210). Although morally accepted conduct of behaviour differs from society to society, however every society seems to uphold certain core values that are so very dear to them, and which are maintained by all societies regardless of their beliefs. For example, most societies are opposed to manipulative or exploitative behaviour from their leaders, as this is regarded by the citizens as an abuse of power (Yukl, 2008). For the purpose of covering all anticipated ethical issues of concern in this study, the researcher relied on certain guidelines provided by her university. Although there were no known sensitive issues of concern in this particular study, but the researcher ensured the close adherence of basic ethical practices as proposed by Bell and Bryman (2007). These practices, namely affiliation, dignity for participants, confidentiality, deception avoidance, misrepresentation, anonymity, honesty and transparency, and reciprocity, are consistent with the code of conduct provided by the University of Huddersfield ethics approval committee.

Prior to the collection of field data, the researcher secured the needed ethical approval from her institution’s ethics committee, which took up to three weeks. But, as soon as potential participants were identified using snowball, convenience and theoretical sampling techniques, the researcher sent out a participants’ information sheet (see Appendix E), otherwise known as informed consent form, for them to clearly understand the purpose of the study. The participant’s information sheet refers to “any information which a participant might conceivably need in order to make a decision about whether or not to participate” (Oliver, 2003, p. 28) in the study. Thus among other things, the participants’ information sheet clearly outlines the purpose of the study, obligations to be performed by potential participants, and what they intend to benefit from the research process. Since this is purely
an academic exercise, with the intention of make general contributions to knowledge, no incentives or hidden benefits were given to the study’s participants.

Hence, agreeing to take part in the study was strictly on a voluntary basis thus, participants were given the privilege to choose the date, time and venue where the interview was conducted. As soon as participants indicated interest to take part in the study, the researcher sent out a consent form, otherwise referred to as an agreement form (see Appendix F) for participants to formally sign to indicate their voluntary agreement to participate. This was later returned to the researcher through email or face-to-face on the day of the interview, although at the participants’ convenient day and time. But, certainly this was done before the interview took place. On the day of the interview, the researcher took time to read out the guidelines binding the participants and her, as written in the interview schedule (see Appendix G). While during the interview, participants were given full control over the process by way of either stopping for a tea/coffee break, or pausing to attend to other personal or work-related matters.

They were also fully informed by the researcher that they could opt out of the study at any given time, provided it was prior to the data analysis stage of the research process. At the end of every interview, participants were informed that a draft copy of the transcript will be sent to them seeking for their approval, and/or remarks on what information they would like to conceal for privacy purposes before the researcher proceeds towards analysing the data. Of which quite a number of the participants were kind enough to demand that certain derogatory statements about individuals be kept out of the analytical process to maintain the respect and dignity of the people in question. Some of them boldly highlighted such statements, not to be used, before returning the transcripts back to the researcher who in turn made sure that the statements did not appear on the analysis process. Apart from enhancing the credibility of the study, this feedback mechanism was used as a way of addressing potential biases associated with snowball sampling techniques as earlier mentioned in chapter 3(see section 3.6).

3.7 Summary of the Chapter

Chapter 3 critically examined the methodological issues of this research, including the population of the study, sampling procedures, sample size, and data analytical procedures. The chapter began by examining the research design and strategy. This thesis is purely a
qualitative inductive study, which adopted a grounded theory research strategy. The rationale for choosing qualitative over quantitative was addressed within the chapter, as well as, the different versions of grounded theory. It then moved on to discuss the underlying philosophical positioning of the study; the chapter also examined the ethos or building blocks of the study. The researcher addressed the issues of concern in this research from an interpretivist point of view, as this is closely knitted with the constructivist grounded theory adopted in this study.

The chapter further examined an account of students’ representatives’ opinion about who a leader is with Higher Education Institutions, as contained in a pilot study. Their responses are hereby used in a pilot study which is presented below in the next section. Issues of trustworthiness and authenticity of this research were equally addressed under ‘legitimacy’ of the study, while, the chapter concluded with an examination of role of the researcher in ensuring the successful completion of the research. Results from the pilot study were also discussed in the chapter, as well as population of the study, sample size/technique and methods of data collection. The next chapter, which is chapter 4, dealt with data presentation and analysis using tables and figures, while the analysis was done line with major components of a grounded theory study.
Chapter 4: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

This chapter outlines the entire data analysis procedures; research design and a step-by-step review of the research strategy used in this thesis. It began by presenting a tabulation of the demographic information of all participants who took part in the study, before moving on to explain how the key components of grounded theory study were adopted in this thesis. This is followed by an analysis of all five objectives of this study, accompanied by discussion of the findings made from the analytic process. For clarity of presentation, the analysis of the objectives is presented in the next chapter, which is chapter 5.

4.1 Components of Grounded Theory

As this is a grounded theory study, data presentation and the analytic process were treated concurrently by critically examining key components that any grounded theory research is expected to address, as mentioned earlier on in chapter 3 of this thesis. These are theoretical sensitivity/literature, data analytic process, coding and identification of core categories, theoretical sampling and memo-ing (Barnett, 2012; Becker, 1993) as illustrated below in Figure 4-1. Grounded theory refers to a research “methodology on how to get from systematically collecting data to producing a multivariate conceptual theory” (Glaser, 1999, p. 836).

Figure 4-1: Components of Grounded Theory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>One</th>
<th>• Theoretical Sensitivity/Literature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>• Data Analytic Tools and Procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>• Coding/Identification of Core Categories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four</td>
<td>• Theoretical Sampling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five</td>
<td>• Memo-ing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source (Barnett, 2012; Becker, 1993; Mills et al., 2006; Morse, 2009)
4.2 Theoretical Sensitivity/Literature

As an iterative process, theoretical sensitivity is one major component of grounded theory studies. It is defined as the researcher’s ability to develop awareness of what is being investigated in this thesis, so as to deeply understand the nuances involved in field data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Researchers can gain theoretical sensitivity from any of these four main sources namely the analytical process, professional experience, literature, and personal experience (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) as presented below in Figure 4-2. The first stage of theoretical sensitivity, which is the analytic process, involves the researcher’s tendency to constantly question the data by way of making comparisons and drawing similarities among events and themes/sub-themes. This was done in line with the narratives made by the study’s participants and was reinforced through critical thinking and reflexivity of the researcher.

Figure 4-2: Sources of Theoretical Sensitivity

Adapted from Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 42)

The second stage of the researcher’s theoretical sensitivity involves the researcher’s reliance on her professional experience gained from work, attending seminars, workshops and conferences. Also, being a member of professional bodies such as the British Academy of Management (BAM), the International Leadership Association (ILA), Chartered
Management Institute (CMI) and the Black Doctoral Network (BDN). These bodies provided useful insights as experts in the field of leadership debate on current trends concerning the concept of leadership. The third stage involves the use of literature, which obviously goes against the ethos of grounded theory research. However, since the emphasis of the particular version of grounded theory used in this research (which is constructivist version), is on the proper understanding of the phenomenon of the study (servant leadership), the use of literature is considered to be necessary.

Thus, for better understanding of servant leadership, the researcher relied on the following sources of literature which include the use of theoretical frameworks- Upper Echelon Theory (Hambrick & Mason, 1984), and Herzberg Two-factor Theory (Herzberg, 1968) previous studies, field notes, and memos. While the fourth stage involves the researcher’s personal and life’s experiences as a student, parent and colleague however, this research depended on all four sources to gain deep theoretical insights. Having worked in a university as a lecturer for more than seven years, the researcher combined her experiences as a student for so many years to gain relevant knowledge that is needed to explore and understand servant leadership as demonstrated by leaders in HEIs. Furthermore, theoretical sensitivity was also derived by the researcher from the constant interaction and questioning of the data during the course of this study.

4.3 Analytic Process
This forms another major component of grounded theory research. Apart from being a source for gaining theoretical sensitivity, data analysis process describes the ability of the researcher to constantly question the behaviour of the data in order to predict its outcome, and offer plausible explanations needed to address the objectives of a research (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Generally, the approaches of analysing qualitative data can broadly be categorised into four groups namely quasi-statistical, matrices/frameworks, interpretative and sociolinguistic approaches (Noble & Smith, 2014). While each approach is significantly different from one another, in terms of the strategies involved in applying them, they share similar features in the sense that data analysis is both interactive and iterative in nature. These approaches are highlighted in Table 4-1 below.
Table 4-1: Qualitative Data Analytic Approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approaches</th>
<th>Strategies Involved</th>
<th>Common Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quasi-statistical</td>
<td>Content analysis</td>
<td>Iterative and interactive analytic process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matrices/frameworks</td>
<td>Thematic analysis, frameworks</td>
<td>Systematic search</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretative</td>
<td>Phenomenological analysis, grounded theory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociolinguistic</td>
<td>Conversation analysis, discourse analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Noble and Smith (2014, p. 2)

These different strategies have come to suggest that no research design is considered to be inferior to others, each is uniquely grounded upon specific area of implementation (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In view of these arguments, the research processes involved in this study are guided by the interpretative grounded theorist position. Analysis, which is the “interplay between researchers and data” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 13) actually began during transcription of the research data. Although, some researchers (Noble & Smith, 2014; Strauss & Corbin, 1990) believe that coding is the first step towards analysing qualitative data. For grounded theory studies, this stage is referred to as data conceptualization stage (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Since the essence of qualitative research is to explain and interpret a phenomenon, or predict the outcome of a research process; Miles and Huberman (1984) suggested that any data derived from such a qualitative inquiry can be analysed using the following three stages (see Figure 4-3 below).

Figure 4-3: Stages of Data Analysis

Reducing the Data  
Displaying the Data  
Drawing Conclusions

Adapted from Miles and Huberman (1984, p. 24)
Stage one involves the process of reducing the entire data into manageable size. This stage is referred to as categorisation (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Qualitative data can be reduced in more than way through instrumentation, memoing, sampling, constant questioning, and coding (Miles & Huberman, 1984). However, in this study, emphasis was given to coding, categorisation, developing relevant themes and classifying themes into core-categories, while stage two describes the data displaying process. Data display basically involves “an organized assembly of information that permits conclusion-drawing and action-taking” (Miles & Huberman, 1984, p. 24) and, for purposes of being fully immersed with the data, the analytical process involved two stages with respect to the duration of collecting the data. The first stage involved the analysis of the first ten interview transcripts, which were collected from participants.

The researcher waited for a period of one month to get subsequent referrals and potential participants who were willing to take part in the study. Thus, stage two includes data that was collected after the first analysing was already in progress. Data analysis in stage one actually started as soon as the researcher transcribed the interviews verbatim. Depending on the type of information to be presented, the study’s data are displayed using tables and figures, which were imported from the NVivo 10 data analytical software. Stage three, which involves drawing conclusions captured in this study through providing meanings, interpretations and possible explanations towards explaining the behaviour of the data.

4.4 Coding/Identification of Core Categories

Coding and category identification is the third component of grounded theory that was addressed in this research. A total of seven hundred and sixty-four pages of interview transcripts were analysed in this study. Suffice to mention that, only two out of the three types of open coding proposed for grounded theory research, were adopted in this study. The three types are line-by-line coding, phrasal/sentence coding, and holistic coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) as presented below in Figure 6-4. An initial line-by-line open coding was done on each of the interview transcripts. Open coding allowed the researcher to have a detailed and close examination of keywords and phrases throughout the transcript so as to identify themes in the data. As soon as sufficient themes (or nodes) were coded and key ideas identified, the researcher then proceeded to coding sentence by sentence.
Paragraph by paragraph coding was also done to allow the researcher build around existing categories, since the researcher’s intention at this very point, was no longer to create new categories. This is because, the researcher believes that open line-by-line, and sentence by sentence coding have already provided the key themes in each of the interview transcripts; hence there was no need to develop newer themes. Paragraph by paragraph coding was able to reduce researcher’s biases towards the data. However, the researcher strictly avoided using holistic coding so as to allow for the discovery of new categories that might be hidden within the data. Holistic coding describes the situation where the researcher simply reads through the entire transcript to see how it differs from previously coded data in order to pick out only salient points.

Forty-four (44) themes, otherwise referred to as parent nodes in NVivo 10, were identified from the twenty-five interview transcripts. But as soon as the first coding was completed, the researcher continued to code around existing themes, and each time a new theme was identified; it was coded as a separate theme (or parent node). Thus, adding it to the existing themes. The forty-four themes, identified after the first round of coding was completed on all twenty-five interview transcripts, are presented below (see Table 4-2). Though these are arranged in no particular order, meaning that, they are not presented in an ascending nor descending order. Instead, each theme is mutually exclusive within the group.
Further on, axial coding was done to classify and further reduce the forty-four items (themes) into ten (10) manageable and defined core-categories. These are presented in Table 6-4 below, which form the basis for realising the objectives of this study. But first, a critical look at each of the ten core-categories (see Table 4-3) and their descriptions are presented throughout the following section. Core categories having asterisks (*) on them, such as leadership orientation, HEIs leadership practices, leadership taxonomies and tensions, are having sub-categories (also referred to as child nodes on NVivo 10 data analysing software).

### Table 4-3: Core Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Finding fulfilment</th>
<th>*HEIs’ Leadership Practices</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Leadership Orientation</td>
<td>Technical Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Door policy</td>
<td>*Leadership Taxonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative Thinking</td>
<td>*Tension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Personal Issues</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Thus, asterisks are used to differentiate the ten core categories that have sub-categories from those that do not. A detailed explanation of each core category, as well as sub-category (where applicable), is presented in the next section, by beginning with the first core category — finding fulfilment. Quotations from the participants, whose statements either confirm or
refute the issues of concern, have also been provided. This shows the development of each core category, from how it was identified to when it was finally created. For confidentiality purposes, participants’ real names have all been replaced with pseudonyms.

Finding Fulfilment

This is the first core category which captures the various ways that participants in this study were able to cope with work-life issues. Almost every participant found fulfilment seeing those who work with them making significant progress in what they do. The following statement made by Sarah, who has been a senior lecturer for over twenty years, supports this claim, “It is such a joy to work with people, who are, you know, really motivated and liked what they are doing. Yes, that's what; I think is in the going” (interview transcript from Sarah, p. 3). Instead of being defined in monetary terms, fulfilment was defined by the leaders in terms of intrinsic satisfaction as opposed to extrinsic rewards and benefits. In other words, participants derived fulfilment particularly when those that they lead make progress.

Another participant, Amey, a senior lecturer and course leader, added that “I think, it's probably the time I spend talking to students about their personal problems, about their personal issues, are, I find more fulfilling than actually teaching” (interview transcript from Amey, page 1). This statement was supported by Betty who claimed that:

“If you've got a class and you see people struggling or you see a light come on in somebody's mind that they've just understood something they've been grappling with, that to me is what it is all about. If I can help a student then, who is more able to deal with other people in a team, I've given them a couple of strategies and it works for them, that's what it's all about” (interview transcript from Betty, page 10).

Lucia, on the other hand, expressed it like this:

“I like it when my staffs are congratulated on the quality of their work; I like it if somebody comes along and says to me, (sic), you've done a good job. Hmm, so, I think it's feeling that we've actually done what we were employed to do well. I think that's nice” (Interview transcript from Lucia, page 4).

It was also discovered that participants derived fulfillment from work-life balance. Some of the participants expressed how important it is for them to maintain a balance between HEIs’ diverse and oftentimes conflicting objectives and their personal issues. This involves
balancing work and family and, maintaining existing relationships with others at work. In other words, being a boss and a friend to subordinates at the same time. One participant reported that;

“I think the whole work-life balance thing is important and when you have a family, obviously you need to devote time to your family as well as to your job and I actually worked part time for about ten years when the family was young and I think that was a really good thing for me... It’s important to have a life outside work, and that makes you much more balanced I think, as a person” (interview transcript from Agnes, page 13).

Another participant named Abby, who is a director and administrative staff, described her relationship with staff in the following manner, “I just try to keep in touch with everything but not in a way that undermines the managers who are looking after it. That’s the real difficulty, because you need to know, but you don’t want to interfere so yea, that’s about the balancing act” (interview transcript from Abby, page 9). Whereas, another administrative staff named Amanda, who is also a school manager, suggested that:

“You’ve got to have a professional element as well as a friend element, if you like to call it...that's sometime quite difficult to draw the line but I like to think I do that and staff know that, they know when they’re talking to me, I might be talking to them as a friend or as a boss” (interview transcript from Amanda, page 11).

The above statements showed the various ways that participants in this research tried to find fulfilment.

**Leadership Orientation**

Leadership orientation is the second identified core category and it expresses the various means and interpretations that participants used in describing who a leader is within Higher Education Institutions. From the data, five types of leadership orientations were identified in Higher Education Institutions, and these are assertive leaders, defensive leaders, positional leaders, subjective leaders and systemic leaders. They form the basis for analysing the second research objective of this study. Hence, a detailed explanation of this core category, showing the five leadership orientations, is presented in Chapter 5 (see section 5.2). *Assertive leaders* are leaders who believe that they are leaders regardless of their position or authority.

This leadership orientation is shown in the following quotation made by Adam, a senior
lecturer, who said “I certainly consider myself to be quite experienced in comparison to several other people. Whether I consider myself to be a leader? I would say a taught leader, I will aim to become. A taught leader, someone who sets the agenda in a certain type of thinking” (interview transcript from Adams, page 7). Defensive leaders are those who refuse to acknowledge themselves as leaders even though they are occupying leadership positions. This type of leadership orientation was expressed by Betty, an acting associate head of department, who insisted that she does not see herself as a leader. She said;

“I never see myself as a leader in what I might think of a leadership role but I know that I am a leader because people look up to me and have expressed that to me and I think possibly because I lead by example, I think they respect the quality of what I do and how I approach things and I think that I get a lot of support” (interview transcript from Betty, page 1).

Positional leaders on the other hand, are leaders by reason of the official position that they occupy within their respective institutions. The following excerpt, made by Kelvin a senior lecturer, reflects this type of leadership orientation;

“I think the mere fact that you are a lecturer, delivering on a different particular module, the participants or the students see you in that leadership role and automatically you assume such because you are leading the students towards them achieving the aim of the learning objectives of whatever module it is that you are delivering on. So in that respect yes there's a leadership aspect to it” (interview transcript from Kelvin, page 1).

Subjective leaders are those who have come to accept their leadership attributes by reason of how other people look up to them as such. This can be seen in the following statement, “to be a leader, I think one needs some followers. I don't know where my followers are at the moment although they may be here” (interview transcript from Billy, page 1). Another lecturer, named Harold, narrated that “I don't try to position myself as a leader in the sense that, it will influence people to achieve a shared objective” (interview transcript from Harold, page 2). Whereas, systemic leaders are those who believe that it is possible for anybody, regardless of his or her position, to be a leader.

The following quote expresses the systemic type of leadership orientation; “the most important people in the university are the people who have direct contact with the students even if it's the technical support staff” (interview transcript from Chris, page 4). A more detailed explanation of these leadership taxonomies is presented in chapter 7 (see 7.3), which addresses all five research objectives of this thesis.
Open Door Policy

Open door policy is the third core category. Participants believe they operated an open-door policy in terms of their relationship with students as well as handling issues with colleagues. Both staff and students are free to walk up to them and discuss work-related issues sometimes; even non-work related issues were also discussed as well. Again, Abby described open door policy in the following statement, “I think because my doors are always opened so they just pop in for anything, all the time” (interview transcript from Abby, page 6). While another participant named Alice, who is a senior administrative staff with over twenty years working experience, expressed this view in these words;

“We have an open door policy. So, for example, if somebody is not happy about something, they can just come up, before now, they will say, Alice, have you got a minute and I will say, yes and it does all comes out, and I will say alright. Is there anything you would like me to do about it?” (Interview transcript from Alice, page 11).

Amanda further explained that “I like to think that staff can come and talk to me about anything really. Hmm, not work-related, it can be home things, personal things, and that's because I've been here a long time” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 10). She also reiterated that, “my door is always open, they can email and tell me or/and telephone at any time, and they all know that” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 11). Billy, a non-executive marketing director, on the other hand sees himself as “a divergent thinker” (Interview transcript from Billy, page 1). Tom, an academic and associate professor, defines open door policy in terms of how approachable a leader should be towards subordinates and colleagues. He said;

“You have to be approachable, you can’t keep yourself in a closed door, and you say, you know, I’m leading right? So, you have to go on and talk to people, you need to, you know, rather than waiting for them to come and talk to you” (Interview transcript from Tom, page 7).

While another participant, named Sam, narrated that, “I just keep my doors open for them. If they're willing to talk to me, I'm willing to talk to them but the thing is that, they seldom come to me yeah. But, you can say that the students here are more independent” (Interview transcript from Sam, page 4). Robin, a senior lecturer and course director, also expressed his idea of open door policy in the following statement;
“I will say it’s got to do with my demeanour in character as an individual I’m very outgoing and, when I see people, I try to give anyone a chance and try to look into the future to see the potential I suppose, looking at particular problem that you are likely to encounter trying to help a student trying to help somebody and so on and, so very open which means students normally come to me and some will confide in me” (Interview transcript from Robin, page 3).

The above excerpts have demonstrated that open door policy is a common practice among leaders, especially academics, working in Higher Education Institutions. It further shows that staff and students enjoy close working relationship with one another.

**Creative Thinking**

As the fourth core category, creative thinking often referred to as “outside the box” (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 7) thinking by some of the study’s participants suggests the tendency for a leader to encourage subordinates to be able to take initiatives. One of the participants described it as, “a broad sort of view, not trying to be too focused on we’ve always done it like that, so we’ll solve it in that way”. But, to try and think of other options” (Interview transcript from Abby, page 2). Excerpts from the data revealed that leaders see this as a way of fostering and maintaining team spirit among staff. One participant stated that, “it’s really about, encouraging people to think differently and to come to those kind of conclusions themselves rather than me telling them how they got to behave or how to think” (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 5). Another participant described creative thinking in the form of taking a “new angle to look at the old problems” (Interview transcript from Sam, page 6).

Billy on the other hand saw himself as a creative person stating that “I’m a diverging thinker and that’s why I've chosen roles (sic) to suit my diverging abilities” (Interview transcript from Billy, page 1). Creative thinking is an important skill especially for leaders who work in Higher Education Institutions. One lady noted that “I think one should be very open to the learning experience in the class (sic). Obviously, every course is different, you know, the students are different” (Interview transcript from Martha, page 1). In other words, creative thinking means that, as a leader;

“You treat everybody the same but you know that everybody is not the same so you go with an open mind to know that you might need to change in relation to students, but there is also training which is given for teaching, so part of the teaching training kind of exposes you to some of these
different challenges which will come with different type of students”

The above quotations suggest that creative thinking was described in different ways by the study’s participants. Some participants referred to it as thinking outside the box, while others described it as a divergent thinking method.

**Personal Issues**

The fifth core category, referred to as personal issues, describes the diverse challenges students are confronted with pertaining to the university environment. Students had to deal with these issues at some point during the course of their studies as expressed by one of the participants who said that:

“Most of our students come with baggage, personal baggage, some emotional problems, some health and some just, you know, they’re teenagers and not adults. Most of them are 18 years old, still trying to (sic).... still struggling with their identities and some, maybe the first time they’re away from home, that sense of freedom and they don't know what to do with themselves” (Interview transcript from Amey, page 1).

Sarah also supported this view as she narrated that, “I sort of discovered when I started working in this role that students, PhD students come to me with lots of things apart from their academic and, that actually, you know really almost shocked me to start with” (Interview transcript from Sarah, page 4). Another participant was found to have handled both students’ personal and academic issues through the following conversation:

“When I was helping out one of the PhD students, he struggled at first one or two years, and he even wanted to drop, to quit the study because he could not find a way to do research yeah. He was confused. I cannot say like a leader but I try to act more like a mentor to give him some insights about doing research and I try to know, I try to talk to him, to know what’s his problem, it could be personal problems, or it could be academic problems. For academic problem, I may have the ability to help because I have more experience but for personal problems, I also need to share with him some of my experiences when I was younger” (Interview transcript from Sam, page 5).

It was also observed from the study, that some participants actually find fulfilment with themselves as they deal with students’ personal issues. Next is the sixth core category referred to as research, as addressed in the next section.
Research

Research is the sixth core category, and this was constantly mentioned by the participants during their conversations. Their statements suggest that research is increasingly becoming a big issue in HEIs, particularly for academics. It defines staffs’ level of productivity in these institutions and, serves as the basis for promoting them hence, almost every participant made mention of it in their discussions. Part of research is also captured within the discussions around the Research Excellence Framework (REF). Some of the excerpts include the fact that research has become “a sole driver of performance appraisal” (Interview transcript from Nick, page 4). Nick, who is a senior lecturer and module leader, further added that:

“I think it's a good exercise mainly because; it makes some sort of objectives or a standard for academics. So, without any objectives, without any standards, it becomes difficult to know what are the ends products of your work, or how will you be assessed? That sorts of thing, so to the extent that its sets a standard and that objective for academics and for researchers, makes it a good exercise I think” (Interview transcript from Nick, page 3).

Amanda took time to explain the importance of the Research Excellence Framework (REF) in the following statement:

“They’ve put forwarding to sort of a big pot really and will classify as submission for the University of xxx and then an external body assesses it and matches it against other institutions and where we fit and then they put it on a scoring card and, where we fit on that scoring card can make a big difference to an institution. Because, the higher up on the card you are, the more funding you get and more money. So that encourages the institutions to do more research and to build on their research and different things” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 3).

While the Research Excellence Framework may serve as guide to ensure that only HEIs that have made significant research impact gets adequate funding, participants are of the view that it is also used to determine the productivity level of academic staff. Thereby, resulting in some negative consequences as captured below in the following statement:

“If we pay too much attention or we put too much weight on that,.. that could degenerate some negative consequences. If you want examples, I can give you, for instance, we may not have the right balance of teaching quality and maybe research quality for instance from staff, so if more emphasis is placed on the REF, it could lead to falling standards in teaching quality for instance. Simply because maybe lecturers may not want to spend more of their time on teaching activities but would concentrate on research activities. So there could be that trade off when we
Larry, who is a professor, captured some of the negative effects of the Research Excellence Framework in the following statement;

“So we’re creating a kind of hierarchies within the departments, which kind of create conflicts. So, you’ve got suddenly, a group of people, I would think depending how big you department is, who are research active and they publish at the level of two stars and above. So, they’re kind of seen as kind of good guys, you know, but you’ve got a lot of other people who are publishing but not to that extent, but to publish let’s say a book chapter or even something which is not kind of acceptable, then that work is not valid” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 1).

Tom was also of the opinion that sometimes REF’s unrealistic targets put too much pressure on some academics who, even though are teaching very well, may not be research-active. He clearly expressed this notion in the following quote;

“I’ve been wondering what is happening here in the universities because of the research excellence framework, there’s a lot of pressure on the staff to perform at a much higher level and some of them who are research active possibly they don’t have that level of trust because, you know they have been actively engaged in research. So they're fine but those who are not actively engaged in research or who had no pressure prior to this kind of exercise, they are really facing a tough time” (Interview transcript from Tom, page 2).

The quotations from above seem to suggest that not all academics are comfortable with the introduction of the Research Excellence Framework (REF). While REF does favours academics who are research-driven, it seems those that are not are left to their own fate. The next core-category is HEIs’ leadership practices, and this is presented in the next section.

*HEIs Leadership Practices

Higher Education Institutions’ leadership practice is the seventh identified core category from the study’s data. Five practices consistent with Higher Education Institutions’ leadership practices are identified from the data. These are; diversity, professionalism, open door policy, creative thinking and servant leadership principles. Since this information contains the relevant data used in analysing the third objective of this study, a detailed explanation of these practices is provided in chapter 5 (see section 5.3) which deals with the analysis of all five research objectives.
Technical Skill

Technical skill is the eighth core category and it describes individual participants’ technical skills, which differ from one participant to another. This was often shaped by the nature of job performed by the participants. In the words of Paul, “in terms of (sic) analytical skills, team management skills (sic) strategic fore-sight, you know, all that have been a great help. You know, for you to cope with the challenges that Higher Education throws at us” (Interview transcript from Paul, page 4). Whereas, another participant named Luke, a senior lecturer, sees “interpersonal skills” (Interview transcript from Luke, page 6) as key skills needed to perform his duties. Amanda added that “Patience, (sic) sense of humor, I think that's very important, (sic) approachable” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 11). Alice feels “queuing management” (Interview transcript from Alice, page 14) skill is very important to her duties, as this helps her to manage how people queue up during graduation ceremonies of her university.

Allen on the other sees communication as an important skill that everyone ought to develop. Another participant added that, “listening is something we all need to work at whether we are leaders or not” (Interview transcript from Allen, page 7). Having looked at participants’ technical skills, we will now look at leadership taxonomy being the ninth core category identified from the study data. One participant reiterated that “the skills that have helped me are psychology, understanding individual personality traits; (sic) it is, I think, important (sic) so that I can understand people that are different than me and understand people that are similar to me” (Interview transcript from Billy, page 5).

*Leadership Taxonomy

Leadership taxonomy is the ninth core category and from the data, three types of leadership taxonomies were identified namely blended leadership, collegial leadership and contextual leadership. Blended leadership describes leaders’ friendliness towards subordinates while at the same time being able to exert authority over them. This leadership taxonomy was expressed and demonstrated by one of the participants in the following statement, “sometimes I have to be quite directional, and assertive about things but my natural style is much more consultative and collaborative” (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 5). She went on to add that:
“One of my strongest principles, I think it's around equality and fairness and, if we're looking at performance management issues for example, (sic), if somebody is not performing to a level which is acceptable, that then has a very adverse effect on their colleagues who happen to cover for them, you know, working on the same team. Covering up for somebody who's not ...not up to the job, so although it can be very difficult having that conversation with somebody, and sometimes we have to actually get rid of people. Hmm, it's fairer for everybody. Hmm (sic), so you know, there are different difficult decisions that have to be made, but you just have to be quite, perhaps, strong minded about it” (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 6).

Another participant captures blended leadership in this way;

“We are highly professional, well many of us are highly professional, we also have these small informal structures, networks if you like. It’s kind of like the leadership exist within the network and you go to where it is you need to find help, advise and support. I think that's how it kind of works as well. So we have a very formal structure but we have this informal leadership stuff that goes on as well” (Interview transcript from Betty, page 3).

Nick on the other hand has this to say, which to a great extent describes his understanding and approach to blended leadership. “I will go for the approach where much freedom and autonomy is given to people at the operational level” (Interview transcript from Nick, page 4). Luke went further to elaborate what seem to describe blended leadership approach in the following statement:

“The kind of leadership HEIs actually need, for me, has to be based on, it’s a difficult one. But it has to be top down leadership, which actually should have a vision that everybody shares. Or, at least majority of the people share because if your VC doesn’t have a vision for the university, it doesn’t matter what anybody else does, if your dean doesn’t have a good vision for the department which has to be shared by everybody at least to an extent, the large proportion of people, then it’s not going anywhere so there has to be shared vision for great leadership to actually succeed” (Interview transcript from Luke, page 16).

The second leadership taxonomy, described by the researcher as collegial leadership, was also identified from the study’s data. A female participant’s conversation seems to have described this leadership approach in action. According to her;

“I think it's so important to have that kind of collaborative ethos (sic), to encourage people to work together, and to be brave really, you know to think outside the box, not to be constrained by the way that we’ve always done things, but to think about different ways of doing things. Hmm, you know, to take risks, I am always very happy for people to take risks and, you might get it wrong but that's how you learn” (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 7).
More often than not, this leadership approach was described by Chris as being similar to servant leadership. This opinion was clearly expressed in the following quotation, “I would like to see servant leadership, I would like to see the idea of a leader as serving the people that they lead” (Interview transcript from Chris, page 4). Without having any preconceived idea about the servant leadership phenomenon being investigated, Chris narrated how he thinks collegial leadership was being practiced in Higher Education Institutions over the years. According to him:

“It’s a bit of a servitude, it is to operate in a way, quite like that but only that, I would like to take you back to the old days, you know, not that long ago, where academics were in charge of their own courses, they make decisions about what was on the course, they make decisions about how it should be served, they make decisions about should be in the assessment, and in that position, they may not have an ample control if what the institution did, (sic) in terms of marketing, or in terms of planning and sort of estate management and that sort of thing. But they had control over things that mattered to them, and they don't like processes, it’s a highly collegial decision making process with a great amount of individuality yeah and courage to do courses” (Interview transcript from Chris, page 3).

Thus, building a sense of collegiality is seen as one major attribute of a good leader as opined by Amanda in the following statement:

“What a good leader is about is, getting people involved, and getting them buy in really, and in some ways empowering them to do what they need to do. Because in lots of cases they’ve got more of the skills than I have. You know, I'm just a Jack of all trades and master of none really!” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 2).

She went on to say that, “I would rather have volunteers than force somebody to do it because then you get the wrong message, you get the wrong type of commitment and inputs in it” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 9). Another participant, Chris likes being seen as a collegial leader even as he narrated that, “I hope they see me as (sic), a colleague or friend. So I hope to criticise what they do but in a positive way” (Interview transcript from Chris, page 1). He went on to advice that,

“What we need in Higher Education Institutions and in any institution is a formal horizontal collegial form of decision-making......my idea would be some form of collegial, collective form of leadership with someone who of course, all these big organisations, someone has to make decisions. So that person should be more in touch and more in-tuned with the employers, with the people who work for institutions” (Interview transcript from Chris, page 2).
Betty on the other hand points out the benefits of having collegial leadership in Higher Education Institutions. She said,

“*I’m probably referring back to an older model of HEIs where there’s lot of collegiality. So, you’re a collegial group and you kind of work together to get things done then you have this kind of admin systems, structures sort of placed on top of that. But it's the collegiality that really gets things done, as far as I can see. If you just went through this sort of formal channels, it will be very difficult to get a lot of things done*” (Interview transcript from Betty, page 4).

Collegiality seems to foster and reinforce team spirit as suggested by Freddie in the following statement; “*we teach as a team even though I’m not a leader of all those kind of serious modules*” (Interview transcript from Freddie, page 1). He further reiterated that “*we have some sort of team spirit; it's everything about those kind of team thing*” (Interview transcript from Freddie, page 1). Collegiality was also expressed by Paul who said; “*I've got to facilitate dialogue, conversation amongst other teams and other (sic), departments as well*” (Interview transcript from Paul, page 3). However, participants’ views on collegial leadership seem to bear resemblance with distributed and/or consultative leadership approaches. For example, one of the participants named Larry made a comparison between collegial and distributed leadership approaches in the following statement;

“*I would think something like a more distributed approach to leadership is useful. Now again, you can argue whether that is being practised or not, which is, you started with your hypothesis that, lots of organisations including HEIs are still hierarchical and bureaucratic...one thing, which comes as part of being bureaucratic or hierarchical is that, you got a very top-down kind of structures for managers and leaders were accountability flows from top to bottom*” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 6).

Lucia on her part tried as much as possible to dissociate herself from using her power and authority over her subordinates to get things done; instead she resorts to using collaboration. According to her, “*I’m not particularly directive, I don't say, "you must do this or you must do that", it's normally done by collaboration and mutual respect*” (Interview transcript from Lucia, page 2). She affirmed that, “*I think I’m a collaborative leader. I'm somebody who likes to collaborate with people*” (Interview transcript from Lucia, page 2).

Among others, Larry suggested that collegial or distributed leadership approach might be suitable for managing Higher Education Institutions. He said, “*I think distributive model of leadership perhaps is something which I think is strongly recommended, you know where
the motive is to support decision-making where people at least can have a say” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 7). Martha also confirms that collegiality is what she does on a day-to-day basis within her institution. She said,

“I think of a previous experience because there are other parts of the role, you know, the university collegial environment. You are part of the university, you're engaging with different people, your colleagues, your subordinates, it's part of that experience you know, the students are getting and you're getting as well, as an employee of the university. So, I think it's kind of embedded, I think that's part of what I do” (Interview transcript from Martha, page 2).

Contextual leadership, which is the third leadership taxonomy identified in this study, was emphatically expressed by one participant who said that, “leadership is contextual” (Interview transcript from Paul, page 1). In the sense that, “it is context specific, I think that should be really clear. That a band of pirates, who are doing nothing but robbing people every day, will also have a leader” (Interview transcript from Paul, page 6). Contextual leadership was also captured in the following statement made by Agnes; “you have to have different styles, and different approaches are more suitable in some situations” (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 5). Agnes also thinks that;

“You do need to have different approaches in different situations and, you know, sometimes, I have to get involved in disciplinaries and foremost management issues, which, you know can be quite difficult for everybody” (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 5).

This approach to leadership was further described by another participant named Larry in the following statement; “I think the emphasis, which is being placed in terms of the leadership perhaps, is different in different institutions, and I'm not arguing whether that's wrong, correct or incorrect, because it depends clearly on what are your key mission and goals” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 7).

These three leadership taxonomies form the basis for addressing the fifth objective of this thesis, which is to determine leadership approaches that might be suitable for managing Higher Education Institutions.

*Tensions*

This is the tenth and last core category identified from the data, and describes the various types of challenges confronting staff working in Higher Education Institutions. Tension was
used to capture existing and potential frictions between academics and administrators, as well as within each group (admin vs. admin or, academic vs. academic). Tensions arise from having to balance teaching and research as a key success factor within HEIs. Apart from being used to measure research impacts among universities across the UK, research is increasingly being used to determine staff, particularly academics, rate of progression. As a source of tensions in HEIs, research causes tensions among staff who are research active and, those who may not be active, by reason of engaging themselves in active teaching activities.

This core-category was immediately identified and coded using the words of Billy, who was formerly an academic staff of a university in UK but now serving in an administrative capacity in another Higher Education college within UK. He said;

*I've reviewed papers about Higher Education internationally and from my reading and understanding of governance of UK universities, there are problems, tensions between the vice chancellor and the staff, academic and non-academic, tensions between governance or university council, the charitable nature of the institution, but which it usually is, and its shall we say, business objectives* (Interview transcript from Billy, page2).

It was found out that, tension within HEIs arises due to the following reasons; paradoxical (competing) values, differing/unclear objectives, prioritizing, and REF expectations as presented in Table 5-4 below.

**Paradoxical values** emerged from the conversations of participants as they struggle to make their positions and identities more relevant than others. Alice, who happens to be an administrative director, observed in-between tension (i.e. tension between academics and administrative staff), as she narrated that;

"*Academics, they're much better at taking problems from other academics. They're much better because they are, well they're peers and, I still think that there's a little bit of an academic-admin divide. I still think that is there (sic) and I would love to try and get that across. When I really started doing PhD, because I had always wanted to do a PhD, I just didn’t think I was intelligent enough to do with or have the time. Hmm, but I also felt, it would give me that standing that would show the academics that well, actually, I can do that as well because this demonstrates that I can do that*" (Interview transcript from Alice, page 17).
Table 4-4: Sources of Tension in HEIs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paradoxical Values</th>
<th>Differing/Unclear Objectives</th>
<th>Prioritizing</th>
<th>REF Expectations</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic freedom vs. Autonomy</td>
<td>Changing roles</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Hierarchies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bureaucracy vs. Flexibility</td>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>Impact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research vs. Teaching</td>
<td>No succession plan</td>
<td></td>
<td>Publishing</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Data, 2015

In order to overcome this in-between tension, Alice advises that; “it's much better if the admin did the admin and the academics did the teaching and the research, and let their support staff do the rest for them, but it doesn’t work like that” (Interview transcript from Alice, page 18). Tensions could also arise between staff and the organisation especially when their personal interests do not correspond with those of the institutions. Sam, who is a lecturer, reiterated this by saying that;

“If there's a conflict between the personal goals and the institutional goals, then people are, generally speaking, are more on, I cannot say definitely, we care more about our personal interests. So, leaders need to know how to convince people to give up their personal goals and put more focus on the larger goals. Because by achieving the larger goals, everybody can benefit from that” (Interview transcript from Sam, page 5).

Staff and organisations’ tension can also be found when staff especially academics; strive to maintain a balance between their personal goals and those of the organisation. These exist in the form of academic freedom verses autonomy, bureaucracy verses flexibility, and research verses teaching. Academic freedom vs. Autonomy was examined in line with the following quotation made by Chris. He said;

“I would like to take you back to the old days, you know, not that long ago, where academics were in charge of their own courses, they make decisions about what was on the course, they make decisions about how it should be served, they make decisions about should be in the assessment, and in that position, they may not have an ample control if what the institution did, (sic) in terms of marketing, or in terms of planning and sort of estate management and that sort of thing but they had control over things that mattered to them, and they don't like processes, it’s a highly collegial decision making process with a great amount of individuality yeah and courage to do courses” (Interview transcript from Chris, page 3).
Sam is of the opinion that, while freedom might be good to be fully exercised, it comes at a price. He argued that, “it’s good to have freedom but sometimes too much freedom don’t make you to know where to start, you don’t know what to do yea, and then, you are now your own boss, you are now your own leader you need to lead yourself to somewhere you want to achieve” (Interview transcript from Sam, page 3). Chris also pointed out some of the disadvantages of having too much freedom. He opined that;

“Now, they structure the course, they sort of, assess you what to research, in fact even increasingly, what is being taught in my course is being decided at a level, in many cases, which is not capable of making those decisions. So we can have, if you have a very frustrating workforce” (Interview transcript from Chris, page 3).

Contrarily to this opinion, Robin feels that universities do offer a lot of freedom to academics. He reported that;

“I think we are one of the organisations in the world where people have a lot of freedom and they do whatever they like and its it sort of flexible as in the time you want to, apart from the teaching time you can decide not to be in the office you can do your work anywhere you are not restricted as to what you can research and so on, and on that basis, there is a lot of freedom” (Interview transcript from Robin, page 10).

Nick on his part is proposing for a decentralized system of management within HEIs. He suggested going “for the approach where much freedom and autonomy is given to people at the operational level” (Interview transcript from Nick, page 4). In terms of bureaucracy verses flexibility in Higher Education Institutions, most participants agreed that working in Higher Education Institutions gives them ample time for other extra-curricular activities. This view was expressed by Kelvin who said that, “the work itself is very challenging, it's got stress points. But, again, it's got its flexibility that allows you to integrate some bit of fun” (Interview transcript from Kelvin, page 7). Another participant has this to say;

“I certainly think within the UK, there needs to be a change in the form of governance... I think some of the problems that are now occurring in universities (sic) come through archaic (sic) governance regulations and regulatory frameworks where the universities were set up (sic) in Victorian times really. Hmm, where (sic) the certain assumptions might not be (sic) actually put into practice today” (Interview transcript from Billy, page 13).

In support of this opinion, another participant said that HEIs “have high hierarchical managerial structure set to a large extent” (Interview transcript from Chris, page 3). While
Larry is of the opinion that as learning organisations, HEIs need some level of control so as to maintain law and order. He suggested that;

“We still need some kind of structures to deal with organisations isn't it? I mean, you know, all universities are charities; they're not profit making organisations. But you still need some structures to guide or to manage people because that is needed. I don't think, that's going to happen, or that's going to be the case but I think what they're looking is; do the current structures help promote a good working atmosphere or environment at the universities? Because things are different in different disciplines” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 4).

He further stated that bureaucracy is inevitable within Higher Education Institutions, claiming that;

“Lots of organisations including HEIs are still hierarchical and bureaucratic and one thing, which comes as part of being bureaucratic or hierarchical is that, you got a very top-down kind of structures for managers and leaders were accountability flows from top to bottom. So, sadly that's not good to change” (Interview transcript from Larry, 6).

In terms of flexibility, one participant asserted that, “if you're managing people in a big department, you need to be very flexible in how you manage people according to the type of persons that you are managing” (Interview transcript from Lucia, page 2). She further stated that, “one of the main reasons I liked working at universities was because of the flexibility” (Interview transcript from Lucia, page 5). Tension also arises particularly when academics attempt to strike a balance between research vs. teaching objectives. Realising this objective is very crucial to career prospects of academics because “balancing teaching and research is a big challenge” (Interview transcript from Paul, page 4). In line with this statement, another participant stated that;

“You can have conflict between the teaching strand or objective and the research objective so, what do I mean? For example you can have staff who are very good at teaching, can do a very good job at teaching but not particularly excited about research let me put it that way and. Now the research angle, well the teaching objectives priority would say keep this student, keep this particular staff. He’s got high ratings with students, students’ feedback is high and the potential national students’ service scores are great. But the research objective will say no the staff is inactive, he's not publishing, he's not producing, what in a broader frame, what the schools' objective is about in terms of publishing” (Interview transcript from George, page 6).

As observed by one participant who said, “you're here to teach students but you have to do research and you have to engage in research with your capacity, I mean, obviously the
"pressure is huge" (Interview transcript from Tom, page 10). In support of this statement, another participant added that, “there are probably three professional roles, the teaching, the research, the admin are fine. I think the problem is that sometimes, it’s not clear which is most important” (Interview transcript from Harold, page 6). Harold on the other hand stated that;

“One of the tensions we have at the moment is the, especially here at xxx I guess, is the boundary between the delivery of teaching and the pursuing of research and how we can balance those two interests. Hmm, because both are extremely important strategically” (Interview transcript from Harold, page 3).

Tension could arise due to leaders’ inability to measure the productivity of staff who are good at research on one hand, and those who are good at teaching on the other hand. Evidence of this claim could be seen from the following statement;

“If we take one of our strategies which says that everybody must have a PhD is certainly conflicts with, you know, large amount of teaching staff who do not have PhDs, but they are doing excellent teaching. So that’s a classic example, that’s one classical example where you can have conflicts for example” (Interview transcript from George, page 7).

Billy confirmed this in his statement where he said that, “within the UK, very few universities can balance out (sic) the four different roles that an academic might need to do - research, teaching, administration and (sic) enterprise” (Interview transcript from Billy, page 9). One admin staff also pointed out that, “research is a big thing at the moment in the university. Hmm, we have a lot of staff involved with either doing a PhD or they’re supervising existing PhD students” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 2). While another participant observed that, “a good example is where we were doing research and (sic) incorporating your research into your teaching. It was something that was beneficial not just to the institution but then to individuals as well” (Interview transcript from Allen, page 3). As observed by another participant who said;

“In 2008, I published thirteen papers, so it gives you an idea from where I was and I now produce probably, hardly three or four a year, but I do teach a lot and information systems is something that is of great interest to me. But, not so much is the technology per se but I’m interested in a research team which I’m currently developing” (Interview transcript from Adams, page 6).
Another participant warned that placing too much emphasis on either research or teaching leads to the creation of hierarchies in Higher Education Institutions, which in turn might lead to tension. According to him;

“We’re creating a kind of hierarchies within the departments, which kind of create conflicts. So, you've got suddenly, a group of people, I would think depending on how big you department is, who are research active and they publish at the level of two stars and above. So, they're kind of seen as kind of good guys, you know, but you've got a lot of other people who are publishing but not to that extent, but to publish let’s say a book chapter or even something which is not kind of acceptable, then that work is not valid. So, and then you have another set of colleagues who are let’s say who are late to embark on the PhD, though who are currently active, as I will call them but may not be research-active, and I deal with this situation at my place all the times. So, I’m kind of tasked in preparing my list for the best submission, and I've got, kind of preference for people who fall in different categories……. Sadly, you have people who are research active and who will publish at that level, and there’s a presumption which might not be correct, that those are the people I think that favour their promotions and career prospects” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 2).

Lucia on the other hand felt her taking up a leadership role within her department has made her inactive in research. She said;

“My role now is very much managing the staff in the cluster. Hmm, but half of my contract is teaching so, I teach and I don’t do any research. I don’t do any research now because I've got these other two big roles. So, unfortunately, the downside of taking on the job of managing a lot of people is that you wouldn't be doing the research but I do the teaching” (Interview transcript from Lucia, page 5).

Luke also shares this opinion when he complained that;

“In terms of balance, it is still very difficult because most of those things, most of the time you spend doing that is never really part of what is expected in your workload in terms of that time so you get scholarly activity time you, so you can try and fit that into scholarly activity time. Unfortunately, when you are doing research, there is no fixed time for research you can’t just say okay, am only going to spend this amount of time on this, you can’t test your hypothesis like that so whatever you are able to do within that time you try. Everything else might be in your extra time or your personal time” (Interview transcript from Luke, page 8).

Nick advised academics on learning how to prioritise since attempting to balance the various objectives of academics is somehow becoming very elusive. He advises that;

“You should be able to tell which one of those activities is more pressing and then concentrate or focus attention on them and, then when others become more pressing, you also concentrate on that. For instance, during teaching periods,
obviously you prioritise teaching over maybe your research or whatever. But, the priorities will change over time and across the seasons. Yes, so basically it's all being organised and being able to prioritise, I think those two skills are very important” (Interview transcript from Nick, page 3).

Although they can only do this if they know which is more important even though Nick did acknowledged that research and teaching are both, but that research is more important than teaching. He claimed that;

“Both are important. Okay, let’s put it this way. Generation of knowledge and dissemination of knowledge, which one may be more important? I think it's important to generate knowledge, however when knowledge is generated and it's also not to be used. Then it becomes useless. So, from that school you could see that they are all very important. But more important, if you don't generate then how can you expect to distribute.... since one is a creation thing and the other is distribution mechanism, I think I will go for creation” (Interview transcript from Nick, page 4).

Sam is also of the opinion that research has to do with generating knowledge. According to him, “research is about generating some insights; something may not be totally new. You may take a new angle to look at the old problems” (Interview transcript from Sam, page 6). Thus the importance of research over and above teaching cannot be overemphasized because, according to another participant, “research is something more about ourselves, you want to do something, you just do it” (Interview transcript from Sam, page 6). Robin also supports this position as he showed from the following statement that; “it’s your research that gives you appearance, that is what should set you apart from other people” (Interview transcript from Robin, page 7). He went ahead to explain that;

“I think the most challenging one I will say is research because anyone can be a teacher especially in higher education context anybody can teach you know but not everyone can do research” (Interview transcript from Robin, page 6).

While it may be difficult to draw a line between research and teaching, as both deals with the creation and distribution of knowledge, HEIs’ management are enjoined to consider ways of also assessing the impact of teaching. Teaching should equally be given utmost consideration when evaluating staff for promotion and advancement.

Differing/Unclear Objectives is the second sub-theme under tension, and this is also a factor that causes tension in Higher Education Institutions. This sub-theme was coded due to the following statement made by one of the participants of this study. He said that
“academic institutions are not crystal, it's not a question of; you can't exercise the same sort of control over the product” (Interview transcript from Chris, page 3). Another participant believes that tension arises due to staff inability to perform their different obligations. He stated that, “very few universities can balance out (sic) the four different roles that an academic might need to do– research, teaching, administration and (sic) enterprise” (Interview transcript from Billy, page 9). He went on to explain that:

“It depends on the institution, there may be an expectation in some institutions that they perform all four or three of the four whereas in other institutions, they might be expected to be (sic) brilliant needing one, and not (sic), so much in the others. I think that (sic) Higher Education institutes have arrangements for all four” (Interview transcript from Billy, page 9).

Larry also confirms the existence of tension particularly for those at senior management levels in HEIs. Larry also added that;

“There are always tensions about (sic), you know, doing your research, your teaching and all your admin responsibilities because increasingly, universities are expecting that you're going to be kind of best in everything, which is not possible frankly speaking. You cannot have a full teaching, you know, you can’t be at full services at your end; you can’t have a greater result. So obviously there's always you know tensions, in terms of what academics are expected now to do” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 1).

Paul also supports this argument that tension arises due to pressure on the part of Higher Education Institutions to manage their resources in order to meet the expectations of their various stakeholders particularly the students. He backed up his argument in the following words that;

“Particularly now, when the cuts in recruitments have been removed, leadership has never become as important in Higher Education, where you’re going to see, you know, now you can recruit as many students as you can. But, you're going to manage the students’ expectations as well. So, that's another dimension of leadership in Higher Education. It’s about setting standards and managing expectations. So, in other words, we can compete with anybody in terms of students. So, the gloves are off basically. So, organisations and universities are much more proactive, that they've got a new breed of leaders who see universities as more of a corporate entity in the public sector” (Interview transcript from Paul, page 8).

Thus three main reasons, leading to tension within Higher Education Institutions, were identified from the data which are changing roles, competition, and no clear succession
plans. Changing roles was identified from the following quotation made by Larry, one of the study’s participants who said;

“We live in times, which are very different, you know traditionally. So, possibly I think the role of an academic has changed dramatically over the last few years or the last decade. I mean academics today have more bigger roles above all I think they do a lot of activities, which involves, I mean teaching is still important but teaching is not the only thing now that they do. So, I think they need to embrace some of those changes” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 7).

Larry further added that;

“There’s always you know tensions, in terms of what academics are expected now to do. Because even if you lead the traditional roles, I think increasingly, the role of an academic at the university is now changing in the sense that, it's not only about the teaching but increasingly, you've got external responsibilities of going and doing some kind of consultancy work for the university. You’re increasingly expected to apply for research grants and do that kind of work. So, increasingly, the domain of any academic especially at senior levels is kind of evolving and enlarging, so that's one dimension” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 1).

Amanda, who is an administrative staff, also acknowledges the changing nature of her role within the administrative realm of things. She said, “we have a growing number of professors within the schools so, they bring on their projects, the work they’re involved with, publications. So, that's been quite (sic), a learning curve for me because they all come from different areas, different expectations, and I have to make sure, I’m meeting with them regularly, that they've being looked after well” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 2).

Betty, an academic, also supports this claim by stating that, “you’ve got a range of different functional areas, I suppose if you think about the university having a research function, administrative function and technical function and teaching function. Not everybody can do all of those functions” (Interview transcript from Betty, page 3).

Thus both academics and admin staff agree that their roles have changed over the years. One of the participants named Larry confirms this view when he stated that, “you are now required to be around, be available, make contributions to different aspects of the university work, and act as a good ambassador. Whether you’re a student, whether you’re an administrator whether you're academic it doesn't matter” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 8). Paul agrees that the ever-changing role of HEIs, places a huge responsibility on the leadership of these institutions. According to him;
“I think leadership in Higher Education is increasingly becoming (sic), it's evolving as well, in my opinion. It’s evolving where schools, where universities are increasingly becoming competitive. So, when schools become competitive, they compete for students, they compete for resources, so for you to be able to compete better, you also need to generate a certain type of leaders within your schools. Leaders that have no blinkers on the eyes, (sic), leaders that are much more strategic, who see the wider picture” (Interview transcript from Paul, page 8).

Changing roles can also be seen from shifts in points of emphasis, particularly for academics, in terms of how their level of productivity is being measured by the number publications they have gotten. One academic explained that, “especially in this era in the academic, if you have no papers then it becomes problematic for you to even move between institutions” (Interview transcript from Robin, page 6). Larry supports this claim stating that, “increasingly, the domain of any academic especially at senior levels is kind of evolving and enlarging” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 1). This can also be seen in the following statement, “there’s been a move at xxx to move towards the production of more research, especially research that is highly ranked in the ABS classification list, (sic), which I guess is causing tensions for some staff” (Interview transcript from Harold, page 3).

**Competition** is the second identified source of tension in Higher Education Institutions, and this could be seen from the following statement, “universities are only now facing some of the problem of competition.... there’re probably too many universities out there now. They’re fighting for the increasingly small body of, you know, good students” (Interview transcript from Chris, page 8). Another lady talked about the dynamic nature of Higher Education Institutions’ environment, stating that it “has become a much more competitive environment as far as research is concerned and time for research. So, that could create a lot of pressure for people” (Interview transcript from Lucia, page 6). Paul on the other hand said;

“It’s about setting standards and managing expectations. So, in other words, we can compete with anybody in terms of students. So, the gloves are off basically. So, organisations and universities are much more proactive, that they've got a new breed of leaders who see universities as more of a corporate entity in the public sector” (Interview transcript from Paul, 8).

This claim was further substantiated by another participant who opined that;

“With the changes in higher education sector in the UK and generally around the world, in other words, increasingly government are, central government are disengaging in terms of funding and increasingly moving towards what I call
or market type of environment. So, in other words you compete for students, you compete for everything. So in a sense your very survival depends on how many students you have, and how attractive you are. Those rankings might influence staff ability to publish and to attract grants, research grants exactly. The rankings, doing well in the rankings really matters, because for example, not just to attracting students with different incomes but also research incomes” (Interview transcript from George, page 5).

Finally, the absence of a succession plan is the third source that causes tension in Higher Education Institutions. One participant observed that, “increasingly, we don't see the next line of leaders coming up in some of the organisations” (Larry, page 6). He further explained that, “many organisations are not very good in having a clear, you know, succession plan or developing the second line of leaders, or kind of nurturing them or supporting them because it violates and deals with the authorities” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 6).

Prioritizing is the third sub-theme that was identified under tension. Prioritizing in terms of, which comes first, either research or teaching? In other words, it highlights how many paper academics have been able to publish as opposed to how much time they devote to the objective of teaching. One participant claimed that, “in 2008, I published thirteen papers, so it gives you an idea from where I was and I now produce probably, hardly three or four a year, but I do teach a lot” (Interview transcript from Adams, page 6). Giving prior to the different roles performed by leaders can be deduced from the following statement;

“The other one which is closely related to organisation would be, being able to prioritise and, when I say prioritise, I mean knowing that sometimes due to the constraint of time, you wouldn't be able to do everything at the same time, and do them well. So what it means is that, you should be able to tell which one of those activities is more pressing and then concentrate or focus attention on them, and then when others become more pressing, you also concentrate on that. For instance, during teaching periods, obviously you prioritise teaching over maybe your research or whatever. But, the priorities will change over time and across the seasons. Yes, so basically it's all being organised and being able to prioritise, I think those two skills are very important” (Interview transcript from Nick, page 2).

Another participant is of the opinion that;

“To some extent there are tensions, yes, some of the strategic priorities sometimes conflict. They conflict with each other sometimes. Particularly you can have conflict between the teaching strand or objective and the research objective so, what do I mean? For example you can have a staff who are very good at teaching, can do a very good job at teaching but not particularly excited about research let me put it that way and. Now the research angle, well the teaching objectives
priority would say keep this student, keep this particular staff. He’s got high ratings with students, students’ feedback is high and the potential national students’ service scores are great. But the research objective will say no, the staff is inactive, he’s not publishing, he’s not producing, what in a broader frame, what the schools’ objective is about in terms of publishing…… this is where we have a sort of a classic conflict ” (Interview transcript from George, page 6).

In support of the above claim, Harold added that;

“There’s a lot of different tensions I suppose in different ways. Hmm, one of the tensions we have at the moment is the, especially here at xxx, I guess is the boundary between the delivery of teaching and the pursuing of research and how we can balance those two interests because both are extremely important, strategically” (Interview transcript from Harold, page 3).

He further explained that;

“At different times of the year, one or more of those roles becomes more important. So, during the teaching time, the teaching and admin role are critical and there are deadlines and things that need to be done. You have to be ready for your lectures; you have to do the marking done on time. In the summer, the research role will take over, maybe some preparations as well. So, for the next few months our priority is within research and a bit about preparation but the focus will be in trying to do research” (Interview transcript from Harold, page 6).

Kelvin also confirmed this claimed in the following statement where he said that;

“We all have our own expectations but then, the most important party are the students. I mean, we’re here to meet that expectation because they’ve got so much high expectations that their paying so much and they want so much back as well, and even though the challenges are not, in terms of the occurrence is not so much, but when they do come, you try to give it all the priorities and try to reassure them” (Interview transcript from Kelvin, page 8).

Basically, the issue of prioritising falls within the dual roles of teaching and doing research. Hence, these tensions are faced more by academics than administrative staff. As observed by one academic who said;

“Personally I think the most challenging one I will say is research because anyone can be a teacher especially in higher education context anybody can teach you know but not everyone can do research and especially, in this era in the academic, if you have no papers then it becomes problematic for you to even move between institutions” (Interview transcript from Robin, page 6).

Research Excellence Framework (REF) expectation is the fourth and last sub-theme that was identified under tension. Thus, tension arises due to the tendency of REF to build
hierarchies among staff, REF’s impact, and pressure on the part of academics to publish. In terms of REF building hierarchies, Larry acknowledges this in his statement where he stated that, “increasingly I think REF has kind of skewed the whole dimensions of how we value peoples’ academic work in the departments and suddenly we are creating hierarchies now” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 2). He went on to explain that;

“It is so competitive now to publish. That puts us into a lot of pressure. So, that's one aspect. So, suddenly, you’ve got this kind of hierarchy within the department where you got people who are likely to be research, a lot of people are research active but they will not publish or even if they publish, they may not be publishing at the level we want them to publish, which could be, in terms of REF. So we’re creating a kind of hierarchy within the departments, which kind of create conflicts” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 1).

Nick also gave a note of warning for HEIs not to rely heavily on REF expectation. Stating that REF should be encouraged up “to the extent that it sets a standard and that objective for academics and for researchers makes it a good exercise I think. However, it becomes a sole driver of performance appraisal, then I think that it could generate maybe some negative consequences as well” (Interview transcript from Nick, page 4).

Tom is also in agreement to this claim, even as he suggested that;

“Because of the research excellence framework, there's a lot of pressure on the staff to perform at a much higher level and some of them who are research active possibly they don’t have that level of trust because, you know they have been actively engaged in research. So they're fine but those who are not actively engaged in research or who had no pressure prior to this kind of exercise, they are really facing a tough time. Because, you know, universities are, at the moment, for example here, they are not getting any workload bundles. It’s about the time you give as a staff to do research” (Interview transcript from Tom, page 2).

Impact of the Research Excellence Framework was described by one participant in the following quotation. According to him;

“The last strand of the research environment is what is called impact case. Impact cases are special cases that are based on projects that members or staffs within the university might have done and that may be over the last ten years or fifteen years and so on and so forth, which, can be reviewed with a view of demonstrating how beneficial they have been to society. So in a sense, what are the things I may talk about publication, research grants, PhD students, the PhD environment which was just beyond the PhD, it includes people who are supervising the students, the facilities we have, the resources to support PhD students and the PhD students themselves producing output” (Interview transcript from George, page 3).
As far as the impact of REF is concerned, Amanda added that, “the higher up on the card you are, the more funding you get and more money. So that encourages the institutions to do more research and to build on their research” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 30). Larry, on the other hand, pointed out the inability to determine the impact of academics’ publications using REF as a standard of measurement. According to him;

“A lot of high impact journals, may not be necessarily be read by a lot of people outside the academia……. Therefore, it's not about, that's not the only research you should be doing, you should be doing other things as well because, I don't think we do very well the thing around the impact” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 3).

Tensions in Higher Education Institutions can be regarded as sources of leadership challenges in these institutions. In other words, leaders’ crave to maintain and balance paradoxical values, differing and sometimes unclear objectives, prioritising, and REF expectations are some of the factors that lead to tension in these institutions.

4.5 Theoretical Sampling

Theoretical sampling is the fourth component of grounded theory addressed in this thesis. Emerging themes from the theoretical sampling did provide two main insights. The first insight is that servant leadership has gender connotations, particularly a feminist dimension of viewing the construct from the role of women, as mothers. In other words, this perspective reflects a feminist dimension of the servant leadership construct. Hence, additional data, from among the female participants, was taken to fully explore this theme. What actually led to the development of this theme was a statement made by one female participant who said;

“My staff would come up to talk to me saying, this student has come to me with this problem, I feel really worried about the student and it's usually the female ones that will come and say that, which is quite interesting because, or they will flag up, I don't think, I think the student is very stressed and I’m concerned about the student and we have a process we put in place so that the students will, you know, channel to the right people to get help. Hmm, it's often the female lecturers that pick that up” (Interview transcript from Lucia, page 4).

Thus, the follow up data was used to basically determine if the role of women as mothers played any significant influence on leaders’ tendency of exhibiting any of the principles of servant leadership. Surprisingly, there were mixed reactions to this question. In the sense
that, while some women believe that motherhood did shape their leadership practices, others felt indifferent to such claims.

Betty was one of such women who agreed that her leadership style changed when she became a mother. She said, “Certainly having had kids did give me a lot of insights in, I think being able to manage students. If nothing else, it gives me insights into the language that they are using, how it's used and what's going on” (Interview transcript from Betty, page 9). Sarah also supported this claim stating that, her leading style changed due to motherhood. She said, “probably now, I'm more understanding because before I was probably more chummy and now I'm more sort of understanding” (Interview transcript from Sarah, page 5). Another woman added that “there are things which people say about me as a leader, which when I think about it a bit more, I can probably see it came from the experiences of being a mother and the sorts of things you have to deal with as a mother” (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 12).

Participants who agreed that motherhood shaped their leadership styles were further presented using a matrix coding query search. The search was drawn between women who occupy academic positions and those who are within the administrative unit. Result shows that the number of administrative women who agreed that motherhood did shape their style of leading was twice the number of women in academic. However, no identifiable factors were mentioned as causing this discrepancy. One woman who is an admin staff expressed it in the following words, “I am a little bit, maybe protective of students perhaps of their interest, possibly because I am a mother (sic), more than anything else” (Interview transcript from Alice, page 22). Another woman puts it this way, “I think there was something there that probably, you know, helped me click with students” (Interview transcript from Sarah, page 5).

It seems that “something” is what might have triggered a deep and inexplicable yawning for women to be able to reach out to others. But, contrarily to these responses, another group of female participants believe that their leadership style was influenced by other factors, and not motherhood experiences. One lady suggested quite frankly that, “it’s something that is within you, and you develop and at a certain age, having children enhances it” (Interview transcript from Alice, page 29). While another maintained that;
“I've always related well with students even before I had children. Because, I went into education, then trained as a teacher, so it was almost the same thing in there that made me think that was something I wanted to do and I did teach secondary school for a number of years. Hmm, and that was before I had children so I think, that was just something which I do” (Interview transcript from Betty, page 9).

Thus, suggesting that her early academic background was what really influenced her leadership practices and not motherhood experiences. Sarah, another participant, shared similar opinion as she claimed that, for various reasons, her relationship with students had always been very cordial, and goes way back before she experienced being a mother. She said, “I had very good relationships with students somehow. And some of them stayed in touch, years and years and years after they've finished. And that was before I was a mother, so I think there was something there that probably you know helped me click with students” (Interview transcript from Sarah, page 5).

The second insight, derived from the theoretical sampling, is the Leading Manager Theory that has to do with the diverse obligation of leaders in HEIs. A leading manager is one who performs both administrative and academic duties simultaneously, by way of, bridging the academic and administrative gaps, switching between roles so as to achieve desired outcomes in the organisation. Detailed description of the Leading Manager Theory, which addresses the fourth objective of this study, is presented in chapters 5 (section 5.5) and 6 (section 6.3).

4.6 Memo-ing

Memo-ing is the fifth component of grounded theory, being addressed in this study. A memo refers to a “brief conceptual look at some aspect of the accumulating data set: an insight, a puzzle, a category, an emerging explanation, a striking event” (Miles & Huberman, 1984, p. 25) which might have occurred during the course of either collecting the data and/or during the time of analysis. Two types of memos were identified from the study’s data. One of the memos, named Leadership-Management divide, was created from the Leading Manager Theory. It indicates that the debate on whether administrative staff are leaders or not, was more about drawing a distinction between leadership and management, than on making inferences about where leadership lies in HEIs. That is, whether it is within the academic realm or administration unit.
One participant expressed this opinion in the following statement, “I think it's difficult to isolate it from management but I would say that leaders tend to be more, I will say, more inspiring and give you space to develop yourself, rather than manage projects or all that sort of things” (Interview transcript from Abby, page 2). Another participant expressed this difference in the following manner;

“I’m not particularly directive, I don't say, "you must do this or you must do that", it's normally done by collaboration and mutual respect........ I think I’m a collaborative leader. I’m somebody who likes to collaborate with people. I do teach in classrooms and I lead modules. So, I think, again you influence, it’s more influencing people I think through ideas and through thoughts, that’s what I do, I think” (Interview transcript from Lucia, page 2).

While Amanda on the other hand, describes the difference between leaders and managers in the following quotation;

“I think it's the usual scenario, people mix up whether a leader and a manager are the same. But, they are two different things. Hmm, a manager manages and gets on with it and a leader, has an idea, and that's why all the people put him in place, that's my rough definition of it really” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 1).

The other memo identified from the data was created out of collegial leadership. This memo suggests that participants’ views on collegial leadership, more or less, bear an overlap with distributed and consultative leadership approaches. Particularly, when participants were asked to mention what leadership approach they would recommend for HEIs to adopt. One of the participant said “I think distributive model of leadership perhaps is something which I think is strongly recommended, you know where the motive is to support decision-making where people at least can have a say” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 7). This claim was further expounded by another participant in the following statement;

“I would think something like a more distributed approach to leadership is useful. Now again, you can argue whether that is being practiced or not, which is, you started with your hypothesis that, lots of organisations including HEIs are still hierarchical and bureaucratic and one thing, which comes as part of being bureaucratic or hierarchical is that, you got a very top-down kind of structure for managers and leaders were accountability flows from top to bottom” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 6).

The above quotation affirms that, while bureaucracy could possibly impede the successful implementation of collegiality among staff in HEIs, it is needed in these institutions to
maintain law and order. For ease of understanding the analysis of data the codes, emerging themes and categories, deduced from the data, have been summarized below in Table 4-5.
Table 4-5: Summary Table Showing Core categories and Codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Categories</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Core Categories</th>
<th>Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finding Fulfilment</td>
<td><em>I think, it’s probably the time I spend talking to students about their personal problems, about their personal issues, are, I find more fulfilling than actually teaching</em> (Amey, page 1)</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td><em>If more emphasis is placed on the REF, it could lead to falling standards in teaching quality for instance. Simply because maybe lecturers may not want to spend more of their time on teaching activities but would concentrate on research activities</em> (Nick, page 4).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Orientation</td>
<td><em>I certainly consider myself to be quite experienced in comparison to several other people. Whether I consider myself to be a leader? I would say a taught leader, I will aim to become. A taught leader, someone who sets the agenda in a certain type of thinking</em> (Adams, page 7).</td>
<td>Tensions</td>
<td>*One of the tensions we have at the moment is the, especially here at xxx I guess, is the boundary between the delivery of teaching and the pursuing of research and how we can balance those two interests. Hmm, because both are extremely important strategically” (Harold, page 3).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Door Policy</td>
<td><em>I like to think that staff can come and talk to me about anything really. Hmm, not work-related, it can be home things, personal things, and that's because I’ve been here a long time</em> (Amanda, page 10).</td>
<td>Leadership Taxonomy</td>
<td><em>What we need in Higher Education Institutions and in any institution is a formal horizontal collegial form of decision-making......my idea would be some form of collegial, collective form of leadership with someone who of course, all these big organisations, someone has to make decisions</em> (Chris, page 2).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative Thinking</td>
<td><em>A broad sort of view, not trying to be too focused on we’ve always done it like that, so we’ll solve it in that way”. But, to try and think of other options</em> (Abby, page 2).</td>
<td>Technical Skills</td>
<td><em>The skills that have helped me are psychology, understanding individual personality traits...so that I can understand people that are different and similar to me</em> (Billy, page 5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Issues</td>
<td><em>I sort of discovered when I started working in this role that students, PhD students come to me with lots of things apart from their academic and, that actually, you know really almost shocked me to start with</em> (Sarah, page 4).</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**HEIs’ Leadership Practices**

**Diversity:** One of the challenges is that, we have got people from all sorts of different areas, different professional backgrounds (sic), who's got kind of different mind sets about things just because of the way, you know, their routes through to where they are now (Agnes, page 3).

**Professionalism:** We tend to stick with the students’ relationship; it tends to be more academic guidance rather than interpersonal guidance. But you know if a student came up to me and ask me for advice on where he should apply for a job or what clear career direction he would take, then I would give him my opinion and they often do” (Lucia, page 3).

**Open door policy:** I think because my doors are always opened so they just pop in for anything, all the time (Abby, page 6).

**HEIs’ Leadership Practices**

**Servant leadership principles:** I have been a student at one stage so I can understand you know what sort of difficulties and challenges they're facing and, lots of students, they don't talk, like for example, Chinese, you know, they are very quiet. The reason is this, you know, you need to understand why they are quiet right? and then, I personally feel when I was a student talking to my number of Chinese friends, I mean, one thing we see is that, they are not very friends with the language” (Tom, page 5).

**Creative thinking:** a broad sort of view, not trying to be too focused on we've always done it like that, so we'll solve it in that way. But, to try and think of other options (Abby, page 2).

Field Data, 2015
4.7 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter addresses each component of grounded theory, as was adopted in this thesis. A systematic analysis of how these components were adopted in this thesis was presented step by step for ease of understanding. The components include theoretical sensitivity, data analytic process, coding and identifying core categories, theoretical sampling and memo-ing. Using quotations (sometimes Tables and Figures) from the interview transcripts, the chapter thoroughly addressed the components in line with the data analytical instruments previously mentioned in chapter 3 (see section 3.4.3). Having systematically addressed the components of grounded theory, the five objectives of this study are analysed in the next in chapter, which is chapter 5. The chapter also presents a detailed description of the emergence of the Leading Manager Theory, which is the crux of this thesis, from HEIs’ leadership practices.
Chapter 5: ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Chapter 5 specifically addresses the five objectives of this thesis as well as a general discussion of the findings of the study. It took a step-by-step approach, using tables and figures, to analyse all five objectives of the study. To begin the analysis, there is need to revisit the purpose of this study. Through a detailed description of HEIs’ leadership practices, this study seeks to develop and present a leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions, which demonstrates the complexity of managing the institutions. It is thus expected that the study will enhance the general and contextual knowledge and understanding of servant leadership, as demonstrated by leaders within this sector. While the five objectives of the study are;

1. To clearly identify leaders in Higher Education Institutions.
2. To describe their leadership orientations.
3. To know existing leadership practices in these institutions.
4. To conceptualise a leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions.
5. To suggest leadership approaches suitable for managing HEIs.

5.1 Objective One: To clearly identify leaders in Higher Education Institutions.

In order to realise the first objective of this thesis, participants were asked the following question, as extracted from the interview schedule (see Appendix G, question 3) “Who are the leaders in this institution? The objective was achieved as participants attempted to define who they think leaders are, in their respective institutions. Their responses clearly expressed two opposing viewpoints. On one hand, participants’ views ranged from Chancellors, Vice Chancellors, Deputy Vice Chancellors, managers, executives, Deans, heads of schools and departments, senior administrative staff, module leaders, and lecturers. Vice Chancellors are those who actually run the affairs of the institutions alongside with the Deans and Heads of the various schools. As such they usually fall within the academics realm since they happen to be fully engaged in research and teaching. Executives and managers fall within the administrative realm and are concerned with administrative duties.

Module leaders and lecturers are the people that have constant and direct contact with students in the institutions, and are also actively engaged in teaching and research. These broad categories seem to suggest that there exists hierarchy and, chain of command in
Higher Education Institutions. It also suggests that leadership exists at all levels within the institution. While on the other hand, their views suggested that anyone can be a leader, as far as Higher Education institutions are concerned. Thus, to explicitly present this information, excerpts from the interview transcripts, stating the sources of data and broad categories of leaders are shown in a table in Appendix A. The table shows that the head of HEIs is known by different terminologies such as Vice Chancellor (VC), Principals, Directors and executives.

5.2 Objective Two: To describe their leadership orientations.

The data that was used in addressing this second objective is presented below, as well as the NVivo 10 classifications of HEIs’ leadership orientations. In all, five types of leaders (see Table 6-1) were identified among leaders in Higher Education Institutions, which are assertive leaders, defensive leaders, positional leaders, subjective leaders and systemic leaders. The five types of leaders and the leadership orientations of each type are presented below in Table 6-1. However, in order to facilitate discussions concerning this objective, participants were asked the following question (see Appendix G question 1) “by reason of your introduction, do you consider yourself to be a leader?

**Assertive leaders** are those who strongly see themselves as leaders even without knowing what informs their mind-sets, or why they see themselves as leaders. When asked if he sees himself as a leader, one of the participants named Allen responded in this manner:

“I think hmmm, I probably do in some context. Hmm, but I also think all academics, to some extent, have to think of themselves as leaders. Hmm, and obviously, we are leaders in terms of knowledge, and generally, we are leaders in terms of the way that we work for students” (Interview transcript from Allen, page 1).
Table 5-1: Summary Table showing Leaders’ Orientations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Orientations</th>
<th>Types of Leaders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, I am a leader</td>
<td>Assertive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, I am not a leader</td>
<td>Defensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader by Position</td>
<td>Positional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader by others’ opinion</td>
<td>Subjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anybody can be a leader</td>
<td>Systemic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Field Data, 2015

Allen’s view deeply expressed, in a way, an assertive leadership orientation, although with certain contextual undertone. Assertive leaders believe that they are leaders regardless of their position or authority. Allen’s statement also expressed an academic-administrative divide, in the sense that, while leadership is regarded to be an exclusive privilege of academics, the same might not be true for administrative staff. In the same vein, another participant who narrated that also supported this claim:

“I would say yes students mainly, of course they look at you for directions, as to where, what they need to know and where the module should be holding. So in that sense, I would say yes, and also even colleagues, sometimes, would also look up to you for leadership and direction on maybe issues of research or certain issues that will come up here and there. So, I would say yes, I’m not in an official maybe capacity sort of” (Interview transcript from Nick, page 1).

Another participant named Adams also shared these views. An excerpt from his conversation revealed that, “I certainly consider myself to be quite experienced in comparison to several other people. Whether I consider myself to be a leader? I would say, a taught leader, I will aim to become. A taught leader is someone who sets the agenda in a certain type of thinking” (Interview transcript from Adams, page 7). Defensive leaders are those who either are too humbled or too shy to admit that they are leaders, even though they are occupying leadership positions in their respective institutions. Thus, assertive and defensive leaders exist on the same continuum, but at two opposite positions within the continuum. Defensive leaders refuse to see themselves as leaders.
This type of leadership orientation was further described by Chris in the following statement, “I don’t see myself as a leader now in institutional sense, what I try and do, I try and act as a mentor for people who want to (sic), who want to publish...I see myself more as a mentor than a leader” (Interview transcript from Chris, page 1).

The followings statements were taken from the interview transcripts to further demonstrate the defensive leadership orientation;

No! I’m not a leader because am not accountable to anyone. Leaders are people who are up there. I don’t like seeing myself as a leader. A leader ought to be accountable to somebody but my duties do not warrant me to report to anybody” (Interview transcript from Amey, page 1).

Betty also seemed to have this type of defensive leadership orientation. This can be seen from her statement where she emphatically said that;

“I never see myself as a leader in what I might think of a leadership role but I know that I am a leader because people look up to me and have expressed that to me and I think possibly because I lead by example, I think they respect the quality of what I do and how I approach things, and I think that I gets a lot of support” (Interview transcript from Betty, page 1).

Robin on the other hand argued that;

“I don’t think everyone can be a leader because not everyone wants to take on responsibilities not everyone is prepared to serve their communities not everyone. That is why there will always be leaders and there will always be people who will be led. But in context of course everyone can be a leader” (Interview transcript from Robin, page 5).

Positional leaders on the other hand, are leaders by reason of the official position they occupy within their respective institutions. This type of leadership orientation was described by Adams, who said, “I certainly consider myself to be quite experienced in comparison to several other people. Whether I consider myself to be a leader? I would say a taught leader” (Interview transcript from Adams, page 7). He went on to affirm in the following statement that he is a leader by position stating that;

“Taught leaders in research will be people who are setting the agenda for research, trying to create new goal posts, whereas, my line manager who I consider to be a massively successful leader is more about co-operations, day-to-day service delivery, what could be done to make sure that it gets to the right places? xxxx Those are the kinds of things I think is slightly different as an admin
George was of the same opinion even as he confirmed that “yes possibly I’m a leader, I’m probably leading but I will say in a broader scheme of the university, it will be a middle level kind of role if you look at it from the top” (Interview transcript from George, page 4). Luke also stated that, “yes, well I’m a module leader” (Interview transcript from Luke, page 1). Nick too was in agreement of the fact that, he is “a module leader” (Interview transcript from Nick, page 1). While Kelvin summed it up in the following statement that;

“I think the mere fact that you are a lecturer, delivering on a different particular module, the participants or the students see you in that leadership role, and automatically you assume such because you are leading the students towards them achieving the aim of the learning objectives of whatever module it is that you are delivering on. So in that respect yes there’s a leadership aspect to it. again because I'm also a module leader on a couple of modules so that added more of a kind of leadership functions to my overall role, because I'm not only leading the module, which invariably means I'll be leading a team of other stuff, I'm also designing the module to enable the student to actually achieve the objectives set out on the module. So in more than one way yeah I mean there are the different leadership functions that all built within, that's module leadership role, and even within the non-academic aspects now, I also occupy some other leadership roles because within the administrative bit, because I'm part of a couple of other committees, where, one of it I chair so in that capacity which is non-academics, I mean, one takes up that leadership role as well” (Interview transcript from Kelvin, page 1).

Robin also agreed that;

“Yes to a large extent because of my responsibilities as a programme leader so yea I’m a programme leader a course director so more or less I provide leadership in terms of course management, time tabling and most importantly pastoral care to my student as well” (Interview transcript from Robin, page 1).

However, it is not clear whether or not this category of leaders will cease to be viewed as leaders at the expiration of their official positions. Subjective leaders see themselves as leaders based on the opinions of others as opposed to their own personal convictions. These leaders have come to accept their leadership attributes by reason of how other people look up to them as such. This type of leadership orientation was described by one of the participants who said, “some people see me as a leader while some don’t” (Interview transcript from Abel, page 1). Another participant also responded to the question whether or not people look up to her as a leader. She said, “yes, they do and it always surprises me actually that they do” (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 3).
Billy was also not sure whether or not he is a leader arguing that, “to be a leader, I think one needs some followers. I don't know where my followers are at the moment although they may be here” (Interview transcript from Billy, page 1). Another excerpt on subjective leadership orientations identified from the data includes;

“I don't try to position myself as a leader in the sense that, it will influence people to achieve a shared objective. Hopefully, that shared objective is learning and gaining a qualification so you could say I’m a leader. I don't see myself in that way. Really, I see myself more of a facilitator of learning and personal growth” (Interview transcript from Harold, page 2).

Whereas, systemic leadership orientation is one that promotes leadership by anyone depending on the situation in which a people find themselves. This means that one can assume leadership role regardless of the other five orientations (assertiveness, defensiveness, positionality, subjectivity and systemic). Systemic leaders are those who believe that it is possible for anybody, regardless of his or her position, to be a leader. This leadership orientation is found everywhere within an educational sector, as noted by one participant who said, “if we're talking about the development of people, well I don't know, I think both admin and academics can be leaders” (Interview transcript from Lucia, page 2). It was thus, described by another participant in the following statement,

“Anybody can be a leader and I think people try to take a very complex approach to leadership. People don't even realise that even, in your own home, you make decisions, you take leadership, you know, roles in your positions. You know, I mean in your homes, some of the things that you do, so, I'm of the opinion that anybody can be a leader” (Interview transcript from Paul, page 6).

This opinion was supported by another participant who believe that, “every teacher is a leader in his/her classroom. So, you know, is it primary school, or, is it university? I don’t think it matters” (Interview transcript from Sarah, page 1). Participants agreed that anyone can be a leader, but that this is only feasible within certain boundaries. Robin agreed to this claim that, “in context of course everyone can be a leader. If you are home with your kids, you are a leader, you tell them what to do and so it depends on the level of what exactly you’re talking about can everyone be a leader, the duration of the leadership, how long is it transient?” (Interview transcript from Robin, page 5). Another participant was also in agreement to this claim, stating that;

“I think if you look at formal structures, then one will mean the head of business school is a leader of the business school. In terms of the head of the entire
institution, maybe departmental heads will be leaders. So formal structure, clearly we know who the leaders are at every level and at every point in time. However, when you look at leaders, maybe more broadly, and more broadly, I mean anyone who's got the power to influence people, then it will take the followers to be students, and the leaders would usually, I would say is, maybe the lecturers who have got that direct contact with the students. Yes, so it’s very difficult for me to say these are the leaders or those are the leaders. I think it depends on the context that one looks at it” (Interview transcript from Nick, page 1).

Kelvin also supported this viewpoint that anyone, regardless of his/her position, can be a leader. He suggested that;

“I think people on a leadership capacity transcend all through even within the non-academic side of things, I mean we have different departments and within the department we have team members, within the team we have other committees so, in more than one ways I think we all perform some form of leadership role during our career here within the university” (Interview transcript from Kelvin, page 2).

George on the other hand approached the debate from a different angle stating that, “my radical view is that everybody is a leader okay. So everybody leads their own portfolio of roles so, leadership is a responsibility and requires you performing that responsibility well” (Interview transcript from George, page 9). This position was further buttressed by Kelvin who said;

“My interpretation of leadership is anyone that direct, that leads, that coordinates, yeah, so I think everyone within their different roles, no matter how tiny the function is kind of links back to that leadership role, that's just my own perception” (Interview transcript from Kelvin, page 3).

Though it was observed that leaders “can come from anywhere” (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 4) within an organisation, be it an academic or administrative staff. In other words “anybody who looks after a team, in some ways, is a leader, to less or more than others” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 6). This was further summarised by one participant who said;

“I think in some ways, there's a little bit of a leader in us all in some degrees because even you may not be a line manage anybody, be a team leader, you can still lead within your group of people. Because if you think of an idea or you have a certain skill that others don’t have on, you can lead with that and ensure it does help the others. So it not necessarily, you have to have a high-ranking job to be a leader. You could be a leader on the ground floor because of certain knowledge you have, certain abilities and skills you might have that you can help
the others with. So, I don’t think there’s any boundary to a leader” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 6).

However, another participant argued that “the most important people in the university are the people who have direct contact with the students even if it's the technical support staff, if it's the academic staff” (Interview transcript from Chris, page 4). This goes to show that regardless of the status of employees that is whether they are academics or administrative staff, leadership in Higher Education Institutions.

5.3 Objective Three: To identify existing leadership practices in Higher Education Institutions.

In order to realise the third objective of this study, participants were asked the following question (see Appendix G question 4) “which particular skills helped you to perform your duties effectively?” Responses to this question needed the categorization of Higher Education Institutions’ leadership practices into five major themes as presented below in Figure 7-1. These are diversity, professionalism, open door policy, creative thinking, and servant leadership practices, as earlier mentioned in section 4.3 above. Diversity was quite feasible in almost every conversation though the study’s participants described it differently. It is an important skill that staff of Higher Education Institutions ought to possess in order to function efficiently. This is because as multi-cultural organisations, people are bound to differ in terms of opinion as suggested by one participant that “people will behave differently” (Agnes, page 9).

**Figure 5-1: HEIs’ Leadership Practices**

- Diversity
- Professionalism
- Open door policy
- Creative thinking
- Servant Leadership Principles

Field data, 2015.
This was described by one participant in the following ways; “my personal approach is that we all develop our own approaches, everything will be evolutionary and nothing is identical, there has to be something unique, what every employee, every student is able to do” (Interview transcript from Adams, page 4). Almost all the participants appreciated the presence of diversity within their respective institutions. Another participant believed that diversity means:

“Encouraging people to look at things in a different way because I think that’s the way that you can grow as a person. You know, to have different approaches to things, appreciate how other people tackle problems and (sic), just appreciate that other people are different than them. It’s amazing how, what surprises me actually is that people forget that, just because you see the world in this way, doesn’t mean to say that everybody else is going to and, until you understand that, it makes it very difficult to actually manage situations” (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 8).

One major challenge confronting Higher Education Institutions’ leaders is how to effectively manage diversity, which is a predominant feature of these institutions. Another participant observed that, “the key skill of the leader is to be willing to take a decision that could, to some point don't align with his” (Interview transcript from Allen, page 8). Agnes also pointed this out in her statement when she said:

“One of the challenges is that, we have got people from all sorts of different areas, different professional backgrounds (sic), who's got kind of different mind sets about things just because of the way, you know, their routes through to where they are now. So, in terms of leading a big department like this, one of the really important things for me has been trying to bring people together so that they, they understand what everybody does, what their role is in not just the department, but in the whole university” (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 3).

Diversity can also be traced to the different aspirations, ambitions and mindsets of people in Higher Education Institutions including staff and students, as highlighted by one of the participants:

“There are different types of people, everybody can’t be the same. There are people who are happy with, I have a 9 to 5 job that I can go in, I can lecture, I can do my Admin, I can go home, I have a family, that’s fine. There are people who are, you know the barest minimum I can do I will do, they are fine with it. There are people who are, you know,” I want to keep doing stuff and I want to keep doing stuff” that’s fine. Everybody goes with what they want for themselves and that’s fine so everybody can do it, it just depends on what they want so if what you want is international recognition then what you are chasing and what you are doing is international recognition” (Interview transcript from Luke, page 14.)
Sarah on the other hand learnt to appreciate diversity in the workplace through the following expression, “I like people in all their variety, and how they are different and their different experience” (Interview transcript from Sarah, page 5). She added that, “I really like students, I like the varieties and the facilities, I really like the students and all coming from different environments and I'm sometimes fascinated to see what they're actually doing” (Interview transcript from Sarah, page 2). In terms of professionalism, it seems in spite of always wanting to support others, participants agreed that they relate with students and colleagues with utmost professionalism. In as much as they would want to help people, they did that within acceptable legal boundaries. This is captured in the following statement made by one of the participants who said:

“It doesn’t mean to say that I can agree to everything that they might want to do but at least having somebody who's kind of being there, being through it, probably helps them. So there is that kind of empathy and I suppose compassion really. But, equally, I have to be quite hard sometimes and you know, be quite objective” (Interview transcript from Agnes page 14).

Another participant puts it this way that, “I think it’s called PPD- personal and professional development. So besides your professional aspect, you are knowledgeable at work, you must also have a personal side that makes you happy within that business” (Interview transcript from Abel, page 1). Another participant warned that “because you've got a professional position as well as a friend of others. I don’t use my position as a means of getting to know things (sic), if people want me to know things, they know they can come tell me” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 11). Participants do recognise the importance of working professionally whether as a friend to colleagues/students or as a boss. As revealed by one of them;

“I have pretty good relationship with my students professionally. So, I never ever involve in any kind of students activities or personally develop some sort of actions, no. So, only professionally, you know it's a career cut boundary for me” (Interview transcript from Freddie, page 8).

Lucia on the other hand made a clear distinction between relating with students professionally and personally. She said;

“We tend to stick with the students’ relationship; it tends to be more academic guidance rather than interpersonal guidance. But you know if a student came up to me and ask me for advice on where he should apply for a job or what clear career
direction he would take, then I would give him my opinion and they often do” (Interview transcript from Lucia, page 3).

Professionalism was also expressed in terms of how leaders find balance and fulfilment at work. This basically expresses how important it is for them to secure a balance while at the same time, pursuing conflicting objectives, such as, balancing work and family and, maintaining close ties with others at work whilst bossing them at the same time. One woman puts it this way:

“I think the whole work-life balance thing is important and when you have a family, obviously you need to devote time to your family as well as to your job and I actually worked part time for about ten years when the family was young and I think that was a really good thing for me... It’s important to have a life outside work, and that makes you much more balanced I think, as a person (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 13).

Another woman balanced her relationship with staff in the following way; “I just try to keep in touch with everything but not in a way that undermines the managers who are looking after it. That’s the real difficulty, because you need to know, but you don’t want to interfere so yea, that's about the balancing act” (Interview transcript from Abby, page 9). Open door policy and creative thinking had already been treated earlier on as core-categories. The fifth HEIs’ practice has to do with those practices that demonstrate the tenets of servant leadership. They include accountability, awareness, balance and fulfilment, communication, courage, empathising, exemplary leading, fore-sight and vision, integrity, mentoring and pastoral, Personal and Professional Development, self-sacrificing, trust and humility. Since data from this analysis was used to address the fourth objective of this study, a detailed explanation of these principles is presented later on in this chapter (see section 6.5). Some of the principles share similar characteristics with others; hence they were merged into eleven broad groups.

5.4 Objective Four: To conceptualise a viable leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions

For ease of obtaining the data needed to address this objective, the researcher first of all tried to identify principles of servant leadership as practiced by the leaders (participants). To achieve this, participants were asked the following question; “do you by any chance practice these skills in performing your duties? The question is based on Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) identified principles of servant leadership namely accountability,
empowerment, humility, authenticity, concern for others, courage, empathy, and stewardship. In all, eleven practices, consistent with the tenet of servant leadership were identified from the data. These are accountability, awareness, communication, courage, empathy, exemplary leading, fore-sight/vision, integrity, mentoring/pastoral care, Personal and Professional Development (PPD), self-sacrificing, trust/humility. Suggesting evidences of servant leadership practice among leaders in Higher Education Institutions. For proper understanding, data for this information is further presented in line with Prasad (1993) modified Concept Card. Two Concept Cards were used to present this information.

The first Order Concept Card (see Appendix B) contains information such as data sources, quotations from the participants, the overarching concepts of these quotations, as well as the underlying themes that define the quotes. Whereas, the second Order Concept Card (see Appendix C) is used to present conceptualizations of principles of servant leadership, drawn from the first card, and relating these conceptualisations to the eleven identified principles of servant leadership. These two tables are attached as appendices to the thesis, as such; they appear at the end of Chapter Eight. Next, is a narrative description of the conceptualisation of the Leading Manager Theory, which happens to be the tenth core category of the data of this study.

The leading manager theory describes a leader’s tendency to demonstrate and effectively combine both leadership responsibilities and mundane administrative or managerial duties. The dual-culture nature of Higher Education Institutions (Gill, 2011), as earlier explained in the literature (see section 2.4), makes it quite possible for leaders within the sector to perform both academic and administrative duties regularly. Thereby, leading to the conceptualisation of the Leading Manager Theory, from the primary data collected for the purpose of addressing the issues in this thesis. Three sub-themes were identified under the leading manager theory, which basically describes the roles that leaders, particularly academic leaders, perform in Higher Education Institutions. These include role switch, bridges academic-administration responsibilities and focusing on outcomes. A detailed explanation of this theory and its weaknesses are presented in the next chapter (see section 6.3).

5.5 Objective Five: To suggest leadership approaches suitable for managing HEIs.

This objective intends to explore participants’ opinions concerning an appropriate leadership
style for managing HEIs, as such the analysis was done with respective to two identifiable
demographic attributes of the participants namely gender and the status of the leaders. This
was done in order to know if there are variances concerning participants’ views based on
these two attributes being the most dominant attributes of the leaders. Hence, it was
considered necessary to ask the participants to suggest, as a follow up question, an ideal
leadership style suitable for managing HEIs. Thus, the next section deals with these
recommended leadership taxonomies which had been categorized into three broad groups
namely blended leadership, collegial leadership and contextual leadership styles. These three
styles were found to have been repeatedly mentioned by the participants.

However, for purposes of clarity, the terms ‘cases’ and ‘passages’ have been used to indicate
‘participants’ and their ‘views’ concerning a particular type of leadership taxonomy. A
‘case’ refers to the number of participants who have been coded to have expressed opinions
on the issues of concern, while ‘passages’ refer to the “number of separate text segments”
(Bazeley, 2013, p. 262) where the opinions have been expressed. The follow up question
(see Appendix G question 6c) which the participants responded to is stated as, “What
leadership style (s) do you consider appropriate for managing HEIs?” NVivo 10 matrix
query search was conducted to examine this claim and the result based on the gender of the
participants is shown below (see Table 5-2).

Table 5-2: Summary Table showing Leadership Taxonomy based on Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Taxonomies</th>
<th>Persons: Gender = Male</th>
<th>Persons: Gender = Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blended Leadership</td>
<td>Four cases, Seven passages</td>
<td>Two cases, Five passages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collegial Leadership</td>
<td>Three cases, Ten passages</td>
<td>Six cases, Fifteen passages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contextual leadership</td>
<td>Two cases, Four passages</td>
<td>One case, One passage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Field Data, 2015.

The findings did vary with respect to the two demographic attributes; hence, these have been
presented in separate tables. Table 5-2 reveals the identification of ten separate text
segments (or passages), which is the highest number on the gender column for male, with
respect to the statements made by male participants. While on the gender column for
females, fifteen passages also described collegial leadership style. This number is also the
highest on the gender column for females. Whereas, a summary table showing excerpts of participants’ expressions concerning these taxonomies with respect to gender, is presented in Appendix D respectively. The question (see Appendix G question 6c) which participants’ responded to is as follows, “what leadership style (s) do you suggest appropriate for managing HEIs?”

Table 5-3 shows that, among all three leadership taxonomies that were identified from the data, collegial leadership was mostly recommended by the participants. However, this claim is strictly based on the gender of each participant. Figure 5-3 is a Word Tree, extracted from NVivo 10 to show how collegial leadership flows from and out of the study’s data as captured from the conversations of the participants. While the second most suggested leadership style is blended leadership, followed by contextual leadership being the last taxonomy.

Figure 5-2: Word Tree showing participants’ opinions on collegial leadership style

With respect to the second attribute, status, another matrix query search was conducted to see if there are any variances in participants’ opinions with respect to the status of the participants (see Table 5-3 below).
Table 5-3: Leadership Taxonomies based on Participants’ Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Persons: Status = Academic</th>
<th>Persons: Status = Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blended Leadership</td>
<td>Four cases</td>
<td>Eight passages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collegial Leadership</td>
<td>Six cases</td>
<td>Sixteen passages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contextual Leadership</td>
<td>Two cases</td>
<td>Four passages</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Field Data, 2015.

Table 5-3 also revealed that collegial leadership is the most highly recommended leadership taxonomy among participants based on their status. This means that collegial leadership was recommended more often by the study’s participants, irrespective of their gender and status. Sixteen coding references (all academics) supported this claim out of the 25 leaders who took part in the study. Even though most of the participants were academics, it was the administrative staff who made references to collegial leadership more than the academics. In other words, the need for collegiality among staff in HEIs is not affected by the dual culture existing within these institutions. A summary table of some of the excerpts showing participants’ expressions concerning the three leadership taxonomies with respect to the status of the participants is presented below in Table 5-4.
Table 5-4: Summary Table Comparing Leadership Taxonomies based on Participants’ Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxonomy</th>
<th>Question: what leadership style (s) do you suggest appropriate for managing HEIs?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Status: Academics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Status: Admin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blended Leadership</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cases</td>
<td>passages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Betty</td>
<td>“So you’ve got very almost like, first line managers if you Like, from the academic side because their running these large modules. So you’ve got that kind of structure in it. But then across that you’ve got these kinds of people who may be more experts in different areas as well. That’s how I see it because there isn’t, I’m probably referring back to an older model of HEIs where there’s lot of collegiality” (page 4).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chris</td>
<td>“within universities now, I don't think, if you talk about the management structures, the lack of sort of a horizontal sort of command structures means that, people don't listen because, you don’t tell the person who's one step above you what you think of them. It’s much easier in a sort of flat management structure for people to put out what they really feel. Horizontal hierarchical structure, you’re thinking, (sic), promotion, will I get it if I say anything etc. you know. So, I don't think, it's not only problem of listening, it's a problem of that people are fighting to say anything or resolve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>passages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agnes</td>
<td>“Sometimes I have to be quite directional and assertive about things but my natural style is much more consultative and collaborative. So that's my kind of default position and, I like to carry people with me, you know to inspire them, to kind of follow the same, the same route that I happen to go along rather than, saying you must do this because I say so. I mean, that's actually not my style at all” (page 5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“One of my strongest principles, I think it's around equality and fairness and, if we're looking at performance management issues for example, (sic), if somebody is not performing to a level which is acceptable, that then has a very adverse effect on their colleagues who happen to cover for them, you know, working on the same team. Covering up for somebody who's not ...not up to the job, so although it can be very difficult having that conversation with somebody, and sometimes we have to</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Luke | not to say anything” (page8).  
“The kind of leadership HEIs actually need for me has to be based on, it’s a difficult one. But it has to be top down leadership which actually should have a vision that everybody shares. Or, at least majority of the people share because if your VC doesn’t have a vision for the university, it doesn’t matter what anybody else does, if your dean doesn’t have a good vision for the department which has to be shared by everybody at least to an extent, the large proportion of people, then it’s not going anywhere so there has to be shared vision for great leadership to actually succeed” (page16). |
| Nick | “I will go for the approach where much freedom and autonomy is given to people at the operational level. Hmm, I don’t know how I can put that in one word. So, those at the operational level in each department, or even within department unit, so, it should be a model where we have specialist making the major decisions because these big institutions generate knowledge and then the key people who generate the knowledge are really not the managers at the top” (page 4). |
| Billy | actually get rid of people. Hmm, it's fairer for everybody. Hmm, so you know, there are different difficult decisions that have to be made, but you just have to be quite, perhaps, strong minded about it” (page 6).  
“But I suppose at the universities, it's a little bit different because you have got a Hierarchical structure with the vice chancellor and (sic) various deans and professors which tends to be fairly simple or standard in (sic) in the UK” (page 2). |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Collegial Leadership</strong></th>
<th><strong>Larry</strong></th>
<th><strong>Martha</strong></th>
<th><strong>Amanda</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“I would think, something like a more distributed approach to leadership is useful. Now again, you can argue whether that is being practiced or not, which is, you started with your hypothesis that, lots of organisations including HEIs are still hierarchical and bureaucratic, and one thing, which comes as part of being bureaucratic or hierarchical is that, you got a very top-down kind of structures for managers and leaders were accountability flows from top to bottom” (page 6).</td>
<td>“It’s because I think of a previous experience because there are other parts of the role, you know, the university collegial environment. You are part of the university, you’re engaging with different people, your colleagues, your subordinates, it’s part of that experience you know, the students are getting and you’re getting as well, as an employee of the university. So, I think it’s kind of embedded, I think that’s part of what I do and also, I think some of the students might move and maybe as PhD students here or maybe MSc. students, so you never know. So also by engaging, when you have this mentoring relationship they’re also talking about their careers, aspirations, you know, what they want to do. So, you know, in some sense, I’m also giving them options that they might not have thought of before” (page 2).</td>
<td>“I like to think that I’m appreciated, (sic) that I’m also (sic), what I say and what I will like to do, they go with, I don’t say do it for the sake of doing it. I do like to get the staff to buy in. So, we do discuss things (sic) particularly something new that we have to do because it may not suit us, we may need to adjust existing practices, we might even need more staff in place, we might even have to change office space, and things like that so, sometimes it’s not always straight forward of doing things so you going to have to have other people involved...and that’s what a good leader is about is, getting people involved, and getting them buy in really, and in some ways empowering them to do what they need to do. Because in lots of cases they’ve got more of the skills than I have” (page 2).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Contextual leadership**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Larry</th>
<th>“I think the emphasis, which is being placed in terms of the leadership perhaps, is different in different institutions, and I'm not arguing whether that's wrong, correct or incorrect, because it depends clearly on what are your key mission and goals. So, any sense of it for example is now important to every university. Students' experiences are important, you know and students' employability is important and some universities do better than the others. But I think, increasingly if you have a model which kind of nurtures and which promotes and supports leaders at different levels” (Page 7).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paul</td>
<td>“Like I said earlier on, leadership is context specific right. If “you're a leader of a band of pirates right, there's no integrity, there's no honesty but still, you are a leader, isn't it? So, its context specific, I think that should be really clear. That a band of pirates who are doing nothing but robbing people every day, will also have a leader, and that leader will also have some kind of influence on their followers, and that pirate will both lead in formal and informal; it's about really being context specific” (page 6).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agnes</td>
<td>“You do need to have different approaches in different situations and, you know, sometimes, I've to get involved in disciplinaries and foremost management issues, which, you know can be quite difficult for everybody. Hmm, but you have to be quite tough and, you know, I think it's about having, having strong principles, which you just stick to” (page 5).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.6 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter took a comprehensive approach towards addressing the five research objectives of this thesis, with the hope that the findings will help achieve the purpose of the thesis, in order to broaden general and contextual knowledge and understanding of servant leadership. The chapter discussed in great detail, findings from the analysis in line with each research objective using tables, figures and excerpts from participants’ interview transcripts. Although, this comparison might seem ridiculous, particularly, for classical grounded theorists, who are opposed to the idea of testing and verifying outputs from a grounded theory study. But such a move was considered relevant in order to either confirm, or refute the observations and arguments made from this thesis. Hence, the need to review literature and, the inclusion of two distinct theories, as previously explained in chapter 2 (see section 2.6) of this thesis, to buttress the claims and counterclaims of the thesis. The next chapter, 6, presents consolidation of the key findings of the thesis. It particularly addresses the new insights of servant leadership and offers general discussion of the research findings in line with existing literature.
Chapter 6: CONSOLIDATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This chapter presents an overview of the main findings of this study in line with the research objectives. It presents two interesting findings that are unique to this study, one of which is the identification of Personal and Professional Development (PPD) activities, which is seen as a new insight of servant leadership principle in Higher Education Institutions. The other consists of the Leading Manager Theory (LMT) and, its weaknesses were also critically examined in the chapter. This is followed by a general discussion of the study’s findings with respect to previous research studies on leadership in general, servant leadership in particular, and Higher Education Institutions.

6.1 Key Findings

The key findings, with respect to the objectives of this thesis, are as follows; first is that Higher Education Institutions’ leadership research is inconsistent but yet very interesting. In the sense that, while leaders were identified based on their positions as vice chancellors, deans, head of department, and module leaders, most participants agreed that anyone can be a leader within the institution. This seems to suggest that power and authority do not always, and/or necessarily, define a leader; instead, leadership is often defined by situational factors like time and chance. Second, the thesis recognises five types of leadership orientations namely positional, assertive, subjective, systemic and defensive leadership orientations. The third is the identification of five HEIs’ leadership practices commonly found among the study’s participants.

The eleven servant leadership principles, identified from the study, are accountability, awareness, communication, empathy, exemplary leading, fore-sight/vision, integrity/honesty, mentoring/pastoral care, Personal and Professional Development (PPD), self-sacrificing and trust/humility. Whereas, the most significant servant leadership principle identified in this thesis, is Personal and Professional Development (PPD). Fourth is the conceptualization of a leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions, as panacea for understanding and addressing leadership challenges in Higher Education Institutions. The fifth is the identification of three leadership taxonomies namely blended, collegial and contextual leadership taxonomies with which HEIs can be effectively managed.
The most interesting finding, among all, was the identification of collegial leadership, due to the usual traditional top-bottom manner by which HEIs are being governed. Hence, it might be interesting to find out how collegiality might be achieved in these institutions.

6.2 Personal and Professional Development

Almost all the eleven principles of servant leadership, identified from this study, coincided with those identified from existing literature (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Liden et al., 2008; Mittal & Dorfman, 2012; Sendjaya et al., 2008; Sipe & Frick, 2015; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011) on servant leadership (see Table 2-1). This suggests that servant leadership is being practiced among leaders in Higher Education Institutions however, one principle namely Personal and Professional Development (PPD), stood out quite unique among the rest. PPD refers to activities like trainings, workshop and conferences, fostered by HEIs’ leaders to ensure that employees’ personal and professional lives are developed and encouraged.

One participant named Abel explained PPD in the following manner, “There’s a terminology for it. I think it is called PPD- personal professional and development. So besides your professional aspect, you are knowledgeable at work, you must also have a personal side that makes you happy within that business” (Interview transcript from Abel page 1). Billy, another participant, on the other hand narrated this;

“It’s part of the vision of all am saying that hmm, probably, part of the arrangement is enabling learning as you’ve seen with us. If it’s not fun, we don’t do it! (Sic), that’s very different than formal universities because we can set the agenda here, and we can set the operational (sic), aspects hmm, so that, it might feel as a family atmosphere, I don't know, between students and staff here. (Sic), and it's one of the enablement, enabling all the staff (sic) to reach their full potentials, and enabling all the students to reach their full potentials” (Interview transcript from Billy page 4).

An understanding of the composition of these activities is important to leaders so as to provide employees with the needed support. Leaders are solely responsible for making and effecting strategic choices within these institutions, as declared by proponents of the upper echelon theory. They are also obligated to serve others in the institutions rather than expected to being served (Graham, 1991), as proposed in the servant leadership philosophy, it would be important for them to understand their compositions. Just as the
servant leadership philosophy sees to the development of followers, so does the employees’ personal and professional development activities.

It might be interesting to know that this is where servant leadership seems to overlap with PPD, as demonstrated in the acid-test for servant leadership proposed by Robert Greenleaf. Greenleaf recognizes that achieving the peak of a servant leader might prove difficult when he suggested that; “The best test, and difficult to administer, is: do those served grow as persons; do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will they benefit, or at least, will they not be further deprived?” (Greenleaf, 1970, p. 15). Some of the answers to these questions can be achieved through providing activities capable of enhancing employees’ Personal and Professional Development as suggested by some of the participants who took part in the study.

One participants demonstrated how she ensured that staff gets necessary support to aid self-development. She narrated that, “they all have a bit of something else to mix (sic), to make an interesting day to (sic) widen their expertise because a few of them out there are quite young, have got careers ahead of them, and want to develop, and will move on eventually, some might move and develop and gain promotion” (Alice interview transcript page 6). She further explained that;

“It’s just gives them more scope and we give them the guidance as well so for example in the university, it is up to each individual directors to how they support staff and in their development and, what we agreed is that, there are lots of in-house courses that they can do, and we promote them. We actively promote them to do it from grade 4 upwards” (Alice interview transcript page 7).

Another participant explained how she got support as a junior staff, which helped her get to where she presently occupies. She said; “I got very good support from my head of department that I worked for then in law and, she encouraged me to do other things and I think if I didn’t have that, I may not be where I am really. So, having good support by your line manager helps you build up those skills hmm, I had a very good working relationship with the whole of the xxx staff and that helped a lot” (Amanda interview transcript page 11). She was able to offer some form of support to those who work with her since she equally enjoyed such support from her leaders in the past. While aspiring to
become an ultimate servant leader is arguably impossible, both servant leadership and PPD pursue similar objectives— that of promoting others’ well-being in the workplace. This thesis is arguing that HEIs’ leaders with diverse roles and obligation operate under the dynamics of the leading manager theory. Hence, the next section elaborates the leading manager theory as applicable within Higher Education Institutions.

6.3 The Leading Manager Theory

Bearing in mind that theory development is prompted by human beings’ struggle to relate with one another for mutual sustenance and societal benefits (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012) the Leading Manager Theory (see Figure 6-1) was developed to address leadership challenges in HEIs. A leading manager is one who switches between leadership and managerial roles, bridges academic-administrative practices, and focus on outcomes in order to overcome leadership challenges such tensions within the Higher Education sector.

Figure 6-1: The Leading Manager Theory (LMT)

![The Leading Manager Theory](image)

Source: Field Data, 2015

*Role switch*, which is the first sub-category of the leading manager theory, basically describes a leader’s ability to multi-task without losing any colours. Participants, especially academics, did acknowledge that their role as academics is increasingly changing with respect to government policies, higher education pedagogy, and in
accordance to changes within the dynamic external environment. This was clearly expressed by one of the participants in the following statement;

“I don’t get flustered or panicky about things, and I am quite sure that is the result of having to multi-task and manage all sorts of different things when you’ve got young children... particularly, when they are growing up and you are being pulled to all sorts of different directions” (Interview transcript from Agnes, page 12).

Multi-tasking could also be in terms of leaders’ ability to manage the various relationship channels at the workplace. According to Amanda, “you’ve got to have a professional element as well as a friend element (if you like to call it). Sic, and that’s sometime quite difficult to draw the line” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 11). Another participant was of the opinion that role switch seems to have been triggered by the changing nature of work from mostly the traditional work concept to the modernized mode of conducting work. Larry affirmed that;

“We live in times, which are very different, you know traditionally. So, possibly I think the role of an academic has changed dramatically over the last few years or the last decade. I mean academics today have bigger roles above all I think they do a lot of activities, which involves, I mean teaching is still important but teaching is not the only thing now that they do. So, I think they need to embrace some of those changes. A lot of thing is also about networking increasingly and you’re now, in many situations, you stand for the university, and you are a public figure so I think again, acknowledging that it's not only about coming to the office and teaching and going back” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 7).

Larry further suggested that both staff and students of Higher Education Institutions are engaged in some form of role switching mechanisms. He pointed out that;

“You are now required to be around, be available, make contributions to different aspects of the university work, and act as a good ambassador. Whether you’re a student, whether you're an administrator whether you're academic it doesn't matter. So I think the ambassorial role for the academics or for the staff, I think it is important” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 8).

Luke also described role switch in terms of how HEIs’ leaders are able to effectively manage and maintain the various relationship channels among staff, and between students at various levels of study. He said;

“My relationship with my students is very interesting in the sense that it depends on what level they are. For undergraduates, the relationship tend to be slightly
Among administrative staff, role switch can be very dynamic as leadership responsibilities in most cases are often very vague and sometimes ill-defined. One administrative staff confirmed that her team is involved in a lot of activities which “can be pretty much anything because it’s all connected to our external image, what we’ll look like to the outside world” (Interview transcript from Abby, page 9). As a staff of HEIs, Lucia found role switching to be very interesting as it avails her the opportunity to learn new skills which might equip her for future challenges. She said;

“The work is very interesting here and I had different leadership roles in it. I used to work in the academics department of human resources management, because that’s my professional background. So, I was head of school in Human Resources Management before I came across this strategy and operations management. So, I’m responsible for the resourcing of the department in strategy and operations management. So, there are about 24 academic staff and I’m responsible for the quality of their work and the allocation of their work” (Interview transcript from Lucia, page 1).

Administrative staff seems to perform this obligation of switching roles in ways that are quite different from academics, hence their opinions have been highlighted below. One administrative staff named Abby, described role switch in terms of how her obligations have been able to affect both staff and students. She said; “we look after all that comes and goes out to staff and students, former students alumni, we look after all that comes from them and try to keep relationships going with them so that they will come back and talk to current students” (Interview transcript from Abby, page 8).

The second sub-category which is bridges academic-administrative divide was viewed differently by both admin and academic staff. One participant named Adams, who is an academic, made a clear distinction between an academic leader and an admin leader. He pointed out why he thinks admin leaders are not involved in combining both academic and administrative duties. He suggested that;
“Research leaders or taught leaders I suppose, is somewhat different than management leaders, leaders in management or administration okay. Hmm, so taught leaders in research will be people who are setting the agenda for research, trying to create new goal posts. Hmm, whereas, my line manager who I consider to be a massively successful leader is more about co-operations, day-to-day service delivery, what could be done to make sure that it gets to the right places? Someone has achieved something in the team, how is it been propagated, publicised, how people outside the group know about this success. Those are the kinds of things I think is slightly different as an admin leader and someone who's a taught leader. A taught leader has got world-wide acceptance maybe and both has its own place” (Interview transcript from Adams, page 8).

Another academic shared the same opinion, stating that, “I don't see the administrators in that condition exactly (sic) having exercising leadership or possessing leadership as academics” (Interview transcript from Allen, page 3). He further suggested that, “in terms of academic leadership, (sic) I think administration should be more of management (sic) rather than leadership” (Interview transcript from Allen, page 2). It seems for purposes of division of labour and separation of power, one administrative staff advised that, “it's much better if the admin did the admin and the academics did the teaching and the research, and let their support staff do the rest for them” (Interview transcript from Alice, page 18). Nevertheless, whether or not, this objective is achievable is difficult to ascertain, especially when the above statements are juxtaposed in line with the Leading Manager Theory.

Some academics, on the other hand, seem to have successfully combined both administrative and teaching duties at the same time. This is because both roles are interdependent as observed by one of the participants who said, “they do overlap and we rely really heavily on the admin team and they are invaluable” (Interview transcript from Harold, page 3). Another also supported this claim stating that, “I don't think you can actually manage well in academia without being a good leader as well. Hmm, I think they're quite intertwined” (Interview transcript from Betty, page 6). She further suggested that, “good leaders should also be good managers in many respects. Hmm, particularly when it comes to running some of the academics programs. You would hope that they weren't just; I don't think you can actually manage well in academia without being a good leader as well” (Interview transcript from Betty, page 6). In support of this argument, another academic reiterated that;

“Academics are no way lacking in leadership, in formal management skills but that's one part they may have an advantage on. Which is, you know, being able
to understand arguments, being able to assess information” (Interview transcript from Allen, page 9)

Tom on the other hand asked, “why do we co-exist if everything could be done by academics or everything could be done likewise by admins?” (Interview transcript from Tom, page 3). Luke, who is an academic, was also of the opinion that, “you have designated leaders but almost everyone in a role has a position of leadership If you are working as a lecturer, you are actually a leader because you are working with students” (Interview transcript from Luke, page 3). The above opinion was also supported by another female academic who believed that every academic does perform some sort of administrative duties alongside teaching and research, irrespective of their institutions. According to her;

“You could argue that some of the management roles within the academic side of it is administration, and we all do administration but I think in a very large institution, well even in small institutions, there is definite role for administration. Hmm, it has to be there because you do need to ensure that there are systems that work that supports the learning and teaching” (Interview transcript from Betty, page 5).

In the same vein Sarah opined that “leaders sort of, have got administrative kind of role” (Interview transcript from Sarah, page 1). This further suggests that, all academics are not only leaders but administrators too, as shown in the following statement “I think all academics should express the qualities of leadership” (Interview transcript from Allen, page 2). While George, who happens to be a professor, is also in agreement that academics perform dual obligations thereby, emphasizing the significance of the leading manager theory existing in Higher Education Institutions. He stated that;

“I have got two roles one is that of professor who does all things that you would expect of a professor, teaching and doing research but also I administer or lead the graduate education in the xxxx school which means that I represent the school in all University committees but also in charge of the day to day administration of the graduate education programme” (Interview transcript from George, page 1).

Whereas, the situation is different for administrative staff who, in the eyes of some academics, are not to be referred to as leaders, but managers. One academic named Freddie strongly affirmed that “those people are not the leaders; those people are managers to manage those kinds of programs” (Interview transcript from Freddie, page 6). He went on to explain how he performs his leadership and managerial obligations to
staff and students. As a leader, he said “what I’m supposed to do is to offer advice, offer support whatever it might be. It could be, you know, just emotional support” (Interview transcript from Freddie, page 2). While his administrative duties are captured from the following quotation;

“My administrative role ...... is either I direct, if I am directing in other words I’m guiding, on a day to day basis, administering the program so what will that mean? I mean, that will mean signing documentation, examining documents and commenting on them, working closely with the administrative staff as to what’s going on, and which will comprise of a lot of stuffs. This could be processing of student expenses approving student expenses arranging for examination, paying supervisors or external examiner expenses or liaising to get external examiner appointed and so on and so forth... That is the administrative mundane day to day stuff” (Interview transcript from Freddie, page 2).

However, contrarily to these arguments, Amanda, who is an administrative staff and also a school manager, thinks differently, stating that her roles as an administrative staff also involve bridging both academic and administrative teams in her institution respectively. She said;

“I do have to have that overall view but, I also need to know what the academics are doing to make sure I have the support for them in what they do as well. So, it’s quite (sic), bit of a hybrid role, it bridges the academic and the admin teams together really” (Interview transcript from Amanda, page 2).

Interestingly Amanda was not alone as far as this opinion is concerned as another participant rightly pointed out that;

“Anybody can be a leader but it depends on what your description of a leader actually is. So you have managers who are in designated positions but not everybody who is a manager is a leader not every leader is a manager so anybody can be a leader it depends on whether they want to lead or if they see themselves as one” (Interview transcript from Luke, page 3).

In support of this opinion, Luke pointed out that;

“It depends on the area of Admin, Admin is key to whatever we do as Academia just as much as the Academia is key to what the Admin do in the university, without the Academic side of things, there is no need for the Admin people and without the Admin people we can’t run what we do in Academia anyway so it’s supposed to be interchangeable” (Interview transcript from Luke, page 4).

No doubt, the job of administrative staff is as important as that of academics in HEIs, in the sense that both function to keep the institution going. Robin expressed this position
stating that, “we’ve got different roles in the university, ours is teaching and scholarship and theirs is to provide administrative support” (Interview transcript from Robin, page 3). This was acknowledged by one academic who, said; “I tend to take a view that it might not be correct to see the admin staff as a kind of different people who don’t play leadership roles” (Interview transcript from Larry, page 5). While another was of the opinion that;

“I think the non-academic staff have more roles to play in terms of directing, coordinating because they are the ones that do all the background, I can call it dirty jobs getting everything done before they pass it on to us in a refined way and you can now move on, yeah” (Interview transcript from Kelvin, page 3).

Though the different views from participants suggest that while anyone can be a leader, not everyone who manages can actually lead. Thus, taking one back to the unresolved managerial puzzle of which is more important from an organisational point of view; whether leadership or management? The theory suggests that leadership and management are inseparable and indivisible elements. In any case, wherever one exists, the other is equally present as revealed in the following statement;

“You can also have people doing the module leadership functions called module leaders, programme leader of those functions, they have management roles but they are also expected to actually lead and give directions as opposed to just administer. So I think where you’ve got, perhaps if confusion comes around, when you think about management, if you think about only as administration, then it takes you to one direction but, I think it's broader than that which encompasses the leadership role as well. So it is leadership and management, kind of combined together, if that makes any sense” (Interview transcript from Betty, page 6).

The above statement suggests that academics are seen to be more likely to combine both administrative duties and leadership functions than administrative staff. Nick clearly pointed this out in the following statement that;

“My role is basically designing or determining the module content and also how it can effectively be delivered so I design and structure the whole module and then deliver it to four of them, I assess students. Hmm, I also undertake some research apart from lecturing that should be expected, so teaching and research and sometimes do administrative duties” (Interview transcript from Nick, page 1).
As mentioned in the above statement, whether or not, this theory is feasible, is an issue that needs further investigation. However, one major challenge of this theory is the ability for a leading manager to determine which obligation is more important in order to devote more time and energy to it. This was observed by one participant, who said that,

“I think the problem we have is that there are probably three professional roles, the teaching, the research, the admin are fine. I think the problem is that sometimes, it’s not clear which is most important......during the teaching time, the teaching and admin role are critical and there are deadlines and things that need to be done. You have to be ready for your lectures; you have to do the marking done on time. In the summer, the research role will take over, maybe some preparations as well” (Interview transcript from Harold, page 6).

Focusses on outcomes is the third sub-category of the leading manager. In as much as the leading manager’s intention is to switch between roles in order to bridge academic and administrative duties, his aim is to realize the final objective or outcome of the department or organisation. Thus, the leading manager, “sort of forms the vision of the university, where university goes” (Interview transcript from Sarah, page 1). Leading managers can be described as those “people with vision, they see where university goes and how it develops” (Interview transcript from Sarah, page 2). Adam added that, “in many cultures, the concept of a leader is Hmm, is informed by the sole idea that the leader sets examples which you emulate, which you follow whereas, in tasked-based cultures like the UK, you're more driven towards achieving tasks” (Interview transcript from Adams, page 1). Abby also narrated that;

“We still have to deliver what the department has to deliver so there’s always certain constraint within that. People just can't do something because they like to, but within those constraints, and yea, I liked, it's good for me to lead a team that is made up of people who want to achieve and can achieve because then we can do more (sic), and meet more of our objectives” (Interview transcript from Abby, page 3).

In his own opinion, Sam referred to these outcomes as “strategic goals or what we call the objectives” (Interview transcript from Sam, page 2) of an institution. They are also viewed in terms of,

“Students achievements, students getting jobs, students internships, getting really good grades. That's something that certainly in this department as far as I can tell across the school, is really important to us” (Interview transcript from Harold, page 4).
Thus, the Leading Manager Theory describes the existing diverse and often competing leadership obligations in Higher Education Institution. Recognizing these diverse functions is important to the sound understanding of the overarching principles upon which these institutions were founded.

6.4 Weakness of the Leading Manager Theory

While the Leading Manager Theory arguably offers plausible and descriptive explanation of the complexity of leading and large organisations with diversity in race, religion, ethnicity gender and customers’ expectations (Bell, 2010; Patrick & Kumar, 2012), its practicability is restricted to the education sector. More importantly, it is restricted to academics that are often caught up with performing multiple tasks such as teaching, researching and administration and are expected to pursue these different objectives successfully at the same time. The theory is not applicable to all kinds of organisations, and this may be seen as a major weakness of the Leading Manager Theory. As mentioned earlier on this thesis, the theory fails to explicitly show how HEIs’ leaders can successfully pursue all three objectives without undermining any one at the expense of the others. However, since the trademark of any “good theory is parsimony” (Eisenhardt, 1989, p. 547), the LMT is likely to serve as steppingstone for future research to build on and possibly, question its validity.

6.5 Discussion of Findings

From the preceding analysis, it can be stated that the leadership narrative in Higher Education Institutions is somehow very fascinating, particularly, with respect to the identification of leaders among the study’s participants. In the sense that, there were mixed and divided opinions concerning who leaders really are. While some participants were quick to identify leaders such as the vice chancellors, heads of departments, deans and school managers by reason of the position that these categories of people occupy within the institutions (positional leadership orientation), others believed that authority and position do not always define leadership position in an organisation. This latter group of participants believed that ‘anyone’ can be a leader as such the researcher termed this notion as the systemic leadership orientation. They believed that anybody can assume leadership position at any given time regardless of the position he/she occupies.
In spite of these divided opinions, it was clear that the study’s participants described leaders in HEIs mostly from a positional point of view. Hence, leaders were identified as those people who have vested power and authority to act on behalf of group members, which literarily describes the traditional interpretation of leadership. Apart from contradicting the tenet of servant leadership, the implication of viewing leadership from such myopic traditional and positional-driven perspective is that of limiting the leadership capability of others within the institution. The traditional connotation of leadership seems to be governed by some assumptions of the upper echelon theory, which states that organisational outcomes (profitability, growth, innovation, employees’ trust and commitment) are often shaped, to a large extent, by the actions of those responsible for making strategic decisions (Hambrick, 2007). Suffice to state that the decisions are further influenced by the leaders’ values, attitudes, educational background, status, age and financial position.

Research (Peterson et al., 2012) exploring the relationship between leaders demographic elements and servant leadership, using the upper echelon theory, revealed that there is a positive link between the servant leadership and demographic elements. Under this assumption, the Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) and managers are seen as belonging to this category, and are regarded as leaders. However, contrarily to the description of leadership based on the upper echelon theory, findings from this thesis indicate that, a leader does not necessarily have to be someone who occupies key position in an organisation. This further suggests that organisational outcomes may equally be influenced by anybody who happens to be at the right place and time to make strategic choices. Viewing the concept of leadership from this perspective somehow helped to overcome the temptation of restricting leaders exclusively to either academics or administrative staff instead, both parties are regarded as leaders.

This, to a large extent, can be seen as a way of bridging the existing academic-administration divide within Higher Education Institutions. This finding is further reinforced by the Leading Manager Theory (LMT), which suggests that, regardless of their staff status, HEIs’ leaders perform both leadership and administrative duties concurrently whilst trying to achieve organisational objectives. However, with respect to the first objective of this thesis, which is to clearly identify leaders in HEIs, it could be argued that the debate is inconclusive, in the sense that there was no consensus on who
leaders are within the higher education sector. This further goes to confirm previous research findings identified from the literature that the concept of leadership is quite disoriented (Bolden & Petrov, 2014), in spite of being the most explored concept in the field of management (Masood et al., 2006). There seems to be a parallel line of argument concerning leadership in Higher Education Institutions. the literature revealed that HEIs lack adequate leadership principles needed for the effective management of these institutions (Lumby, 2012; Wheeler, 2012).

With regards to the leadership orientations of the participants, which informs the second objective of this study, suffice to state that the composition of leaders in HEIs revolves around two contradictory or extreme positions. On one extreme holds the view that power and authority define leadership, and that leaders are easily identified by the position they occupy (i.e. positional leadership orientation). While on the other extreme lies the assumption that a leader can be anybody (which describes the systemic leadership orientation) within the institution. This finding is consistent with Gill (2011) claim that the inability to get a consensus on who leaders are might be as a result of the existing two irreconcilable yet interdependent sub-cultures (academics and administration) in HEIs. However, in between these two extreme positions lay the other three leadership orientations namely assertive, defensive and subjective leadership orientations.

The study also identified five broad leadership practices, with respect to the third objective of this thesis, which is to identify existing leadership practices in Higher Education Institutions. These are diversity, professionalism, open door policy, creative thinking and, servant leadership principles. On the other hand, identifying the principles of servant leadership invariably led to the achievement of the fourth objective of this thesis, which is to conceptualise a viable leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions. Just the way servant leaders are expected to perform different roles- being a leader at one time, and a servant at other times as well as addressing the needs of different stakeholders, the Leading Manager Theory also describes the multi-tasking nature of academic leaders in the higher education sector. However, there were gender differences with respect to the level of practice of servant leadership principles such as empathy, in the sense that, female participants sounded more empathetic to students’ plights than their male counterparts who took part in this study.
This finding corresponds with earlier research (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Tedrow & Rhoads, 1999) on the concept of leadership as having gender connotations. Clearly, gender has significant impacts on leadership characteristics as argued by Eagly and Carli (2007). While another author (Fine, 2007, 2009) also affirmed that, due to gender disparities leadership styles of men and women have often been addressed differently. The fifth objective of this thesis, which seeks to suggest leadership approaches that might be suitable for managing Higher Education Institutions, was also addressed through the identification of three leadership taxonomies. These are blended leadership, collegial leadership, and contextual leadership approaches. Blended leadership describes a leader’s collaborative ability to balance contradictory aspects of leadership in order to achieve a unified objective (Coleman, 2011).

In order to withstand the constant changes within the education sector, as well as deal with dual cultural demands of HEIs, this leadership approach might be useful for balancing the different obligations in the sector (Jones, Harvey, & Lefoe, 2014). According to Baylis (1989) collegial leadership describes a situation whereby the process of leadership is being “exercised overtly by and through the group” (Baylis, 1989, p. 3), and where “decisions are taken in common by a small, face-to-face body with no single member dominating their initiation or determination” (page 7). Whereas, the underlying idea behind contextual leadership suggests that effective leadership depends on the context in which leadership occurs (Osborn et al., 2002). This means that once the context changes, the style of leadership is also bound to change, however the extent of the change is not known. In other words, “leadership is embedded in the context” (Osborn & Marion, 2009, p. 192).

Surprisingly, findings from this thesis, with respect to the three identified leadership taxonomies, seem to support and at the same time contradict previous research findings. The findings support earlier studies conducted by Collinson and Collinson (2009) with regards to the identification of blended leadership in HEIs and, Bolden et al. (2008) research concerning contextual leadership. In their study, Collinson and Collinson (2009) found that, in addition to wanting clear direction towards achieving set goals, employees within the FE sector prefer consultative leadership approach more than any other approach. The authors captioned this approach as the blended leadership approach and went ahead to define it as a leadership style that focuses on the “interrelatedness of
leadership behaviour often assumed to be incompatible dichotomies” (Collinson & Collinson, 2009, p. 369).

Examples of such incompatible, but yet inviolable, dichotomies in HEIs include maintaining bureaucracy and flexibility at the same time, balancing research and teaching, academic freedom and autonomy, and maintaining both vertical and horizontal relationship channels. Likewise, Bolden et al. (2008) also identified contextual leadership as a leadership practice in Higher Education Institutions. The authors recognised the presence of contextual variables among HEIs’ leadership practices such as external and internal factors that impact on an organisation’s activities. Regarding the external factors, the authors observed that “the higher education sector is becoming increasingly politicised and subject to external pressures” (Bolden et al., 2008, p. 369). They provided examples of these external factors within the sector as consisting of the political, technological, and socio-cultural environment of organisations, while the internal factors are the organisations’ values, culture, goals and vision.

However, contrary to Collinson and Collinson (2009) proposed blended leadership approach for managing Further Education institutions, participants in this study advocated for collegial leadership style. Consistent with findings from earlier research, which states that “traditionally universities have been governed on a collegial basis, focusing on developing knowledge both in the students attending and through research activities” (Davies et al., 2001, p. 1025). Prior to this research the opinion was that universities are made up of “communities of scholars researching and teaching together in collegial ways” (Deem, 1998, p. 47). While these opinions seem to be advocating for a sense of collegiality in the Higher Education sector, they are also expressing a shift in the direction of leadership within the sector. Ultimately, from the traditional power-driven notion to a more relational approach that describes the underlying foundation upon which these institutions were built on.

Thereby, contradicting the research findings conducted by Collinson and Collinson (2009) study. Collegial leadership might offer plausible ways of addressing tensions within HEIs, arising from the pursuit of multiple and conflicting objectives as demonstrated from the findings in this thesis. However, it was unclear if the variance between the findings from this thesis and Collinson and Collinson (2009) study, is as a result of factors other than contextual differences (the background in which both studies
were conducted). While Collinson and Collinson (2009) research was conducted within UK Further Education sector, this particular thesis explored Higher Education Institutions in United Kingdom- England and Scotland in particular. Or whether perhaps, the two overarching leadership styles (blended and collegial) share similar characteristics, in which case they could invariably mean the same thing and as such, can be used interchangeably.

Furthermore, this thesis identified gender dimension of servant leadership as an emerging theme from this research. This was observed in the following statement made by one of the participants who narrated that:

My staff would come up to talk to me saying, this student has come to me with this problem, I feel really worried about the student and it's usually the female ones that will come and say that, which is quite interesting because, or they will flag up, I don't think, I think the student is very stressed and I'm concerned about the student, and we have a process we put in place so that the students will, you know, channel to the right people to get help. Hmm, it's often the female lecturers that pick that up (Lucia, p. 4).

Another participant also supported this claim by saying that “there are things which people say about me as a leader, which when I think about it a bit more, I can probably see it came from the experiences of being a mother and the sorts of things you have to deal with as a mother” (Agnes, p. 12). The above statements suggest that gender has significant impact on leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2007) particularly, in the way leadership styles of men and women are often addressed (Fine, 2007). Due to gender differences in leadership characteristics (Tedrow & Rhoads, 1999), it could be claimed that under given circumstances, women are likely to adopt relational leadership approaches more than men. One of such relational leadership approaches is servant leadership. Servant leadership describes a leader’s normal tendency of wanting to serve others rather than wanting to lead (Greenleaf, 1970).

This finding is consistent with the many studies (Crippen, 2004; Ngunjiri, 2010; Parolini, Patterson, & Winston, 2009; Reinke, 2004; Reynolds, 2011, 2016) that have examined servant leadership from a feminist dimension. A gendered perspective of servant leadership, based on this thesis, implies that there is need for leadership researchers to narrow down the gap between leadership approaches that are suitable for men and women. This is because “the pervasiveness of seeing leadership both as practiced
differently by women and men, and having gendered characteristics demonstrates how deeply embedded gendered constructions are in traditional conceptions of leadership” (Fine, 2009, p. 185). However, not all participants hold this gendered perspective as there were some who felt their leadership styles had nothing to do with their role as women. The following statement described such situation;

“I've always related well with students even before I had children. Because, I went into education, then trained as a teacher, so it was almost the same thing in there that made me think that was something I wanted to do and I did teach secondary school for a number of years. Hmm, and that was before I had children so I think, that was just something which I do” (Betty, p. 9).

Furthermore, this study also identified tension as a Key Success Indicator (KSI) in the Higher Education sector. Tension arises in Higher Education Institutions due to the pursuit of paradoxical values, differing and sometimes unclear objectives, prioritising, as well as, expectations from the Research Excellence Framework. Again, this is consistent with Gill (2011) research findings that UK Higher Education Institutions are facing leadership and managerial tensions. He reported that tension occurs between “administrative leadership and faculty leadership; between corporate leadership and departmental leadership; between autonomous collegiality and controlling managerialism; and between academics’ allegiance to discipline and their allegiance to the institution” (Gill, 2011, p. 54).

Also in support of this finding, Bolden et al. (2008) declared that UK Higher Education Institutions are increasingly facing tensions. This is as a result of changes and on-going restructuring of this sector, one of which is the marketisation of these institutions (Brown & Carasso, 2013; Newman & Jahdi, 2009). Building on these authors’ opinions it is very likely that the perceived changes might have certain implications for faculty members, leaders of the institutions, as well as the institutions themselves (Bolden et al., 2008). Thus suggesting that, like most organisations saddled with the responsibility of bridging the leadership gap, HEIs’ may have to review their policy on leadership in order to successfully address tensions within these institutions.

### 6.6 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter discusses in great detail, the outcomes of the findings of this thesis in line with previous research findings on servant leadership in the Higher Education sector.
Such a move was deemed necessary in order to either confirm and/or refute some of the claims and counter-claims made from this thesis. Key findings from this thesis, particularly Personal and Professional Development activities as they relate to the servant leadership ideology, collegial leadership and the Leading Manager Theory were discussed. Weaknesses of the Leading Manager theory were equally examined thereby suggesting that the theory is not a one-best way of understanding leadership dynamics in Higher Education Institutions.

Among the findings, the most interesting was the identification of collegial leadership as the proposed approach for managing HEIs due to the bureaucratic nature of these institutions hence; it might be interesting to know how these competing dichotomies can be reconciled. The next chapter, which is chapter 7, addresses the conclusion of the thesis. It highlighted the key assumptions upon which this thesis is based before proceeding to summarize the research findings. This chapter also includes the theoretical, societal and practical implications of the thesis on servant leadership and Higher Education Institutions.
Chapter 7: CONCLUSION

As was earlier stated in chapter 1, the purpose of this thesis is to develop a leadership theory for HEIs, which demonstrates how complex it is to manage these institutions. Whereas, the knowledge gaps that the thesis sought to address are lack of adequate research on servant leadership and Higher Education Institutions, unclear composition of leaders within these institutions, as well as, the absence of good leadership principles with which the institutions might properly be managed. Having extensively analysed the field data, and discussing the findings from this study, this chapter contains the concluding remarks of this thesis. It begins by highlighting key assumptions underpinning the study, followed by a recap of the main findings of the study. The next section addresses the contributions of the study before moving on to propose the study’s recommendations. Limitations of the study were addressed next, while the chapter ends with areas for future research.

7.1 Key Assumptions of the Study

For clarity of purpose, this thesis is guided by three main assumptions—conceptual, theoretical and methodological assumptions.

7.1.1 Conceptual Assumptions

1. Effective leadership is built around two opposing philosophies; service to others and service to organisations’ needs (Taylor et al., 2007).
2. Servant leadership is premised upon these two philosophies.
3. Servant leadership behavioural pattern is triggered by ‘something’ as opposed to ‘nothing’ or natural tendencies, as earlier proposed by Robert Greenleaf.

7.1.2 Theoretical Assumptions

1. Motivational and upper echelon theories clearly provide a comprehensive avenue for explaining leadership behaviour in organisational studies.
2. Leaders’ cognitive, demographic and behavioural elements, such as status, financial position, education and age, interact together to shape servant leadership behavioural patterns.
3. Herzberg Two-Factor theory and the Upper Echelon Theory offer an idealistic
framework for understanding the interaction between leaders’ cognitive and demographic elements.

7.1.3 Methodological Assumptions

1. Qualitative research design best explains leadership narrative in Higher Education Institutions.
2. Grounded theory supports the use of multiple sources of literature, data collection and analysis.
3. Participants, who took part in the study, presently occupy leadership positions in their respective institutions.

7.2 Summary of Research Findings

With respect to the first objective of this study, which is “to clearly identify leaders in Higher Education Institutions”, the findings suggest that power and authority often define leadership composition in HEIs. As such the role of structure in shaping relationship channels in these institutions is inviolable, due to the bureaucratic nature of these institutions. However, this does not necessarily describe the true position of practice-based leadership within the institutions. Most of the study’s participants agreed that, given the right circumstances, anyone can act in a leadership capacity, hence the debate concerning who leaders are within the sector is inconsistent thus inconclusive. This inconsistency seems to reflect the dichotomy between two existing schools of thought.

On one hand, are scholars who see leadership as a product of agent versus team, or, a subject versus object relationship (Åkerlund, 2016). Supporters of this school view leadership as a sole privilege of a selected group of individuals who occupy exalted positions of authority to act on behalf of team members. Under this assumption, group members do not necessarily aspire to lead rather, leadership is bestowed to those that are considered fit to lead others.

Whereas, the second school of thought consists of scholars who view leadership from a systemic position i.e. anyone can lead, thereby avoiding the agent versus team conception of leadership. Mainstream research suggests that leadership is not a unique privilege of only specific groups of people. Instead, it is an outcome of a social interactive process
(Åkerlund, 2016) between and among a group of people who share certain things in common. These divided opinions further add to the confusion surrounding leadership research in general and, there is a parallel notion within the education sector. Some authors (Bolden & Petrov, 2014) have argued that, rather than integrating, the concept of leadership is increasingly becoming very disoriented, partly, due to the dynamic nature of the concept. In view of this, identifying best practices might prove difficult.

Over the years, leadership approaches that have been proposed by authors are increasingly diverse, so much so that it is arguably impossible to discern best practices among the various approaches. While working towards achieving best practices may prove difficult for researchers at the moment, due to the highly contextual nature of the concept of leadership, this might be relevant for purposes of integrating the various accounts of leadership. The situation is not different in the education sector, particularly among Higher Education Institutions; in the sense that, extant literature suggests that there is lack of precise leadership principles in these institutions (Bryman & Lilley, 2009; Lumby, 2012; Wheeler, 2012). In spite of these different factions, participants in this study lean towards the second school of thought that recognizes leadership as purely a network of workplace relationship and inter-relationships.

With regards to the second objective of this study, which is “to describe leadership orientations”, the result shows that among the five leadership orientations, positional leadership was mostly used to identify leaders in HEIs. This is not too surprising considering the traditional top-bottom manner with which HEIs are being managed. This finding does go against the ethos of servant leadership since servant leaders are expected to lead only in an attempt to serve others. Some HEIs’ leadership practices were found to have reflected the servant leadership ideology, hence the third and fourth objectives of this study, which are “to identify existing leadership practices in Higher Education Institutions”, and “to conceptualise a viable leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions”, were relatively achieved.

Whereas, findings from the fifth objective of the study, which is “to suggest leadership approaches that might be suitable for managing HEIs”, clearly revealed the contestable nature of the concept of leadership both in theory and in practice. The three leadership taxonomies namely blended, collegial and contextual leadership taxonomies, recommended by the study’s participants, further demonstrate how difficult it is to draw
consensus on the concept of leadership. In the sense that determining a one-best approach to leading HEIs might prove to be a fruitless exercise since one can hardly isolate context from the concept of leadership. Building upon the findings from the study and the Leading Manager Theory, a summary of the key ideas binding this thesis together is presented below, in form of a doctoral framework, in Figure 7-1.

7.3 Overview of the Doctoral Framework

The doctoral framework (see Figure 7-1) began with a vivid presentation of the Leading Manager Theory, and its components — role switch, bridges academic-administrative gap, and focus on outcomes. This is followed by the ten manageable core categories (finding fulfilment, open door policy, creative thinking, personal issues, technical skills, research, HEIs’ leadership practices, leadership taxonomy, leadership orientation, and tension,), identified from the study’s data. Four out of the ten core categories have sub-categories (i.e. child nodes), which have also been captured alongside the core categories (i.e. parent nodes). The four core categories are tension, leadership taxonomy, leadership orientation and HEIs’ leadership practices.

Tension arises in HEIs due to paradoxical values, differing/unclear objectives, prioritizing, and REF expectations, which constitute the sub-categories of tension. Sub-categories of leadership taxonomy are collegial, blended and contextual leadership styles. Collegial leadership is the commonly preferred style among all three, and this is regardless of the gender and/or status of the study’s participants. Sub-categories of leadership orientation are assertive, defensive, positional, subjective and systemic leadership orientation. Five HEIs’ leadership practices were also identified from the data namely diversity, professionalism, open door policy, creative thinking and servant leadership principles.
Figure 7-1: Doctoral Framework

**Leading Manager Theory**

- Role switch
- Bridges Academic-Admin
- Focus on outcomes

**Tensions:**
- *Paradoxical Values*
- *Differing/Unclear Objectives*
- *Prioritising, *REF Expectations*

**Leadership Taxonomy**

- Collegial
- Contextual
- Blended

**Leadership Orientations:**
- Assertive
- Defensive
- Positional
- Subjective
- Systemic

**HEIs’ Leadership Practices:**
- *Diversity*
- *Professionalism*
- *Open door policy*
- *Creative thinking*
- *Servant leadership principles*

**Servant Leadership Principles:**

- Accountability: Fore-sight/vision
- Awareness: Integrity/Honesty
- Communication: Mentoring/Pastoral care
- Empathy: Personal and Professional Development
- Exemplary leading: Trust/Humility
- Self-sacrificing

Finding fulfillment
- Open Door Policy
- Creative Thinking
- Personal Issues
- Technical skills
- Research
A total of eleven principles of servant leadership were identified from the data, all of which confirms principles from previous research findings as discussed earlier on in this thesis in section 2.4 (see Table 2-1). Among the eleven principles of servant leadership, identified from the study, Personal and Professional Development stood out different from the rest. In terms of its uniqueness to Higher Education Institutions in general, and this thesis in particular.

7.4 Implications of the study

This research made three notable implications— theoretical, societal, and practical, towards the on-going debate on servant leadership and Higher Education Institutions. Theoretically, beyond extending and advancing research on servant leadership and Higher Education Institutions, this thesis proposes the Leading Manager Theory to clearly demonstrate the complexity of leading multicultural organisations like HEIs. Therefore, the study was able to address the knowledge gap that was identified earlier on by Panaccio et al. (2015) and Panaccio, Henderson, Liden, Wayne, and Cao (2014) who claimed that there exists a dearth of research on servant leadership. This is the first study to have uniquely combined grounded theory research strategy and two independent theories (Herzberg Two-Factor and Upper Echelon), to understand the nuances of servant leadership in the higher education sector. Thereby, extending the literature on servant leadership, upper echelon and grounded theory research strategy, as it explores these three elements side by side.

So far, only one empirical research has been conducted by Peterson et al. (2012) to explore servant leadership using the Upper Echelon Theory. Using quantitative methods, the authors investigated the impact of four independent variables- servant leadership, narcissism tendency of leaders, founder status, and organisational identification, on the performance of software/hardware small and medium technology firms in America. This thesis is similar to Peterson et al. (2012) study in the sense that both explored servant leadership within the service industry sector using the upper echelon theory. But, the thesis adopts qualitative approach to provide robust explanation on servant leadership. It is further based on the UK Higher Education sector. While Peterson et al. (2012) study tested the impact of servant leadership on firm’s performance, this thesis sought to describe, in order to understand, servant leadership in great detail.
This study also has societal implication because the servant leadership philosophy advocates for integrity in leaders and for them to show concern for followers as well as the larger society (Walumbwa et al., 2008). As a core category which was identified from the data, finding fulfilment describes the intrinsic satisfaction leaders enjoy whilst practising servant leadership principles. Generally, as far as the promotion of individuals’ growth and development is concerned, servant leadership might be the avenue for understanding how this works in Higher Education Institutions. Practically, the study could provide training institutions and leaders in Higher Education Institutions, with the right information needed to transform their institutions towards becoming servant-led organisations.

Such organisations might be those governed by policies that promote employees’ personal and professional development. Early Career Researchers, interested in exploring servant leadership, might possibly identify potential research areas, which this study may have overlooked. Training institutions would understand why leadership styles differ among organisations so as to map out different training activities for different organisations especially for servant-led organisations. Finally, the findings from this study could possibly serve as guides for HEIs’ leaders in terms of establishing good policies that will promote quality service within the sector. By demonstrating that effective leadership is built around service to people and the organisation (Taylor et al., 2007), this thesis advocates that servant leadership is premised on this philosophy.

Finally, the thesis offers an alternative way of addressing tensions in HEIs (Bolden et al., 2008), and further explains why there is an absence of effective leadership principles within the sector (Lumby, 2012). Policy makers can use the information from this study to establish policies which might encourage supportive working environments, promote value-based and relational leadership approaches in these institutions. Drawing upon the study’s participants’ preferred styles of leadership approaches for managing Higher Education Institutions, this research has attempted to address the knowledge gap identified by Lumby (2012), and Wheeler (2012). These authors suggest that HEIs lack clear-cut leadership principles needed for effective administration. Collegial leadership approach was strongly recommended by participants in this study as the preferred approach for managing Higher Education Institutions.
7.5 Limitations of the Study

Just like in most research activities, this research has certain limitations. First the study’s participants were drawn mostly from senior administrative and academic levels of Higher Education Institutions situated in England and Scotland. Since Wales and Northern Ireland, which form part of the UK, were not included in the study, the findings are not generalised opinions of all UK Higher Education Institutions. The study’s participants were further limited to those who are currently occupying leadership positions in their respective institutions, as such; those who once occupied leadership positions were excluded from the study. Those currently occupying leadership positions were considered appropriate for the study because they fall within the category of Top Management Team (TMT). Only two participants belong to junior staff, one of them from a university in Scotland, while the other is from a university in England. They were referred by other participants who felt they are leaders in their own right, by reason of their relationship with co-staff and students, hence should be included in the study.

The findings from this study do not capture the views of junior staff of the nine institutions used in the study, as such do not present generalized opinion about the issues addressed in this study. While working towards generalization is critical for quantitative researchers, the situation is different for qualitative researchers whose prime purpose is to “describe, explore and understand” (Noble & Smith, 2014, p. 2) the concept of servant leadership as demonstrated in the Higher Education sector. The findings do not constitute opinionated views of how servant leadership is being practiced among HEIs’ staff worldwide. Another impediment to any supposedly generalized claim is that most of the data used in analysing the objectives of this study were derived from Higher Education Institutions situated in England; only few were drawn from Scotland. As such the study focuses more, on providing a basis for describing and understanding the servant leadership narratives, than trying to draw general conclusions concerning the subject matter.

7.6 Recommendations and Directions for Future Research

This study hereby recommends HEIs’ management to adopt relational leadership models, like servant and collegial leadership models, to effectively manage these institutions. However, in order to maintain internal consistency and overcome external constraints in
these institutions, a blended form of leadership might be useful. In other words, it is assumed in this study that, while HEIs can be managed as servant-led organisations, their bureaucratic nature is a threat to the pursuance and realisation of this goal.

One way of advancing the literature on servant leadership and Higher Education Institutions, is to investigate servant leadership practices of academic and non-academic staff of Higher Education Institutions to see if there are any variances. Another potential research area deduced from this thesis would be, a critical examination of the three elements of the Leading Manager Theory namely role switching, bridging academic-administrative duties, and focusing on outcomes, using either quantitative or mixed methods designs. An interesting research area would be in terms of ensuring the transferability of this research by way of repeating the entire research process, but this time, by using quantitative or mixed methods research designs.
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## Appendix A: Summary Table showing types of Leaders

### Question: Who are the leaders in this institution?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data sources</th>
<th>Excerpts</th>
<th>Broad Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agnes</td>
<td>“I mean obviously the vice chancellors, (sic); they are the people that you will automatically think of as leaders of HEIs. Hmm, but you know, anybody at any level, can be a leader” (page 4).</td>
<td>Vice chancellors (VC), Anybody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allen</td>
<td>“I think we’re very fortunate, our principal happens to embody the qualities of a manager and the qualities of a leader” (page 2).</td>
<td>Principals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Billy</td>
<td>“There are two foundations. Hmm, director almost as Prof. xxx and Dr. xxx..... Hmm, they set the vision along with Mr. xxx who is the operations manager” (page 2).</td>
<td>Directors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nick</td>
<td>“I think if you look at formal structures, then one will mean the head of business school is a leader of the business school. In terms of the head of the entire institution, maybe departmental heads will be leaders. So formal structure, clearly we know who the leaders are at every level and at every point in time. However, when you look at leaders maybe more broadly, and more broadly, i mean anyone who's got the power to influence people, then it will take the followers to be students, and the leaders would usually, I would say is, maybe the lecturers who have got that direct contact with the students... leaders are whoever are appointed into certain offices to run or see the administration or proper management of a department or a unit” (page 1).</td>
<td>Heads of schools, Head of Departments (HODs), anyone, lecturers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abby</td>
<td>“The vice chancellor, and most, I think the directors and deans” (page 2).</td>
<td>Deans, VC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amanda</td>
<td>“Anybody who looks after a team in some ways is a leader, to less or more than others. The VC, I see is a leader” (page 6).</td>
<td>Senior admin staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amey</td>
<td>“VC, deans, heads of departments, senior admin staff” (page 5).</td>
<td>Senior admin staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Betty</td>
<td>“So you've got the head of department, you've got administrative staff as leaders” (page 1).</td>
<td>Managers/executives, VC, deans</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
“The VC down to the (sic), the executives, down to the deans and then to managers” (page 2).

“Line managers, heads of departments; we have senior colleagues who, you know, provide leadership sort of senior lecturers. And we have a professorial staff as well; they provide leadership in terms of research. I suppose i should mention our dean” (page 2).

“For you to teach, there has to be some background preparation, some coordination, communication and all these require some form of leadership role, someone driving that process, someone might be at the top, the head of department driving it down to the module leader, the module leader will drive it down to the team, the team will drive it down to the students” (page 3).

“I think both admin and academics can be leaders. But, clearly, the academics are the taught leaders” (page 2).

“Examples are chancellor or vice chancellor or even the heads of departments” (page 2).
**Appendix B: First Order Concept Card Showing Servant Leadership practices**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Sources</th>
<th>Excerpts</th>
<th>Concepts</th>
<th>Leadership Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agnes, page 9</td>
<td>“I’m accountable to the vice chancellor ultimately; I mean that’s quite simple. Hmm, I have a line manager who is our pro-vice chancellor, but in a way, everybody is accountable to the vice chancellor in the university... More broadly than that, I kind of feel that, we are accountable to society really because as a university, you know, our job is about educating people (sic), so that they can contribute to society in some way or other”.</td>
<td>Accountability, structure, psychological contract, Altruism, Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)</td>
<td>Accounting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allen, page 6</td>
<td>“Accountability has to be dealt with reasonably ensued. When you ask someone to do something, you have to be, you know, you have to be confident they have the time and they have the competence to do it...and that they are not just doing it because they feel obliged to do it because you have asked them”.</td>
<td>Marching competence and responsibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amanda, page 10</td>
<td>“Regarding accountability, a lot of them having their job descriptions, that they're responsible and accountable for, like marketing and IT, if things go wrong with IT in the school then they know that they're accountable. Ultimately, I’m accountable because I line manage them but if I’ve told them to do something and it doesn’t happen then they know they're accountable”.</td>
<td>Accounting for self</td>
<td>Accounting for stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amey, page 9</td>
<td>“I’m accountable to myself to start with, and then to other people whose work (sic) depends on, the way I do mine”.</td>
<td>Accounting for stakeholders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chris, page 6</td>
<td>“Academics tend to be accountable to their students, you know. I mean students don’t like a marked class nowadays we have to justify what we're giving. We have to give them far more explanations as to why they produce a particular mark. Hmm and academics within”</td>
<td>Giving value for money</td>
<td>Accounting for stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Page</td>
<td>Quote</td>
<td>Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
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<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chris</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>“institutions, we’re accountable because we are now appraised. We have to demonstrate that we are delivering at the level that we should be delivering”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abel</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>“I think there’s more accountability now in all sorts of ways. And of course, students’ demand increasingly because they're paying directly for something, that's how they see it anyway now. So they demand that they have some accountability for what is delivered”. “Accountability is to your customers and your outcomes”. “I'm accountable to the university, I'm accountable to the students and also to my line manager as well, isn't it. So, it's (sic), but then, it depends to the extent in which you're accountable because that will also lead to specific roles that you're actually doing”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>“Accountability is to your customers and your outcomes”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agnes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>“I think I’m pretty good at analysing, information and (sic) kind of weighing up the evidence, pros and cons, which helps me in my decision making. And, that comes from, well I suppose, you know, university education in the first place so, you know, teaches you a lot about those analytical skills. Hmm, and, I think, as you go through your professional career, you just hone those to a point where actually, you can almost do things instinctively.</td>
<td>Vocational background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>....</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>“I think the whole emotional intelligent thing is very important (sic) in leadership and, again, I think if you don’t have that, that kind of self-awareness, it makes it difficult for you to lead other people. I don't know how you could do it very effectively, because, you need to understand yourself (sic) in order to understand how other people operate”. “I think too much self-awareness, too much self-afflation (sic) as in always not necessarily a good thing when it comes to leadership I think you have to take decisions then you have to move on”.</td>
<td>Appreciating self-awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allen</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>“I think maybe I’m more emotionally aware than, maybe academically aware. In the sense that, if you were to ask me about key theories or scholars and studies, things like that, i may not</td>
<td>Critiquing too much of anything</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amey</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>Differentiating</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Luke, page 13 | immediately name them but if a student came here to talk about, about dealing with depression, dealing with rejection, dealing with disappointments, am self-aware enough to be able to talk to the student about that but I may not be able to tell them what a particular, what scholars in fields that I am not interested in had to say”.  

“It’s just making sure you are aware of what is going on, making sure you actually know what is going on, it’s just keeping your mind kind of aware; okay this is happening here. It’s like the international stuff I told you that I do, it’s just by chance conversation with somebody else even though I was talking about it in a different institution but by chance conversation like “oh yeah you said to me about this thing, why don’t we have a meeting, sit down and have a meeting, no you are actually going about it the wrong way, what do you mean, okay this is how you do it, okay yeah, it might be a good idea for you to do this, no problem you go there then you actually establish yourself in that area. So when they think about it, they think about you, then you have found that niche and you know you can push it”.  

Abby, page 4 | “I spend a lot of time listening, an awful lots of time listening. But, usually, I would say that, what I’m told is only the tip of the iceberg, they’re actually saying something completely different a lot of the time, to what they’re actually coming up extensively about”.  

Tom, page 7 | “You have to because approachable, you can’t keep yourself in a closed door, and you say, you know, I’m leading right? So, you have to go on and talk to people, you need to, you know, rather than waiting for them to come and talk to you. If you look at the good examples of the leaders around the world, you know, for example if you talk about Richard Brownson, every other employee, they claim that, you know, they have his personal mobile number, if you’ve got an idea, you can call him any time. So, that’s how, you know, you build that impression and that’s how you connect to people”.

|  | between emotional awareness and academic awareness  
|  | Keeping abreast with things  
|  | Paying attention to details  
|  | Communication  
|  | Relating importance of communication  

<p>|  | 233 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sam, page 4</th>
<th>“I offer them different channels to communicate with me, to talk to me apart from the lectures”.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>...page 6</td>
<td>“I think why we have two ears and one mouth. Hmm, we need to listen before we talk, right”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul, page 5</td>
<td>“Communication does not actually mean being articulate, you see. It also means saying the right things, it also means being able to communicate, to motivate, empowering, skilling right so, and communication, comes in different forms, verbal communication, written communication as well. So, it’s about really having a good mix of that, and also being able to be strategic as well”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... page 6</td>
<td>“Like I said, that’s also a good way of good leadership where there are some cases where you might need also to talk to somebody informally and then formally. But it’s about really being able to make that distinction, without missing what is the context in which I can make that distinction”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nick, page 2</td>
<td>“I think a number of skills, importantly I would say being able to clearly communicate what the objectives are. So the communication skill is important”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luke, page 2</td>
<td>“The skills required for those ones are, for the international side it’s just having network, so having a good network with people that you can actually work with internationally is what helps with that side of it, and then obviously the ability to create new networks which comes”.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| ...page 6 | “...having a good network with people that you can actually work with internationally is what helps with that side of it, and then obviously the ability to create new networks which comes with a lot of different sort of interpersonal skills, understanding of different culture, cultural things, that’s what comes into the international side which helps me. With the widening participation, it’s part of actually; it’s kind of actually started like a project looking at attainment and..."
Lucia, page 2

retention of students from black and minority ethnic backgrounds”.

“When you think of going into academia you never really think you are going to work with disabled students. You never think you are going to work with disabled students, you never think of those sides of it, you think you are just going to work as an Academic. But then you start to see that there are different things to actually factor in when you are working with different type of students so having a bit of training helps but at the same time having strong interpersonal skills, communication skills. You need to be able to communicate. Nothing worse than an academic who cannot communicate because the students either might not, or would not just turnout for lectures because some students wants to always make sure they can validate that you are the best person to give them that information or you are actually giving them the right information. So that in itself plays a part in that sense so personal skills and communication skills are very key part of it”.

Kelvin, page 3

“I think, a good leader does have a range of different skills that draw on at different times. So, I don't know whether my skills sets have changed but certainly, the ones that I am using probably vary according to the context. I think that, I’ve spent a lot of time communicating with people face to face. The academics that work in the cluster, I will talk to them about their work; I will find out what problems they’ve got and I will try and help them. And, they will come and ask me, if they’ve got any issue around, any of their academic work or they’ve got a particular problem, then they would normally come and we will talk it through and hopefully resolve it. And I think, give them some advice or stir on how to go but I'm not particularly directive, I don't say, "you must do this or you must do that", it's normally done by collaboration and mutual respect”.

....page 4

“For you to teach, there has to be some background preparation, some coordination, communication and all these require some form of leadership role, someone driving that process, someone might be
<table>
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<th>George, page 8</th>
<th>Chris, page 8</th>
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| at the top, the head of department driving it down to the module leader, the module leader will drive it down to the team, the team will drive it down to the students, so there are leaders at every single point in that hierarchical order. And, I think if you look at it critically everyone in that process performs one form of leadership role. Its now depends on what we want to go back and define fundamentally as a leader”. | “I've tried to build up or pick up on different types of soft skills, I mean definitely communication, you have to be a good listener you have to accommodate others peoples' opinion... you are engaged in so many (sic), maybe meetings and people will want to know what you think about the process about the discussions, and the direction of the topic that is being discussed. And I think to me it's very important to communicate what you think your opinions are within a particular discourse. And not just that, I mean, even within my own team, I tend to talk to them more virtually every week. And ask them whether they are okay on the job, ..., especially we just finished assessment now and we’ve got huge number of students we have to have assess so, it’s just sending an email trying to find out, oh are you okay how are you getting on... So communication, listening...I mean, they're all very important skills that I think that actually helped in my role”.
| Regular communication                                                           | Talking is good but listening is noble                                         |

“Very successful businesses genuinely listen to what the people below say

"When I talk about institutions, I talk about bodies, committees, panels that are formed as a result of implementing this. That will be my kind of approach (sic), listening more and trying to interact, understand, don’t show a sign of weakness well, as if you don’t know what you are doing. But then, you want to be seen and show or demonstrate that you are willing to take on board reasonable suggestions as you go along with whatever strategy you have. And that might mean making yourself more available, more accessible, have more listening ear and so on and so forth”.

“Regular communication

Talking is good but listening is noble

"Very successful businesses genuinely listen to what the people below say
<table>
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<th>Betty, page 3</th>
<th>about the people above because genuinely speaking it's telling them something, they need to know of...within universities now, I don't think, if you talk about the management structures, the lack of sort of a horizontal sort of command structures means that, people don't listen because, you don't tell the person who's one step above you what you think of them. It's much easier in a sort of flat management structure for people to put out what they really feel. Horizontal hierarchical structure, you're thinking, (sic), promotion, will I get it if I say anything etc. you know.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Amanda, page 3</td>
<td>“Because we are highly professional, well many of us are highly professional, we also have these small informal structure, networks if you like. It's kind of like the leadership exist within the network and you go to where it is you see you need to find help, advice and support. I think that's how it kind of works as well. So we have a very formal structure but we have this informal leadership stuff that goes on as well”.</td>
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<td>....page 4</td>
<td>“We supervise and looked at new research staffing and some of them are only getting used to our ways of doing things so, there's a learning curve for them as well as for us really. But, having that communication, helps then I can disseminate it down to my admin team, and then to who needs to know what and how they can help and support staff”.</td>
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<td>Allen, page 7</td>
<td>“I think I have a good representation with team. Like I said, I've been here a long time; (sic) I've worked with some of the staff for a very long time. We've got some new staff as well but (sic), we get them involved with things, we have a good induction process for them so they pick up things that they need to learn in the earliest stages. Hmm, get them involved in meeting staff as well as systems and processes. I have regular meetings with the people that I direct and line manage and then that disseminate to people that they line manage. Hmm, I have regular meetings with heads of departments</td>
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<th>Getting feedbacks</th>
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<td>Communicating-formally/informally</td>
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<td>Role of listening</td>
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### Alice, page 17

“(sic); I have regular meetings with the dean of the school. Hmm, I have regular meetings with what I call the senior members of my admin team, so all the team leaders, we meet regularly”.

“I think I’m a fantastic listener but people will think and will tell me that no. Hmm, and so, listening is something we all need to work at whether we are leaders or no. It’s just that, it’s to say, listening is eh listening is a part of the real skill and its certainly important for leaders because leaders have to understand, not just, not just what people can do but also people’s motivation, what people’s concerns are and you could only do that if you are listening. Yes, it’s absolutely the key”.

### Larry, page 7

“Of course academics, what's important to them is their teaching, their skills, their specialism, and their students. And they don't like it when, (sic) that's challenged. So, you have to find a different way of getting to them, and that was why I came up with conciliation because, I went through the mediation and it was obviously during the formal mediation training and I said oh this is never going to work. It’s too formal, you needed something more informal, and that was why I opted for conciliation and I put that forward because, the only thing it’s about talking to people and how you talk to people”.

### Robin, page 2

“A lot of thing is also about networking, increasingly, and you're now, in many situations, you stand for the university, and you are a public figure so I think again, acknowledging that it's not only about coming to the office and teaching and going back. Those days are long gone, you’re now required to be around, be available, make contributions to different aspects of the university work, and act as a good ambassador. Whether you’re a student, whether you're an administrator whether you're academic it doesn't matter”.

### Sam, page 3

“It’s nice meeting students and of course including PhD students who will be the future academics, you don’t know when exactly you are
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<td>Tom</td>
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<td>going to meet someone and it's quite exciting myself when I kind of think of travelling abroad whenever I want to go abroad and then it looks as if in every single country in the world that I want to travel to at least I know I've got an alumni there because I have students coming from all over the world”.</td>
<td>Networking</td>
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<td>“I need to know how to reach people because I’m teaching that is why I need to know what the students feel. I need to tell from their face whether they understand what I’m talking about, and I need to sense their emotions. Sometimes, the lecture may get too boring, and then I can see from their face. Then I need to think of something to motivate them to get their attention. And also here, because I am not from the UK, that’s why I also need to talk to people about research collaborations, yea how to let them know more about me, what I’m doing. So that we can have more frequent communications, by doing that I can increase the likelihood of having collaborations”.</td>
<td>Inspiring through teaching</td>
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<td>“You have to like you know, be open (sic). Network with people (sic), follow the good practice, I would say”.</td>
<td>Networking</td>
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<td>Abby</td>
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<td>“Quite a lot sometimes. We just have to stick to (sic) hold your nerve really on some things and know that; that's right and it will be okay. So, yeah but I think if you base it on sensible facts and decisions and people know that you're being honest, and that's normally okay”. “They say that successful leadership is (sic) &quot;appropriating failures and distributing success&quot;. But it's easy to say, but in reality, it gets to your head if you're really successful”.</td>
<td>Encouraging one’s self</td>
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<td>Adams</td>
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<td>“I'm someone who has learnt through failure. So, if you think I'm successful in anything it's because of my failures and I believe to be a successful leader, you need to hit rock bottom sometime in your life. If you don't, then it's not normal because that's in my opinion is very important to come across major failures which will make you feel that you really are nothing”.</td>
<td>Courage</td>
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<td>Realising/accepting failures</td>
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<td>Being just</td>
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<td>Taking decisive steps</td>
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<td>Agnes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>“One of my strongest principles, I think it's around equality and fairness. And, if we’re looking at performance management issues for example, (sic), if somebody is not performing to a level which is acceptable, that then has a very adverse effect on their colleagues who happen to cover for them, you know, working on the same team. Covering up for somebody who's not...not up to the job, so although it can be very difficult having that conversation with somebody, and sometimes we have to actually get rid of people. Hmm, it's fairer for everybody. Hmm, so you know, there are different difficult decisions that have to be made, but you just have to be quite, perhaps, strong minded about it..... I think also, being quite calm, you know talking about personal skills, I don’t get very flustered, I don't panic too much and, you know, when you're dealing with IT, that's quite useful”.</td>
<td>Being able to multi-task</td>
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<td>“I think, you have to be brave. Sometimes, you have to take risks and, yes sometimes it's easier just to kind of sit back down, you know and keep your head below the parapet, but (sic) that's not always gonna get you anywhere, so yeah”.</td>
<td>Daring to stand alone</td>
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<td>“I am very calm, I don’t get flustered or panicky about things, and I am quite sure that is the result of having to multi-task and manage all sorts of different things when you've got young children. And particularly when they are growing up and you are being pulled to all sorts of different directions. I think I’m more confident and probably more assertive than I would have been and I think that's largely because, you know, you have to fight for your children sometimes, you have to make sure that they are getting what they need, I’m particularly thinking about my youngest son who, as I said does have severe learning difficulties”.</td>
<td>Being decisive</td>
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<td>Amey</td>
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<td>“I have the courage to do the right thing yea, in that sense, I do have the courage to do the right thing, I do have the courage to swim against the tide, to swim against the current. Hmm, I don’t mind standing alone, I don’t mind being a lone voice if I have to... I won’t</td>
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<td>Taking decisive actions</td>
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compromise (sic) my values, I won’t compromise my values so I have the courage to say no and walk away”.

“I think it's important that leaders have courage, courage to do things, you know when people think that they are wrong, it's not that, I think sometimes leaders have to ignore what people like me are saying-well I'm sorry you're wrong. The problem is that they haven't listened before they're doing it and courage can be easily confused with stupidity..... there's a limit to what you could do without creating, (sic) you know without creating just too many problems and life is too short. There're too many things so the individual sometimes have to think about the consequences of speaking out and speaking the truth. And it's a very difficult line to draw but leaders have got to have it. Leaders do have the courage to take chances”.

“There are decisions universities should be involved in anyway, there are anti-racist, anti-sexist, anti-Europhobic, (sic), pro-liberal free speech, all those sorts of things. There are problems sometimes, in which universities have quite frequently displayed a lack of courage. I’m taking one now, which is inviting controversial speakers to the university. It’s not unknown for universities to back away from having the courage of allowing somebody who they don’t agree with”.

“We’ve seen for example (sic), Israelis speakers being refused entering into English universities, we’ve seen Muslim speakers being refused entry, we’ve seen Holocaust areas where members of the BMPB being refused entry to speak. For me, it displayed a lack of courage because the whole point about the university is that anything should be capable of being expressed, and I mean anything, even those things we despise because that's the whole point of universities to control and discuss and debate ideas no matter how unpopular they are. So, I think that's where area where universities lack courage in terms of the area of free speech (sic) it will be very interesting to say.... But, you know, a lot of things require courage, and
Freddie, page 7

*maintaining the principles of free speech is one of them I suppose*.  
“I think once you finish all your degrees, automatically, you devise you own expertise. And I think the key issue here is commitment because teaching is a very boring profession. Because you spend your whole life doing exactly the same thing right?”

Tom, page 5

“I think I bond very well with the international students because I think; you need to really understand students, because most of the students for example come from outside, you know. And, I have been a student at one stage so I can understand you know what sort of difficulties and challenges they’re facing. And, lots of students, they don’t talk, like for example, Chinese, you know, they are very quiet. The reason is this, you know, you need to understand why they are quiet right? And then, I personally feel when I was a student talking to my number of Chinese friends, I mean, one thing we see is that, they are not very friends with the language”.

Sam, page 5

“For example, (sic), when i was helping out one of the PhD students, he struggled at the like, first one or two years, and he even wants to drop, to quit the study because he could not find a way to do research yea. He was confused. I cannot say like a leader but I try to act more like a mentor to give him some insights about doing research. And I try to know, I try to talk to him, to know what’s his problem, it could be personal problems, or it could be academic problems. For academic problem, I may have the ability to help because I have more experience but for personal problems, I also need to share with him some of my experiences when I was younger okay. So I need to know the root of the problems, I need to know what they care, what are their expectations so that I know how to make use of different approach or techniques to convince people, to motivate them. So, and then I try to put myself into their shoes, try to think like the students, so that I try to provide them alternatives techniques, advices that they can make use of okay. It’s a step-by-step approach; they cannot

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<th>Freddie, page 7</th>
<th>Tom, page 5</th>
<th>Sam, page 5</th>
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<td><em>maintaining the principles of free speech is one of them I suppose</em>”.</td>
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<th>Being understanding</th>
<th>Empathy</th>
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<td>Relating with others’ struggles</td>
<td>Empathising</td>
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<td>Relating with students’ struggles</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Robin</td>
<td>“I try to think like I were you! Yea, so we tend to be more people-oriented. We tend to be more sensitive to people. Yeah, that's why when I do the teachings, I need to care about the feelings of students, if they have any difficulties, I need to say, no and try not to be too tough, try to show them some mercy if I can, yeah”.</td>
<td>Showing concern</td>
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<td>Robin</td>
<td>“Like I said that the bulk of them are international students when they come in they know, I’m also a foreigner like I said and of course I have been in their situation before, I’ve been an international student myself before so I know their problems, I know exactly when they need help and what kind of assistance they required”.</td>
<td>Being empathetic</td>
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<td>“Most students especially those who want to pursue PhD and stuff they don’t really know where to turn to. it can be difficult we have student who because they didn’t get advice, they had their visas expired or cancelled, then we have all those services in the university we have student who end up not going to take their exam because they were not well but they didn’t even put in for extenuating circumstance because they don’t even know you know, even though we have all those support. So in my case you try to talk to them you tell them what they should do, what they can do and you end up being the freedom fighter to some extent when you go to academic board meetings and you’re always advocating. I have to advocate for the students because it can be very very difficult”.</td>
<td>Being empathetic</td>
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<td>Paul</td>
<td>“I have gone through the same kind of experience”.</td>
<td>Showing concern</td>
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<td>“Empathy is a key competence of leadership because you've got to empathise, you've got to have that guide.., because, if you empathise, then you’re able to have a better insight into the emotional side of your team, then you're able to understand your team and you’re able to know which way you need to go...”.</td>
<td>Being prompt</td>
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<td>Empathising</td>
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| Luke, page 6 | “You need to be able to well, interpersonal skills, interpersonal skills are good. Because then, you don’t treat everybody the same. You treat everybody the same but you know that everybody is not the same so you go with an open mind to know that you might need to change relation to student but there is also training which is given for teaching, so part of the teaching training kind of exposes you to some of these different challenges which will come with different type of students. Because when you think of going into academia you never really think you are going to work with disabled students. You never think you are going to work with disabled students, you never think of those sides of it, you think you are just going to work as an Academic. But then you start to see that there are different things to actually factor in when you are working with different type of students”.

| Kelvin, page 4 | “We just finished assessment now and we’ve got huge number of students we have to have assess so, it’s just sending an email trying to find out, oh are you okay how are you getting on, I mean these are empathetic actions could in a way, in a soft way, I mean they know it’s in their role, I don’t need to I’m not breathing down your neck but the fact that you are showing that you actually care about whatever |

| ....page 7 | “I prefer that part of the job because having been a student myself and knowing my own challenge as a student, having somebody who can actually calm your fears away, having someone who can actually tell you”’ listen, it is okay to go through this and it is okay to go through that” is important because that might just be the difference between a student staying at the university or not”.

| ....page 11 | “I know what it feels like when somebody actually sat there and pushed you a little bit and you can see yourself go through that transition, you want to see people go through that transformation too”.

|  | Benefiting from empathy

|  | Relating with students’ struggles

|  | Empathising

|  | Empathising

|  | Being selfish
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<td>page 5</td>
<td>“I think it's all about the promptness in the way we deal with their queries again show some form of empathy because they are learning, they don’t know what they are learning, so you just need to keep up with them”.</td>
<td>Showing concern</td>
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<td>page 9</td>
<td>“I think it's still boils down to that communication and showing that empathy and being prompt in the way we deal with these queries”.</td>
<td>Recognising diversity</td>
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<td>page 10</td>
<td>“I think really the way I react to students in particular and even colleagues as well, is informed by how I felt or what I felt, how I felt when I was in that particular position and what I thought would have been the right thing to do but I didn’t get. So this is the kind of stuff that drives me. So if I was in that kind of position, I mean I had, of course I had a very, you know, difficult PhD process. And that drives the way I relate with my PhD students and also of course other PhD students and by implication since I’m the director of the programme”.</td>
<td>Showing compassion, Understanding, Relating with others’ struggles</td>
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<td>page 7</td>
<td>“Empathy towards colleagues because I know what’s they're going through. Hmm, whether you find this, I don’t know but my talks with senior academics most of them are very disheartened with what’s going on in Higher Education. Hmm, but seriously the most empathy I feel is with students because (sic), especially those who come from non-traditional background because it’s what I did. I came in as a mature student, I was very uncertain about what I will be any good and be able to do it and so I do empathise with, when we have a few mature students now. I do try to encourage them and support them, perhaps, even more than the young ones”.</td>
<td>Showing compassion, Understanding, Relating with others’ struggles</td>
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| Adams, page 5 | “If you have the empathy of your team, it’s very unlikely that you will fail. It’s very unlikely because you will be seeing problems so far ahead of them actually coming about."

.... page 12 | “Leadership I suppose is also connected with this idea, trying to see problems from other peoples' point of view, people you are leading, what do they think about something?”

Amey, page 6 | “I find it quite easy to identify to, tune into people's (sic) feelings and emotions.... because if you are talking to international students, I was an international student so I know the trauma of being an international student, the culture shock, (sic) if am talking to a matured student, I was a matured student so I know what it means to be a matured student. So, (sic), a great deal that I can identify with”.

....page 9 | “I’m very concerned about others well-being”.

Amanda, page 10 | “I think it's (sic) in some way it's a little bit underestimated of how much empathy you really need. Hmm, because I've worked my way up through the business school, there's probably isn't a job I haven't done to some degree. So, I know the ins and outs of things, so I know what people have to go through, how and what're the things you need to learn. And I think that helps when the staff who doesn’t you know, weren’t part of the induction because I can pass on to the team to look after them. But you need them in the sense of understanding where they’re coming from, not everybody learns at the same pace. Some people like hands on, some people like to go through books, some people like to go away and look at it for weeks, you've got to have that empathy and understand how that individual works. If you want the best out of a team, you need to have that”.

....page 12 | “I think a lot of people forget that, that just because you've got the title, and you get the job, you don’t automatically get everything that goes with it (laughs). It does build up and you have strength in some areas more than others, you're never good at everything, if you are, you're a wonder woman. And I don’t think that really exist. We've all got some little flaw, things that we can't do and other things that we
“I try my best to understand the perspective of someone else to the extent that I have something to offer to them. Hmmm I think I’m very good at understanding their position, understanding where they are coming from, what their priorities are and (sic) I try to be good and helping them to rather see their priorities alongside the priorities of the institution, and see how we can work together. Hmmm so that, we make sure that the job is beneficial to them as well as the institution. That of course, requires a bit of empathy, requires a bit of interest in others”.

“Academics who are concerned with their own careers and have no due regards for the careers of people around them and have no real concern for the entire institution that they work for, that can prove to be successful or successful strategy career-wise. But I don’t think that it is one which is productive because I think it tends to be narcissistic”.

“You have to understand why people, what could motivate people, and what could motivate people more and…. what drives people, what inspires people and you could only do that by empathising with them. Leadership is fundamentally understanding the people that you work with and you could only do that by empathising with them”.

“Not all of my colleagues necessarily see things the same way as I do….. I think the skills I brought from, if you like the empathy, from my nursing background have helped me a lot”.

“You have to be, tuned in to the people, you have to be tuned in to (sic), where they’re from and the things that are important to them. Of course academics, what’s important to them is their teaching, their skills, their specialism, and their students. And they don’t like it when, (sic) that’s challenged. So, you have to find a different way of getting to them”.

“Having that kind of empathy and appreciating the people in the
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<tr>
<td>Agnes</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>organisation here that I manage. They’ve all got lives outside work, they’ve all got challenges, problems, things that they have to deal with and I think, you know, I can empathise with that. And, I like to think that it helps them knowing that I am supportive. It doesn’t mean to say that I can agree to everything that they might want to do but at least having somebody who’s kind of being there, being through it, probably helps them. So there is that kind of empathy and I suppose compassion really”. “If something goes wrong which obviously does, because we’re all human, I never feel the need to shout or show, you know, that am disappointed in something because they’re already so upset and disappointed themselves because they wanted to do it right”. “I’ve done the job. I know the worries and I know what makes you panic so, hopefully, I can understand what’s going on, and know why and how they’re feeling what they’re feeling”.</td>
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<td>Abby</td>
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<td>“You’ve got to set the pace because you have got to have deadlines on certain things otherwise the outcomes will always cost money, lose your business. Hmm no, not many examples like that. I think you’ve got to keep within these constraints, within the time periods that you put there. In business, it’s (sic) do by examples, isn’t it? So, you do something, then they follow you and eventually, they are learning. Hmm, they may take other avenues or other routes that they will come back to that line”.</td>
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<td>Abel</td>
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<td>“It’s things like that that will come from them or even like say like Friday…. dress down day, so as long as you’ve got no meetings, you can dress down on Friday. Hmm, and I do it as well, because, the thing is, it’s all right when you’re saying yes, you can do it, but I don’t want them to think, I grudgingly said yes you can do it. What I’ve done is by example, am saying, yes! It’s okay to do that.</td>
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<td>Alice</td>
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<td>Setting standards Exemplary Leading</td>
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<tr>
<td>Amey</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>And if I haven’t done it, they will know why, you know. I mean, they will see me going off to a meeting or something like that”. “I don’t like asking people to do things that I couldn’t do if they refuse to do it…. I will make sure that have got my marks in, have got the things in. I do my marks before, finished sorting out my marks before I go after others to say; you know, can I have your marks? So that, if they need to look up, they will see that have done mine so am not just going after them”. “I never see myself as a leader in what I might think of a leadership role but I know that I am a leader because because people look up to me and have expressed that to me and I think possibly because I lead by example, I think they respect the quality of what I do and how I approach thing and how I approach things and I think that I gets a lot of support”.</td>
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<td>Betty</td>
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<td>If you just say, dictate down from the top, it's going to get ignored or, it's going to have minimum you know they will adhere to the, sort of tick box if you like but not actually embed the philosophy in what they do. Whereas if you work with them and demonstrate it, they are more likely to learn by seeing what's happening and learning by doing those kinds of things”. “I think the more you are able to engage people and convince them of what needs to be done, and a lot of that is through demonstration and you've done it yourself and you could show them how things might work or work better. Then I think you're more able to engage them to get the goals, you want to achieve whatever those goals maybe”.</td>
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<td>Chris</td>
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<td>“I believe in individual actions and (sic), the last thing that I, one thing I always do this especially with my children over the years, the last thing I want to do is tell other people what to do, to behave. Hmm, I'm not sure that I will ever know for example, I do what I think it's right and (sic), whether the core of everything I do, I hope is to solicit for the freedom of the individual”</td>
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<td>Luke</td>
<td>“My understanding of leadership is three fold; as a leader, you are servant that’s number one. You are a servant so you are serving the people that you are supposed to be leading so, if you don’t recognize that you are a servant to those people you are supposed to be leading, your leadership will not work, or it will work, but it will not work very well”.</td>
<td>Paying attention to details, Anticipating, Visioning, Planning ahead</td>
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<td>Paul</td>
<td>“In my opinion is a rolling up your sleeves, and getting stuck in the dirt, as they say in English, roll up your sleeves and get stuck in it right, so in other words, you’re there in the trenches, as they say with everyone. So, that actually is quite important because when people actually, when you end up saying to people what your, remember I’m being very careful not to use followers, because I don’t believe in followers. When you say to your team right, this task can be done; you’ve actually showing that it can be done”.</td>
<td>Being futuristic</td>
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<td>Abby</td>
<td>“The skills I think I’ve got are very… great attention to details, and try to foresee things that might come up and cause some problem”.</td>
<td>Fore-sight/Vision</td>
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<td>Adams</td>
<td>“If you have the empathy of your team, it’s very unlikely that you will fail. It’s very unlikely because you will be seeing problems so far ahead of them actually coming about. But you will be taking measures to make sure that these problems don’t affect you as we have in the past. So, that’s something which is also very important for a good leader I would think, you know, pre-empting what’s coming, I mean, what’s going to happen and putting people together, groups together, think about it, what's the way forward?”</td>
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<td>Agnes</td>
<td>“For me leadership is…it is about having a vision. You have to have a vision about where you want to go, and also be clear about how you’re going to get there. But, you need to bring people in to help you achieve that vision and to be part of that vision”.</td>
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<td>Amanda</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>“We’re very lucky because (sic), we’re very good at students’ numbers, our finances are good. So, we have that cushion to be able to plan ahead, some schools don’t. So, we’ve got to balance it evenly really in some ways of what we can do compared to somebody else”.</td>
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<td>“The concept of leadership? Hmm, I think there’s someone who has the future planning of where you’re going, where you’re taking your team and where you’re leading them to? Hmm, and I think you’ve got to take the risk as well as anything else, because sometimes without the risk, you don’t achieve things”.</td>
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<td>“He’s somebody who's planning ahead, working with the teams in the way forward. Hmm, not been stuck (sic) a bit stale you know, wanting to think about new ideas”.</td>
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<td>Amey</td>
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<td>“A good leader looks beyond the immediate benefits. A good leader, has a long term view, it’s not these short-term goals”.</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>“Sometimes what a leader has to do is to get the people he or she is leading to have a long term view. To have a goal that’s beyond tomorrow, to have a goal that goes, you know looks into the future”.</td>
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<td>Freddie</td>
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<td>“People doing well in research, normally those people have vision. Vision is very good, those kind of ideas so that means why we think this guy is doing so well because the guy has a lot of those kind of great ideas, other people don’t have those kind of great ideas. So, this is the leadership right?”</td>
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<td>George</td>
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<td>“You’ve got to have a vision and you’ve got to have an idea of what you want to take this organisation to or what you want to achieve in a longer term okay. I’m sure you can break them down into short, medium term phases, now and that should be pursued with all the energy that you can have”...</td>
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<td>“As an individual I’m very outgoing and, when I see people, I try to</td>
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Robin, page 3

give anyone a chance and try to look into the future to see the potential I suppose looking at particular problem that you are likely to encounter trying to help a student trying to help somebody and so on”.

Sam, page 1

“Leaders, they should be able to see the future, keep with directions that's it. What we want to achieve, what could be the destinations in the coming five or ten years?”

Sarah, page 1

“I think leaders sort of have got administrative kind of role. And part of research and enterprise, and that's the thing that leaders are. They sort of form the vision of the university”.

Abby, page 5

“Quite a lot sometimes. We just have to stick to (sic) hold your nerve really on some things and know that, that's right and it will be okay. So, yeah but I think if you base it on sensible facts and decisions and people know that you're being honest, and that's normally okay”.

Adams, page 14

“It's very important to be honest in failure, to be honest in whatever you do especially to your friends, to people who you value, absolutely honest. That might lower your standing in their eyes, that doesn't matter. So, I think for a good leader in higher education, you have to be absolutely open in whatever you are doing”.

Agnes, page 10

“Integrity and equality are probably the two things, which really kind of guide me”.

Alice, page 4

“You have to give them every bit of information you could possibly give them. You have to ensure that they've conceded absolutely everything. If there's any (sic) sense of doubt about anything, you've
to make sure you get that information to them. Because somebody's life and others, is at stake...and if you've done all those things and the student does get repelled, you know, removed from the course or whatever, then, you can at least be honest with yourself and say well "I did my best and I didn't do anything that would disadvantage the student".

“If I make a promise, if I make a promise, I 'll do everything within me to keep that promise. I take it that my word is almost a bond that if I say to you I will do it. That's that has always been the way I work”.

“I won’t compromise (sic) my values, I won’t compromise my values so I have the courage to say no and walk away”.

“I wouldn't falsify research (sic) I would respect what people told me”.

“Integrity, honesty is, I think are the two key elements to build trust among each other. To say what you do, to do what you say! This is how you build trust, integrity and honesty. And you're not supposed to tell lies if you don’t believe in something right, okay.

“Whenever I thought I hear the term “leadership” I think of trust, abilities yea. Integrity, honesty is, I think are the two key elements to build trust among each other. To say what you do, to do what you say! This is how you build trust, integrity and honesty”.

“Most organisations, I guess are quite competitive, and in the process, what tends to happen is that, mentoring becomes a specialist activity. But if you are not mentoring, then you really don't expect people to follow”.

“.To give you an example, I currently have a line manager who I think is the best I’ve ever worked with, my whole seventeen years of
teaching in higher education. The reason why I say this is because I feel that, in the past, if there were problems, Hmm, line managers would deal with problems, which are very important to them, okay. And sometimes, some institutional problems lingered on and on and on, no one really paid any effort but my current line manager is one person who, whatever I say to her, she never forgets. Someday, there's an effort made to somebody. And I must tell you the other thing as well and that is this, that not all of it is monetary, when you lead to monetary gains. But I feel the greatest attribute is standing next to me when I am a nobody or giving you that assurance that I’m with you”.

“…mentoring was much more useful than someone standing in the lecture theatre and telling me about fieldwork. So, the same thing I will say, that when you’re leading a group, you talk about challenges more than you talk about success or how things are done. Because my personal approach is that we all develop our own approaches, everything will be evolutionary and nothing is identical, there has to be something unique, what every employee, every student is able to do. So, if you really ask me, I don't know, seventeen years ago when I started teaching, one of the key things that is different for me, is that I will always encourage my students to say something unique. Say something that only they can say, informed by their own experiences, not by what other people are saying” (page 4).

“I think if someone is saying that they need help, that is more inspirational than someone saying, you have to do this because i am saying so. Yeah, so that's essentially what I would say”.

“I've talked more of coaching sort of role, particularly with my senior team. Hmm, because that's more appropriate because it's really about, encouraging people to think differently and to come to those kind of conclusions themselves rather than me telling them how they got to behave or how to think”.
"sometimes it means, maybe holding hands, and getting to talk to them. Hmm trying to guide, trying to support them. And that is something that you can’t really timetable... its, it’s not on the timetable”.

..."the hours I spend talking to students who is probably fighting (sic) out of depression, and trying to get that student to look beyond. And to kind of help the students crawl out of that hole. Hmm that is not timetabled for. And it’s not some, something you can really account for”.

“I see my job as a ministry, obviously because of the setting (sic) that is a very personal position. It’s not an official position but I..I believe that, that am here because God wants me to be here. That I didn’t just end up here because I saw the advert and applied for a job”.

“Some of the most, apart from family members, some of the most influential people in my life had been my teachers-people who had, had more faith more confidence in me, than I had in myself. People who believe that I was capable of achieving something in my life. Who went out of their way to support me”.

“I don’t mind doing that because, it’s such a privilege to have the opportunity to shape a young person’s live”.

“I found that most difficult students when you do get through to them, they have problems, they have issues. And what that façade is to cover, to mask what is underneath. So I try to get to understand what is going on. And when I understand what is going on, I then can support them better....There are quite a number of students who over the years will come back and say ehn ehn will say that, not so much when i taught them but the times they spent, you know i spent talking to them and supporting them and encouraging them, making them believe in themselves”.

"If I am a module leader or tutor in a group right, (sic) part of my job is to help individuals accomplish the learning outcomes for that
| Betty, page 9 | module. Hmm, in so doing you’re often engage in things, which go beyond that. Okay, so like having, you know, having open doors, talking about things. But then giving him those strategies was helping him to succeed in that module but it also helps him more broadly”. “I don’t see myself as a leader now in institutional sense, what I try and do, I try and act as a mentor for people who want to (sic), who want to publish. So, for example, (sic), everybody from, even though established academics like xxx for example, I will give them and advice on whatever they’re doing (sic), I edit journals so (sic), I frequently get in touch with academics talking about (sic), whatever they’re doing and how it must be published and so on. I see myself more as a mentor than a leader, if that makes any sense”. ...“maybe of relevance to your topic is what are you trying to do or what you are doing in terms of leadership is actually mentoring, what I’m supposed to do is to offer advice, offer support whatever it might be. It could be you know, just emotional support and say well “look you could do this, you can do it, you are doing very well, excellent, well done” simple as that or it could be substantial support in terms of helping people as to offering people advice or guidance on how to approach research, how they might publish, how they may turn something around, how they might generate ideas so that is much more mentoring, now whereas, leadership is a different thing”.

| Chris, page 1 | Pastoral care |
| George, page 2 | Mentoring |
| page 10 | Being mentored |
| | Needing support |
| | Providing care |
| | Providing guidance |
you can this and I can look at you and see you can do this just believe in yourself and that’s simple very simple act of assurance. Today the student is attending a conference with a paper that is the difference”.

... “It’s sort of pastoral role, have some part. As first year tutor, it will be my role to look after all of that, and first year students are over 200 of them. So, it’s a lot of responsibility so we will see how well I do that”.

“I’ve had students who have contacted me and said to me that can you be my tutor and at the end of the year, some of them have come back and said can you give me reference. So, it’s that an informal mentoring in some sense. It’s not part of the well-defined contract but I do enjoy that because I think, you build relationships with your students, you understand them, you in turn stand to understand the issues they are under-going. Because if I just go to the classroom and then deliver my lecture and then come back and have no contact with them, you don’t understand the challenges that they’re facing, which also help me, you know, inform myself as a teacher”.

“I came in as a senior lecturer, at the bottom end of senior lecturer. So, obviously, we had, I had my own mentor whom I admired because of the kind of advice that he gave me”.

... “balancing teaching and research is a big challenge, balancing teaching and pastoral support, is a big challenge”.

“I’m a programme leader a course director so more or less I provide leadership in terms of course management, time tabling and most importantly pastoral care to my student as well….. if you are a programme leader then automatically you would be expected to provide pastoral care and in my case it becomes much more accentuated because ninety nine per cent of the students of the programme are international. They come from all over the world and they see me as more or less a foreigner in quotes they could identify
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| **Sam, page 5** | with me and they come up with all sort of problems and because you understand them, I’ve been in their position before as well so, providing pastoral care you sometimes even end up doing more than what you are supposed to do or what can do that has become parts and parcel of what I do”.

“For example, (sic), when I was helping out one of the PhD students, he struggled at the like, first one or two years, and he even wants to drop, to quit the study because he could not find a way to do research yea. He was confused. I cannot say like a leader but I try to act more like a mentor to give him some insights about doing research. And I try to know, I try to talk to him, to know what’s his problem, it could be personal problems, or it could be academic problems. For academic problem, I may have the ability to help because i have more experience but for personal problems, I also need to share with him some of my experiences when i was younger okay”.

...“students come to you with, probably because they are in foreign territory or they are away from their families. So, for various reasons and they you know talk to me and that's where this "mothering" bit probably comes in (laughs). I am not trying to sort their problems out but, probably, you know stir them in the right direction. Tell them you know where they can go and get help or something like that”.

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<th><strong>Sarah, page 4</strong></th>
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<td><strong>Tom, page 2</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Luke, page 15</strong></td>
<td>“As a leader you are also developing, people have given you responsibility or somehow responsibility is around you, you are now supposed to nurture that responsibility. In nurturing that responsibility you are also creating an environment where whatever</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abby</td>
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| 5    | from families who wouldn’t normally go to university. And I just think it’s so amazing that we can contribute to actually helping an individual to achieve their full potential. Hmm, so that's a really strong driver for me”.

“I’ve talked more of coaching sort of role, particularly with my senior team. Hmm, because that's more appropriate because it's really about, encouraging people to think differently and to come to those kinds of conclusions themselves rather than me telling them how they got to behave or how to think”.

“It’s about... kind of empowering people to do things and to think like that and you know, have always thought, if you've got a good idea about something which is going to lead to (sic), a really good service development, go with it. You know, explore it, (sic) come back with some ideas and some options, and I think as a result, we've got a really good reputation actually”.

“I’m 100% behind that and across the whole service, we have (sic) very strong position for professional development and, training and you know, we subscribe to all the (sic), support that is available like mentoring and coaching, and ...we’ve done a lot of work actually in the last year or so, just on (sic) particularly kind of from junior managers, so people who’re just starting out on their management (sic) careers. Just helping them, giving them the skills and the tools that they need..... It’s not just about the technical skills they need either, to me, that’s part of it really important part. But, it’s also about just general kind of management skills development, and personal development. Yea, having encouraging people to look at things in a different way because I think that’s the way that you can grow as a person”.

“We offer people training; we try and get across to these people”.

“It is up to each individual director to how they support staff and in...
their development. And, what we agreed is that, there are lots of in-house courses that they can do, and we promote them. We actively promote them to do it from grade 4 upwards. And then, there are other courses where, there're academic qualifications, but may support the work that they're doing. So, for example, at the minute, I've got two members of staff doing MBAs, they're in their final years, I've got (sic) I had a member of staff doing the DBA which she suspended (sic), I've two members of... well there's me and another member of staff doing our PhDs, and (sic) what they get is, they all get, I don't really, but they all get, nine days a year pro rata if they're part time so they get at least, one day a month, in the academic year starting from September to May/June, where (sic), I mean, they take it however they want it”.

“on-top of academic development and person development, we've also got the fact that they may have to go to conferences... if anybody goes off on those sorts of conferences, or whatever, even within the university, we have an agreement that you would do a report of at least five hundred words and submit it to the registry general meeting, and that's understood. So it's not a big task, I mean, it’s just sort of, because I don’t want people to go off on courses to have a holiday, you know, it has to be, because when you're out doing that, somebody else is doing your work here or maybe, (sic), therefore, we've got to see the benefits and it's to feed back into registry because it could develop us all in some way or another. And, that's sharing, and it develops the person because, they're going, you know, they're participating or whatever in the courses”.

“I think that is part of being a leader. Making sure your team, the people who you're leading, have what they require to do it because if they haven’t, then you can lead because they can't follow. They can't do what you've asked them to do so, you have to make sure that, you know, that they've got the right IT, they've got the resources, they've got the staffing, they've got the money to do it”.

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<th>Alice, page 5</th>
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<td>page 7</td>
<td>Attending conferences</td>
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<td>page 9</td>
<td>Equipping staff with relevant skills</td>
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<td>Amey, 4</td>
<td>“I got very good support from my head of department that I worked for then in law. And, she encouraged me to do other things and I think if I didn’t have that, I may not be where I am really. So, having good support by your line manager helps you build up those skills (sic). I had a very good working relationship with the whole of the law staff and that helped a lot in doing the regulations and all that type of stuff. And by that, you’re feeling you’ve got the confidence to go on to do other things, join committees, be involved with groups and things like that. So, it just take time to develop the skills, they don’t come over night, and I think a lot of people forget that, that just because you’ve got the title, and you get the job, you don’t automatically get everything that goes with it (laughs). It does build up and you have strength in some areas more than others, you’re never good at everything”.</td>
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<td>“The way I deal with difficult students is to draw them in. So, I arrange to talk more to them, try and understand what is going on. And I found that most difficult students when you do get through to them, they have problems, they have issues. And what that façade is to cover, to mask what is underneath. So I try to get to understand what is going on. And when I understand what is going on, I then can support them better” (Amey, page 4).</td>
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<td>“Part of the arrangement is enabling learning as you've seen with us. If it's not fun, we don’t do it! Hmm, that's very different than formal universities because we can set the agenda here, and we can set the operational (sic), aspects (sic), so that, it might feel as a family atmosphere, I don't know, between students and staff here. Hmm, and it's one of the enablement, enabling all the staff (sic) to reach their full potentials, and enabling all the students to reach their full potentials”.</td>
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<td>“Certainly, my research students, I encourage them to go for where they want to do with their research. Hmm, with students, the assignments that I give are equally flexible; students can write their</td>
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<td>Chris</td>
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| Paul       | 5    | “That’s part and parcel of leadership, empowering teams, (sic) particularly, we’ve got, I’ve got quite a number of colleagues who have got a lot of experience in higher education so obviously, empowering them in this respect is empowering them with core competencies, with skills so that they can actually do their work. Some came here, they’ve never marked a piece of work so by actually sitting down and actually helping them through that’s where you empower somebody's skills”.

“It’s about the time you give as a staff to do research. *Unless you have published in top ranked journals, so imagine, like those who are been publishing have a good successful record than those who have never done so. so, you need to really, you know, as leaders within the university, I’m not just talking about my university, I would say, in general life, they have to have some sort of place to encourage the staff morale. You need to give them time; you need to provide all sorts of support facilities they need in order to do what you want them to do*.” | Empowering team                                                                        |
| Tom        | 2    | “What’s the different between great leaders and people who are not so. I suppose that great leaders are people who set examples to sacrifice okay. If you give up something people will follow you but if” | Encouraging staff morale                                                                |
| Adams      | 1    |                                                                                                                                                                                                           | Being selfless                                                                         |

| 263 |
you're constantly trying to be more ambitious, there's a likelihood that your following will dwindle. So it's like you're saying "servant leadership". There's a contradiction in terms of, if you want to be a successful leader, you have to give up more”.

“And this whole idea of sacrifice needs to be vivid in the eyes of the people who you are working with…..I think this is the thing, you see, when you are able to demonstrate to people that they can follow, what do they follow you for? Is it because of the human qualities that you demonstrate, or is it because since you are successful in which they are not”.

“Again, coming back to this same issue of sacrifice, I think successful leaders are people who are able to give up things which others are not able to”.

“The hours I spend talking to students who is probably fighting (sic) out of depression, and trying to get that student to look beyond. And to kind of help the students crawl out of that hole. Hmm that is not timetabled for. And it's not some, something you can really account for. But I think, it's probably the time I spend talking to students about their personal problems, about their personal issues, are, I find more fulfilling than actually teaching”.

“Part of my job is to help individuals accomplish the learning outcomes for that module. Hmm, in so doing you're often engage in things, which go beyond that. Okay, so like having, you know, having open doors, talking about things. But then giving him those strategies was helping him to succeed in that module but it also helps him more broadly. So, I don't get paid extra rewards for that but most of us are quite willing to sit down with students that are looking for assistance. That’s part and parcel of what we do, it's part and parcel of our professionalism”.

“It’s not to do with what you're paid to do. I think it's to do with what
Robin, page 2

you find satisfying and it's very enjoyable to go into a classroom and teach a group of students and for the session to go well and the students to have learned, and then to take it off into their lives. It's not about payment, if it was about payment, we wouldn't have been here”.

Sarah, page 4

“Personal issues that have to do with housing and I have to help them look for a place and so on, hmmm, it could be anything”.

“Students come and talk to me not necessarily always about academic stuff. They do talk a lot about academic stuff but then, sometimes about their problems as well. And that's how i started to get interested; I even presented a paper at a conference about sort of pastoral duties of teachers like me and, surprisingly how people then reacted to this paper. They were saying, it rang through all of them because for various reasons, students come to you with, probably because they are in foreign territory or they are away from their families”.

OCB
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Quote</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alice</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>“There’s a very fine lining in my job in all aspects of it, not just there, is that I have to trust the staff that I have to do the job that they do. And if I go wading in when I see something, no matter how much that I want to, because am thinking, well that's not fair, and you shouldn't be talking to somebody like that. Or, no hang on a minute, they were already doing their job or whatever, that's not demonstrating the trust that I have in them to do their job. So, I have to walk past, I have to let go and I have to trust that I know, they will come to me if they need me”.</td>
<td>Having faith in staff ability</td>
<td>Trust and Humility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adams</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>“I’m someone who has learnt through failure. So, if you think I’m successful in anything is because of my failures and I believe to be a successful leader, you need to hit rock bottom sometime in your life. If you don’t, then it's not normal because that's in my opinion is very important to come across major failures which will make you feel that you really are nothing. Nothing is in your hands, okay. Hmm, so, I suppose, in my mind when I was made a leader by the institution, I was not, I did not have the humility of using that humility to define my boundaries of capacity. Today, I think I’m a more successful leader, I’m a more successful teacher, my feedback is many times better because I think I’m able to convey my failures, I’m able to convey curiosity more successfully”.</td>
<td>Being humble</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amanda</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>“I've got a lot of staff who's been here a while, I have every confidence in them to do what they will need to do in a day job”.</td>
<td>Believing in staff</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sam</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>I think trust is very important so wherever I hear the term, leadership, first of all, I think about trust and then ability yea, that's it”.</td>
<td>Trusting is key</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>“As I said at the beginning whenever I thought I hear the term “leadership&quot; I think of trust, abilities yea... So, I think trust, how to build trust is all about honesty and integrity and capability”.</td>
<td>Building trust</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarah</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>“I don't consider my position as a leadership, I'm a senior lecturer in xxxx, (sic), leadership, it could be only with reference to being</td>
<td>Being modest</td>
<td></td>
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</table>
classes with students. It’s not leadership in the sense of serving, administrative leadership role, I don’t have those”.
“A leader is somebody who they will like to see them as a role model. Something they will like to aspire to become in the future but somebody who will say something, people will trust that person. So, that’s something people should really, you know, can build that kind of culture, to kind of emerge as their leaders to actually build people to fear you rather than they would like to believe you, they will like to trust you, and will do anything. And in return, you just have to you know, make sure that, you know, you don’t break that trust, make sure, you try to help them as soon as possible from your side”.
Appendix C: Second Order Concept Card showing Conceptualisations of SL Principles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conceptualisations</th>
<th>Principles of Servant Leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accounting for stakeholders, marching competence and responsibility, giving value for money.</td>
<td>Accountability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational background, Appreciating self-awareness, too much criticisms, emotional and academic awareness, keeping abreast with things.</td>
<td>Awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal and informal communication, networking, varying skill sets/roles, listening, Getting feedbacks, conciliation, inspiring through teaching.</td>
<td>Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding, Relating with others’ struggles, showing concern, showing compassion, recognising/accepting diversity.</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting/abiding by standards, leading by doing, leading by serving.</td>
<td>Exemplary leading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anticipating, visioning, planning ahead, and being futuristic.</td>
<td>Fore-sight/Vision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being sincere, just, keeping to promises, staying true to one’s self, trusting.</td>
<td>Integrity/honesty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To reassure, encouraging individuality, to inspire, coaching, emotional healing, ministering, influencing, shaping lives, providing care/support, providing guidance, mothering, boosting morale.</td>
<td>Mentoring/Pastoral Care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurturing self/others, promote staff progression, encouraging initiatives, training, conferences/courses, building confidence, providing enabling environment, empowering team members.</td>
<td>Personal and Professional Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selflessness, giving up things, finding fulfilment, organisational citizenship behaviour</td>
<td>Self-sacrificing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having faith in others, being humble, believing in others, being modest.</td>
<td>Trust/Humility</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix D: Summary Table Comparing Leadership Taxonomies based on Gender

| Question: What leadership style(s) do you consider appropriate for managing HEIs? |
|-----------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| **Taxonomy**                | **Gender: Male** | **Gender: Female** |
| Blended Leadership          | (Cases) Nick     | (Cases) Agnes     |
|                            | (Passages)       | (Passages)       |
|                            | "I will go for the approach where much freedom and autonomy is given to people at the operational level” (page 4). | "Sometimes I have to be quite directional and assertive about things but my natural style is much more consultative and collaborative. That's my kind of default position and I like to carry people with me, you know to inspire them, to kind of follow the same, the same route that I happen to go along rather than saying you must do this because I say so. I mean, that's actually not my style at all” (page5). |
|                            | "The top managers are the administrators, they don’t really generate knowledge. So, if we have a leadership model where the major decisions are made there, that could create problems but if much autonomy, much freedom is given to say the lecturers who develop the model” (page 4). | "One of my strongest principles, I think it’s around equality and fairness. And, if we’re looking at performance management issues, for example, (sic), if somebody is not performing to a level which is acceptable, that then has a very adverse effect on their colleagues who happen to cover for them, you know, working on the same team. Covering up for somebody who’s not ... not up to the job, so although it can be very difficult having that conversation with somebody, and sometimes we have to..." |
|                            | "I will say the model that concentrates decision powers at the lower levels rather than at the higher levels” (page 5). | |
|                            | "The kind of leadership HEIs actually need for me has to be based on, it’s a difficult one. But it has to be top down leadership which actually should have a vision that everybody shares. Or, at least majority of the people share because if your VC doesn’t have a vision for the university, it doesn’t matter what anybody else does, if your dean doesn’t have a good..." | |
vision for the department which has to be shared by everybody at least to an extent, the large proportion of people, then it's not going anywhere so there has to be shared vision for great leadership to actually succeed” (page16).

“within universities now, i don't think, if you talk about the management structures, the lack of sort of a horizontal sort of command structures means that, people don't listen because, you don't tell the person who's one step above you what you think of them. it's much easier in a sort of flat management structure for people to put out what they really feel. Horizontal hierarchical structure, you're thinking, (sic), promotion, will i get it if i say anything etc. you know. So, i don't think, it's not only problem of listening, it's a problem of that people are fighting to say anything or resolve not to say anything” (page8).

“But i suppose at the universities, it's a little bit different because you have got a hierarchical structure with the vice chancellor and (sic) various deans and professors which tends to be fairly simple or standard in (sic) in the UK” (page2).

“each university in the UK has its own governance system, its own regulations and then, that (sic) in concept with (sic) the government regulations for limited companies and (sic) charitable status (sic), actually get rid of people. Hmm, it's fairer for everybody. Hmm, so you know, there are different difficult decisions that have to be made, but you just have to be quite, perhaps, strong minded about it” (page6).

“Then you have others that probably we look up to you because they are good at managing systems or departments or people or something like that. And then perhaps that are more good on the technical management side. so you've got a range of different functional areas, I suppose if you think about the university having a research function, administrative functions and technical function and teaching function” (page3).

“Not everybody can do all of those functions but you would have leaders in each of those areas, with different sets of skills and capabilities and people would see who is at certain things and go for them for help and advice. Hmm, we have formal internal structure in terms of management structures. But because we are highly professional, well many of us are highly professional, we also have this small
| **Billy** | doesn't fit well, particularly, when a university might start (sic) inventing limited companies abroad say in China, i know of one university that's got 39 limited companies in China but none in its own home. Hmm, so what’s the remix of the universities to start with and what's the role of the Privy Council in regulating the governance of those universities?” (page13). | informal structure, networks if you like. I think kind of like the leadership exist within the network and you go to where it is you see need to find help, advise and support. I think that's how it kind of works as well. So we've got a very formal structure but we have this informal leadership stuff that goes on as well. And I think in the formal structure, you also got, if you think about departments people like, (sic) head of departments for the whole of business and management for Business School. And then beneath that we've got an associate heads of department for different groups. We've got a strategic management operations management group, which I'm a part of, and we've got Marketing Group, a HR group, and an organisation study group. You've got associate head of department for those and then beneath that you've got people who are module leaders but module leadership” (page 3). |
| **Collegial Leadership** | “I hope they see me as (sic), a colleague or friend. So i hope to criticise what they do but in a positive way” (page1).  
“It’s a bit of servitude; it is to operate in a way, quite like that” (page 2). | “this is where, I think it's so important to have that kind of collaborative ethos (sic), to encourage people to work together, and to be brave really, you know to think outside the box, not to be constrained by the way that we've always done things, but to think about different ways of doing things” (page 7). |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amanda</th>
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<tr>
<td>“My idea would be some form of collegial, collective form of leadership with someone who of course, all these big organisations, someone has to make decisions. So that person should be more in touch and more in-tuned with the employers, with the people who work for institutions or for the employees, I think, they work for an institution. And that doesn’t tend to happen in many organisations” (page 2).</td>
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<td>“I would like to take you back to the old days, you know, not that long ago, where academics were in charge of their own courses, they make decisions about what was on the course, they make decisions about how it should be served, they make decisions about should be in the assessment. And in that position, they may not have an ample control if what the institution did, (sic) in terms of marketing, or in terms of planning and sort of estate management and that sort of thing but they had control over things that mattered to them. And they don’t like processes, it’s a highly collegial decision making process with a great amount of individuality yeah, and courage to do courses” (page 3).</td>
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<tr>
<td>“I would like to think that I’m appreciated, (sic) what I say and what I want to do, they go with, I don’t say do it for the sake of doing it. I do like to get the staff to buy in. So, we do discuss things (sic) particularly something new that we have to do because it may not suit us, we may need to adjust existing practices, we might even need more staff in place, we might even have to change office space, and things like that. Sometimes it’s not always straightforward doing things so you going to have to have other people involved. And that’s what a good leader is about is, getting people involved, getting them buy in really, and in some ways empowering them to do what they need to do. Because in lots of cases they’ve got more skills than I have” (page 2).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Betty</td>
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<td>“I would like to see servant leadership, I would like to see the idea of a leader as serving the people that they lead (sic), I can’t think of so many leaders that fit my notion. I genuinely can’t (sic). You can think of one, and know that this is it, servant leadership and...”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“So you’ve got very almost like, first line managers if you like, from the academic side because their running these large modules that you’ve got that kind of structure in it. But across that you’ve got these kinds of people who may be more experts in different areas as well. That’s how I see it because there isn’t. I’m probably referring back to an older model.”</td>
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| Adams | all that, this is powerful academic field in the millennial. I mean, a servant leader is also a huge amount of ego and that ego needs to be fed. and, you know whether it's Steve Job or Bill Gates or Tony Blair, (sic), whenever leaders pronounces that they're the servant of the people then that's when you start handing the spoons so to speak” (page 4).

“...People know that I’m not alone, there’s a group of people who are supporting me” (Adams, page 3). | Martha | of HEIs where there’s lot of collegiality” (page 4).

“I think there's a lot of creativity that needs to come in to higher education. it’s not that you’re pushing paper or filling in boxes or that, you actually have to engage with lots of students, you have to infuse them, you have to be creative about how you approach the learning that you want those students to engage with. Which means a lot of updating and change and i think that’s where, that professional judgement comes in. and you would also want people who are passionate about what they do in the classroom. And i think if you have a very managerialistic control over them, you could lose some of that passionate enthusiasm but that's just my perspective on things” (page 4).

“I think of a previous experience because there are other parts of the role, you know, the university collegial environment. You are part of the university, you’re engaging with different people, your colleagues, your subordinates, its part of that experience you know, the students are getting and you’re getting as well, as an employee of the university. So, i think it’s kind of embedded...
think that's part of what i do. And also, i think some of the students might move and maybe PhD students here or maybe MSc. students, so you never know” (page2).

| Contextual Leadership | Larry | “I think the emphasis, which is being placed in terms of the leadership perhaps, is different in different institutions. And I'm not arguing whether that's wrong, correct or incorrect, because it depends clearly on what are your key mission and goals. So, any sense of it for example is now important to every university. Students' experiences are important, you know and students' employability is important and some universities do better than the others. But I think, increasingly if you have a model which kind of nurtures and which promotes and supports leaders at different levels” (page 7). |
| | Paul | “I've got to facilitate dialogue, conversation amongst other teams and other (sic), departments as well. I've got to make sure that my team is happy as well. so, it's a multi-sector environment and it is a challenge, so that's the challenge of leadership where you can say even striking a balance is most difficult thing to do because if you cannot come out with the formula to actually say I can do so much, so and so percentage, it's about really doing things as you go along and |
| | Agnes | “you do need to have different approaches in different situations and, you know, sometimes, I've to get involved in disciplinaries and foremost management issues, which, you know, can be quite difficult for everybody. Hmm, but you have to be quite tough and, you know, I think it's about having, having strong principles, which you just stick to” (page5). |
that's the challenge of leadership” (page 3).

“Leadership is context specific right. If you're a leader of a band of pirates, right? There's no integrity, there's no honesty but still, you are a leader, isn't it? So, its context specific, i think that should be really clear. That a band of pirates who are doing nothing but robbing people every day, will also have a leader. And that leader will also have some kind of influence on their followers. And that pirate will both lead in formal and informal, it's about really being context specific” (page 6).
Appendix E: Participants’ Information Sheet

The Business School

Department of People, Management and Organizations

Title of the Study: “Conceptualisation of the Leading Manager Theory in Higher Education Institutions: Insights from Servant Leadership”

Introduction

We like to invite you to participate in this postgraduate study, but before you make your decision, please avail me of the opportunity to explain why this research is being conducted, and why your participation is needed to generate data for the study. Please carefully read the following information and do feel free to discuss it among people in your department and organization. Also, feel free to contact me concerning any area that is not clear to you.

Purpose of the Study

Through a detailed description of HEIs’ leadership practices this research seeks to develop and present a leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions, which demonstrate the complexity of managing these institutions.

Participants’ Eligibility

All academic and administrative staff of Higher Education Institutions in UK is hereby qualified to take part in this research.

Must you take Part?

No, participation is exclusively on voluntary basis so, if you decide to continue with
the study, you will be required to give an oral interview with the researcher for not more than 60 minutes. Venue and time of the interview will be agreed upon by both you and the researcher.

**Any Potential Risks?**

There are no potential risks involved in this research. However, interviews will be conducted in accordance to the UK Data Protection Act of 1998 and the university of Huddersfield research ethical code of conduct. This means that privacy will be maintained during and after the interview process. For utmost confidentiality, your personal identity will be concealed using pseudonyms.

**Use of Information**

All information will be kept privately in the researcher’s USB memory stick, personal laptop, and student’s K-drive provided by the university, and used purely for the purpose of this research. The information is going to be used for no other purpose, other than completing this PhD thesis.

**What Next?**

If you are happy to participate in this study, you will be required to sign a consent form to indicate your acceptance to take part. However, you are free to withdraw your participation at any given time prior to analysing the data. This means that you will not be able to withdraw from the study once data analysis begins. On the day of the interview, you will be required to meet with the researcher at a scheduled date, time and venue for either a Skype, or digitally recorded audio face-to-face in-depth interview lasting between 30 to 60 minutes. After the data has been transcribed, you will be asked to read and verify accuracy of a confidential transcript of this interview. May I then request that you provide me with date, venue and time
convenient for you to do the interview? Finally, I look forward to starting data collection with you.

Kind regards.

Researcher’s Contact Details

Adobi Jessica Timiyo  
Doctoral Researcher  
Department of People, Management and Organizations  
University of Huddersfield Business School  
Email: U1370055@hud.ac.uk  
Telephone: +44 (0) 6539584725  
Skype: jeserlycious5050

Chief Supervisor’s Contact Details

Dr. Annie Yeadon-Lee  
Senior Lecturer - People, Management and Organisations  
Email: a.yeadon-lee@hud.ac.uk  
Telephone: 01484472421
Appendix F: Consent Form

March, 2015

To Participate in the Doctoral Research Titled:

“Conceptualisation of the Leading Manager Theory in Higher Education Institutions: Insights from Servant Leadership”

Principal Researcher: Adobi Jessica Timiyo
Department of People, Management and Organisations
University of Huddersfield Business School
United Kingdom.

Dear Participant:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my doctoral research study titled: “Conceptualisation of the Leading Manager Theory in Higher Education Institutions: Insights from Servant Leadership”. Through a detailed description of HEIs’ leadership practices this research seeks to develop and present a leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions, which demonstrate the complexity of managing these institutions. So as to enhance general and contextual understanding of servant leadership, as demonstrated by leaders in Higher Education Institutions for the purpose of advancing research on servant leadership and Higher Education Institutions.

Your views and contributions may help to address some of the pertinent issues of this research such as examining evidences of servant leadership in HEIs, and determining the extent HEIs’ leaders demonstrate this leadership construct. Invitation to participate in this study is opened to both senior academic and non-academic staff of your university. Participants must be current staff of the university, and is presently occupying a leadership position particularly (but not
limited to) vice chancellors, deans, heads of department, award directors and senior administrative staff.

Please be aware that participation is not compulsory; therefore, feel free to withdraw at any point so long as it is before data analysis. Once data analysis begins, you will no longer be able to withdraw your participation from the study. Since this is a voluntary exercise, participants will not be given any form of remuneration. Agreeing to participate in the study means that you fully understand and agree to the terms and conditions binding this interview in accordance to the UK Data Protection Act of 1998 and university of Huddersfield research ethics code of conduct.

Kind Regards
Name: Adobi Jessica Timiyo
Doctoral Student
University of Huddersfield Business School
adobi.timiyo@hud.ac.uk

I understand and fully agree to the terms and conditions binding this interview.

Participant’s Signature:

First Name:

Last Name:

Department:

Position:

Institution:
Appendix G: Interview Schedule


Participants’ Demographics:

☐ Academic staff ☐ Non-academic Staff:

Position:
Gender:
Interviewee Code Number:
Email Address:
Institution:
Interview Date/Time:
Duration:
Start:
Finish:
Venue:
Interviewer: Adobi Jessica Timiyo

Introduction:

My name is Adobi Timiyo; I am a doctoral student from the University of Huddersfield, United Kingdom. I am presently collecting data for my thesis on servant leadership within UK Higher Education Institutions. The purpose of this research is to develop and present a leadership theory for Higher Education Institutions, which demonstrate the complexity of managing these institutions. Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this study. At this point, please permit me to digitally record our conversations to enable me transcribe and analyse the data very accurately. I ask then, am I permitted to record our conversation? Is it okay if I take notes during our conversation? Please feel free to tell me whenever you need a break (interviewee to read consent form), and also to ask questions if
you need clarifications on any issues regarding this interview. Before I begin, do
you have any questions or clarifications concerning what we are about to do?

**Section A: Identifying Leaders and their Leadership Orientations**

(Please tell me about yourself and your role in this institution).

1. **By reason of your introduction, do you consider yourself to be a leader?**
   a. If yes, how?
   b. If no, why?

2. **Who are the leaders in this institution?**

**Section B: Identifying HEIs’ Leadership practices**

3. **How has your duties been over the last couple of years?**
   a. Are there any changes? Yes/No
   b. If yes, were the changes temporary or permanent?

4. **Which particular skills have helped you to perform your duties effectively?**
   a. Would you be kind enough to give some examples please?

**Section C: Identifying Servant Leadership Principles**

5. **Do you by any chance practice these skills while performing your duties?**

Accountability, communication, empathy, authenticity, courage, self-awareness,
stewardship, mentoring, honesty, trust and humility (Van Dierendonck & Nuijten,
2011).
6. Leadership is more about serving others (followers) interests than your own interest as a leader (servant leadership philosophy).

a. What is your opinion concerning this statement?
b. When you think of leadership, what readily comes to your mind?
c. What leadership style(s) do you consider appropriate for managing HEIs?

Section C: Identifying Servant Leadership Principles

7. Do you by any chance practice these skills while performing your duties?
Accountability, listening, empathy, authenticity, courage, self-awareness, stewardship, mentoring, honesty/trust, humility.

8. Leadership is more about serving others (followers) interests than your own interest as a leader (servant leadership philosophy).

d. What is your opinion concerning this statement?
e. When you think of leadership, what readily comes to your mind?
f. What leadership style(s) do you consider appropriate for managing HEIs?