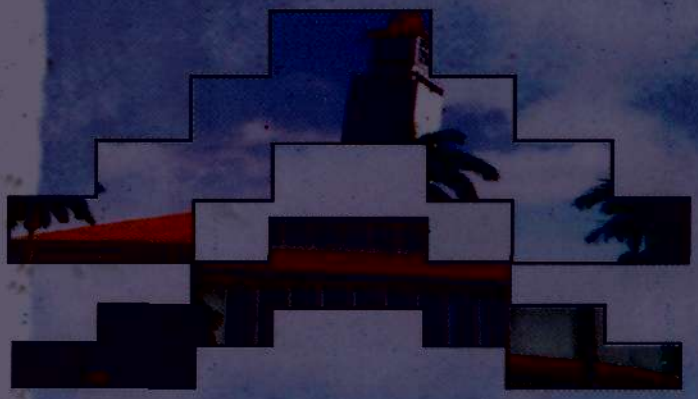
Leadership In Academic Institutions



Paul Effah

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface vi
Acknowledgement vii

CHAPTER ONE
WHAT IS LEADERSHIP? 1
Leadership and Management 4
Leadership Qualities 6
Study Questions 10

CHAPTER TWO
APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP 11
THE QUALITIES OR TRAITS APPROACH 11
THE FUNCTIONAL OR GROUP APPROACH 13
BEHAVIOURAL THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP ... 14
The Leadership Grid 16
CONTINGENCY APPROACH 18
LEADERSHIP STYLE APPROACH 19
Leadership Influence 19
Orientation of the Manager 20
Study Questions 21
FLAWED LEADERSHIP STYLES 22
The Oblivious Manager 22
The Misleader 22
The Put-Downer 22
The Micro-Manager 22
The Arrogant Manager 23
The Narcissist 23
The Loner 23
The Charmer 23
The Mistruster 24

The Avoider 24
Study Question 26
LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT 27
IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP IN THE ACADEMIC ENVIRONMENT 28
Study Questions 29

CHAPTER THREE
THE ACADEMIC ENVIRONMENT 30
Students 30
Academic Staff 32
Non-Academic Staff 33
Academic Freedom and Institutional Autonomy 36
Structure of Academic Institutions 38
Central Administration 40
Office of Vice-Chancellor 40
Office of Pro-Vice-Chancellor 41
The Registrar's Department 41
The Finance Office 42
Office of the Internal Auditor 42
Office of Director of Physical Development 43
Office of Director of Health Services 43
Commercial Units 44
Academic Divisions 44
The Library 44
Study Questions 45

CHAPTER FOUR
LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES IN ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS... 46
Introduction 46
Leadership at the Institutional Level 48
Leadership at the Departmental Level 53
Functions of the Head of Department 54

Faculty Administration 56
Duties of the Dean 56
Study Questions 57

CHAPTER FIVE
SOME SUGGESTIONS AND CONCLUSION 58
Suggestions 58
Conclusion 63
BIBLIOGRAPHY 66

CHAPTER ONE

WHAT IS LEADERSHIP?

Leadership is undoubtedly one of the most widely researched topics in industrial/organisational psychology. Frank E. Saal and Patrick A. Knight (1995 : 319) report, for example, that while Stogdill (1974) reviewed and summarised more than 3,000 published works on leadership, Bass (1981) cited more than 5,000 studies seven years later. It is, therefore, not surprising that leadership has been defined in many different ways. Indeed, Richard Daft (1999 : 5) reckons that there are 350 definitions of the term "leadership".

Leadership has variously been described as personality, influence, behaviour, power, goal achievement, or attribution, (Saal and Knight: 1995). To accommodate all the various theories and research studies while distinguishing between leadership and other organisational phenomena, Saal and Knight (1995: 321) observed that:

> *"Leadership is social influence in an organisational setting, the effects of which are relevant to, or have impact upon, the achievement of organisational goals".*

This definition highlights two main characteristics of leadership. First, leadership takes place when one person influences the behaviour of other people; that is, it has social influence. And, second, leadership helps the organisation to achieve its goals; that is, it influences organisational performance.

In business, the focus on leadership is rather more striking. Writing on "Meaning of leadership in 2002", Prof. Amin Rajan puts it forcefully in Professional Manager (2002 : 33) when he asserts that "leadership in current business climate is about making sense in an atmosphere of exceptional ambiguity. In practical terms it's

On goals, Dr. Haggai distinguishes between two meanings, vision and objectives. The vision is the leader's dream of what he or she sees his or her group being or doing. It is this vision, which sets the leader apart from others.

In Haggai's proposition, the commitment to act on the leader's vision becomes his or her mission. The second meaning of goals in Dr. Haggai's definition is "a set of specific, measurable achievements designed to implement the mission" (1986 :5).

The next major point relates to the word "permanence", which refers to the fact that the vision of the leader should lead to changes that are continuing, enduring and lasting. Again, it is useful to contrast "beneficial permanence" with "malevolent permanence". History is replete with examples of people who exhibited leadership characteristics but sought goals detrimental to the group they led. Idi Amin, Hitler and Nero are often mentioned in the category of malevolent permanence.

The last point on Dr. Haggai's definition relates to addressing the real needs of others. A leader in this regard, must be aware of, and sensitive to the needs of the members of his or her group.

In the preceding section a number of key characteristics of leadership have been discussed. Among these characteristics are: visioning, permanence, change, inspiring others, discipline and special influence. These points are reinforced in the following definition of leadership by McKenna (1994: 355).

> *"Leadership is a force that creates a capacity among a group of people to do something that is different or better. This could be reflected: in a more creative outcome, or a higher level of performance. In essence, leadership is an agency of change, and could entail inspiring others to do more than they would otherwise have done or were doing".*

Leadership and Management

The terms 'management' and 'leadership' are sometimes used interchangeably. However, some writers see management and leadership as two distinct and complementary terms, each having its own functions and characteristic activities. Others also emphasise an overlap between leadership and management (McKenna, 1994).

Writers who argue for a distinction between leadership and management see a leader as an innovator with a long-range perspective; one who challenges the status quo and "does the right things". (Brody ; 1993 : 3). A leader inspires others to do better. In addition, a leader focuses on setting the the

of the other. In essence, effective management and leadership are inseparable. Whetten and Cameron, however, emphasise management because, in their view, effective management subsumes effective leadership.

This view, notwithstanding, it has been found necessary to emphasise leadership in this book for a number of reasons. Traditionally, academic institutions have been operating collegial, consultative decision-making structures with varying degrees of success. In recent times, however, higher education institutions are facing recurring pressures for change. The underlying causes include funding crunch and expanding demand for higher education. There is increasing pressure for all stakeholders to contribute towards tertiary education. Emergence of private sector participation in tertiary education has been another challenge. And, as students, parents, organisations and governments contribute more and more towards the cost of services provided by the institutions, they are increasingly exercising choices over their investment decisions among a large number of alternatives.

Academic institutions can, therefore, no longer continue to take for granted the fact that they will have to attract students by relating the services offered to the benefits being sought.

Admittedly, owing to the complexity of the academic environment, particularly the fact that both inputs and outputs of academic institutions consist mainly of people rather than things, ideas and strategies from business have only a limited application. Yet, it is almost certain that, owing to the present pattern of dwindling Government grants to tertiary institutions, and the absence of any indications of a reversal of this trend, no one can afford to ignore the emerging leadership roles within the tertiary education landscape. Each institution must, in this regard, identify the culture and structure that are appropriate to its profile of academic activity and the range of operations compatible with the selected activities.

Strategic thinking and planning, the ability to spot new opportunities, as well as the adoption of innovative and income-generating activities are increasingly becoming an exciting and acceptable way of life in the academic environment. Although the central mission of the academic enterprise will continue to be teaching, research, service and skills development, responding adequately to the current challenges facing tertiary institutions would require strong and decisive leadership, both to make the decision to change and to push through its consequences (Jones and Whitechurch, 1991). In essence, new skills and different leadership styles are required to create and sustain the new rhj2.093.8(o) Tj99955 Tw0.220 Tcnvironmenreat

derestimate the importance of management. Nor is it to suggest that management and leadership are not related. It is deliberate and, rather to underscore the importance of creativity, vision and innovation in meeting the challenges that the twenty-first century holds for tertiary education institutions.

Leadership Qualities

In the traditional African society some leadership qualities are critical. In the past because of a history of continual warfare among tribes, "personal valour, intelligence and capability of the individual to lead the forces of the community in time of war" were among the qualities sought in choosing or selecting a king or chief (Assimeng, 1999 : 149).

In a research undertaken by Binet on economic psychology of Africa using a sample of fifty six ethnic groups in different parts of Africa, Binet identified sharing, deference to rank (power distance), sanctity of commitment, regard for compromise and consensus, and good social and personal relations as the key cultural traits which should be taken into account in forming business ties. (Dia, 1996; 52). The findings of this study confirm the results of

another study, which focussed on developing a profile of successful enterprise leadership in Kenya by Engelmann, Mwai, and Waisfisz in 1994, (cited by Dia, 1996; 56).

This Kenyan study established four interlinking leadership and management touchstones, namely, ability to (a) create trust and harmony in the company; (b) effectively play the role of a kind and strict parent; (c) establish effective communication; and (d) offer culturally sensitive motivation (Dia; 1996: 57). And, in Ghana, Dr. Nkrumah's early success as a leader has been attributed partly to his sensitivity to the culture of the people (Hagan, 1991: 182).

Clarity of thought, excellent communication skills and ability to inspire others are among leadership qualities highlighted by many. Using his own leadership style to emphasise the importance of leadership influence, Dr. Kwame Nkrumah, the first President of the Republic of Ghana wrote:

> *"... they spoke of personal charm, a lively manner and an infectious enthusiasm... If I have any special gifts in speaking, I count that the greatest " (cited by Hagan, 1991 : 185).*

The message carried by the leader is also important. Nkrumah claimed that his success also depended on the message he carried, as evident from the following words:

> *"Perhaps my success as a speaker may also be put down to the fact that my mind is clear and my policy decided. People listening to my speeches throughout the years could not have failed to notice two recurrent themes. The first is freedom of the individual. The second is political independence not just for Ghana or West Africa, but also for all Africa. I do not know how any one can refuse to acknowledge the right of men to be free " (quoted by Hagan, 1991, 186).*

Professor George P. Hagan illustrates how Dr. Nkrumah consolidated his leadership influence using "leadership gifts" such as the force of his vision and the pull of his charisma, capacity to achieve results, the gift of foresight to anticipate moves, ability to communicate not only ideas but also sentiment using body and voice as the medium, and the use of slogans, symbols as well as myths which facilitated the spread of his message. (Hagan, 1991 : 182).

Within the tertiary education sector, recent advertisements for chief executives emphasise the need for people with strong leadership skills including ability to innovate and manage change, excellent communication and interpersonal skills and capacity to transform vision into achievement in addition to outstanding academic record.

A few examples of such advertisements will be instructive. The advertisement for the post of Pro-Rector of the University College Northampton in the Times Higher Education Supplement of February 22, 2002 specified as follows:

> *"This position requires an individual committed to our mission, having proven skills in the management of change combined with the ability to deliver innovative solutions and with a passion for excellence in learning, teaching and research "*

Equally revealing is the advertisement for the position of the Provost and President of the University College London, published in the January 11-17, 2003 edition of The Economist (2003 , 17).

> *"The position calls for an individual of the highest calibre to provide strategic leadership to a complex and diverse organisation, in a continually changing and challenging environment. Strong management and business skills are important, combined with a knowledge and understanding of higher education."*

A similar pattern can be observed in African Universities as exemplified in an advertisement for the post of Vice-Chancellor of the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, Ghana (Daily Graphic, March 13, 2002). Among other qualities, the advertisement demanded that each candidate:

- Must be an internationally acclaimed or distinguished scholar with capacity to motivate and direct staff;
- Must exhibit a high sense of industry, leadership qualities and organisational skills and must be above reproach;
- Must possess excellent communication and interpersonal skills and capacity to manage and control crisis situations;
- Must be visionary, business-oriented and able to establish rapport between industry and the University for common purpose;
- Must be sober with maturity and drive for sound and impartial judgement.

The type of leader sought after depends also on the special circumstances of the institution at a particular point in time. Priorities may differ in time. Expectations of a leader may vary if he or she is a founding leader from those of a well established institution. Thus the particular form and character of an institution may also demand special qualities.

Therefore, in looking for a replacement for its first Vice-Chancellor, the University for Development Studies, established in 1992 in Tamale, Ghana sought the following qualities, among others: (Daily Graphic, June 25, 2001).

- Possession of strong strategic planning, academic and financial management skills;

- Possession of strong communication skills for fostering and promoting good internal and external relations;

- Clear understanding of the vision of the University and the management of a multi-campus institution.

In the Ghanaian tertiary education sector, former heads of institutions like David Balme, the first Principal of the University College of the Gold Coast (now Ghana), Prof. Alex Kwapong, the first Ghanaian Vice-Chancellor of the University of Ghana and Dr. R.P. Baffour of the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, are among many credited with strong leadership qualities.

Study Questions:

1. Explain any four characteristics of leadership

2. What are the key differences between leadership and management?

3. If you were to prepare an advertisement for the position of Vice-Chancellor/Principal of your institution what qualities would you highlight? Give reasons.

CHAPTER TWO

APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

Most organisations constantly debate the issue of whether to develop their own leaders or look elsewhere for leaders. In this chapter, five approaches to

Further attempts to come out with a more carefully defined list based on observations "were made by Professors Edwards and Townsend who highlighted strength and willingness to work hard, perseverance, willingness to take risks, ability to inspire enthusiasm and toughness.

Looking at literature on successful businessmen, Lewis and Stewart also added optimism and self-confidence to the list (Stewart: 1979).

Prof. Chris Argyris also identifies the following characteristics of successful executives operating in competitive conditions: (Cited by Stewart, 1979: 112)

- exhibit high tolerance of frustration;
- encourage full participation;
- continually question themselves;
- understand the "laws of competitive warfare";
- express hostility tactfully;
- accept victory with controlled emotions;
- understand the necessity for units and for unfavourable decisions;
- identify themselves with groups, thereby gaining a sense of security and stability;
- sets goals realistically.

As would be observed, the two sets of lists emphasise different qualities. This is to be expected, because of differences in the background of the researchers. As a psychologist/sociologist, Argyris emphasises emotional stability while Edwards and Townsend, highlight entrepreneurship because of their background in economics.

The differences in the two lists may also be explained by differences in the kinds of executives analysed. For example, Stewart (1979 :112) suggests that while the first survey seems to be limited to heads of companies, the second appears to include managers at different levels, indicating emphasis on chief executives and pro-

fessional managers respectively. Another important point which emerges from this analysis is the influence that people charged with recruitment in organisations can have on the recruitment process.

Although research has found only a weak relationship between personal traits and leadership success (Daft, 1999 : 65), history is replete with examples of leaders who were believed to have been imbued with certain leadership traits.

THE FUNCTIONAL OR GROUP APPROACH

In contrast to the traits approach, which focuses on the persons, the functional approach to leadership locates leadership in the functions of the executive. This means that the leadership function can be shared among members of the group. It also assumes that leadership skills can be learned and developed.

Dorothy M. Stewart (1994 :140) identifies three group functions at the task, team and individual levels.

According to Maslow, the individual has five basic needs, physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualisation.

The physiological need represents the individual's physical needs for food, shelter, warmth, sexual gratification and other bodily functions. The safety relates to the need to feel safe from danger, physical, mental and emotional security while the social need emphasises the sense of belonging and love, and the need to feel as a part of a group or organisation.

Maslow identifies two parts to the next level of need: esteem, namely, self-esteem, and the esteem of others. The last in Maslow's hierarchy of needs is self-actualisation, which refers to the need to aspire to one's full potential.

Although these needs have been arranged in a hierarchy, Maslow grants the possibility that an individual may step down from a higher need to defend a lower and strong need, if threatened. It is also to be noted that, a need once satisfied, ceases to motivate.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs teaches that a leader must know and address the real needs of the members of his or her group if they are to remain faithful followers. The difficulty is that individuals or sub-groups within any group may have different levels of need, some more pressing than others. Although Maslow's hierarchy of needs helps to determine which need should be met first, an open and frank discussion and negotiation with the members of the group facilitate a process of consensus building and help to minimise conflicts arising from not meeting a particular need.

BEHAVIOURAL THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

A number of theories have been developed to explain leadership in terms of actual behavioural characteristics. The first of these was perhaps the one developed at Iowa State University by Kurt Lewin and his associates which recognised two broad types of

leadership - the autocratic (boss-centered) and democratic (subordinate-centered) (quoted by Daft; 1991:69).

Another, and perhaps the most influential behaviour theory, was the one conducted by researchers at the Ohio State University which categorised leadership behaviour into, "consideration" and "initiating structure" (Saal and Knight : 1995) "Consideration" was used to measure the extent to which leaders showed concern for the well-being of their subordinates, motivating and consulting them, and showing appreciation while "initiating structure" described the degree to which leaders were task-oriented, organising the job activity of their workers towards attainment of formal goals. A study at the University of Michigan also established two types of leadership behaviour, employee-centered and job-centered, very similar to the features of Ohio State University's considerations and initiating structure (Saal and Knight, 1995).

Douglas McGregor puts forward two suppositions to explain human nature and behaviour at work. He argues that the style of management/leadership adopted is a function of the manager/leader's attitude towards people and assumptions about human nature and behaviour. He labels the two suppositions as theory X and theory Y.

Theory X is based on the assumption that people dislike work and will avoid it if they can and, therefore, most people must be forced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to put out the right effort. It suggests that the average person avoids responsibility, lacks ambition and values security most of all. People are motivated mainly by money. Theory X therefore emphasises the exercise of authority in the form of control and direction.

Theory Y, on the other hand, is based on the assumptions that people will exercise self-direction and self-control in working towards objectives to which they are committed and that given the right conditions, the average worker can learn to accept and to seek

responsibility. Commitment to objectives is a function of rewards associated with achievements.

MacGregor's theories X and Y reveal complexities in human behaviour and offer useful lessons for leaders and managers of organisations. The theories emphasise the importance of open administration, the use of sanctions, rewards and incentives to influence human behaviour as well as the need to integrate individual and organisational goals.

The Leadership Grid

Another approach to depicting different leaderships styles is the leadership grid developed by Blake and Mouton (Daft : 1999 : 75). In this concept of leadership styles, leaders are rated on a scale of one to nine according to two criteria : the concern for people and the concern for production.

Figure 1 : The Leadership Grid

(1,9)								(9,9)
				(5,5)				
(1,1)								(9,1)

Concern for Production

Source: Blake and Mouton, quoted by Daft (1999 : 76)

In figure 1 the horizontal dimension of the grid represents concern for production, and the vertical-dimension, concern of people.

The preferred point on the leadership grid is the 9,9 style (team management) which illustrates an integrative maximum concern for both production and people, depicting an environment in which members work together to accomplish tasks.

The 9,1 style (task management) focuses wholly on production. This leadership style, also referred to as "authority-compliance management", occurs when efficiency in operation is the dominant orientation. It illustrates the situation in which the leader takes the decision while the subordinate merely carries it out.

By contrast, the 1,9 style (country club management) emphasises people to the exclusion of their performance. People are encouraged and supported but their mistakes are overlooked. Emphasis is thus on people rather than on work output.

In style 1,1 (impoverished management) the leader exerts minimum effort to get the required work done. Staff put the minimum effort into their work. Morale is low because the leader ignores the use of motivators.

The leadership style 5,5, middle-of-road management, ensures that staff get through the work at an average rate and that morale remains at satisfactory level. This middle-of-the-road management is also known as "caretaker administration".

All the behavioural theories emphasise one important fact, namely, that to succeed, leaders must show concern for both task and people. As to whether this is possible within one person, the evidence is that leaders can be high on both behaviours when they work with or through others to accomplish an activity (Daft; 1999 : 79).

One strategy that a Vice-Chancel lor or Principal might adopt to gain high concern for both task and people is to recognise and use talents and expertise available within the institution. One might, for example, decide to set up technical committees made up of experienced colleagues to advise on pressing issues affecting the institution.

Once the sincerity of the Vice-Chancellor or Principal is established, the various constituencies within the academic community may be willing to offer maximum co-operation in not only making appropriate recommendations but also in helping to implement decisions that eventually emerge from the collaborative process. Thus, an open administration, combined with fairness, integrity, a good vision and respect for the structures of the institution, should set the chief executive high on both concern for task and people.

CONTINGENCY APPROACH

The contingency theory describes the relationship between leadership styles and specific organisational situations. It attempts to blend leadership behaviours with the demands of the leadership situations and shows how particular circumstances in which leaders find themselves (situational circumstances) are influential in determini, the vmo) Tj0.219 Tw0.130 Tc(adpropriat) Tj0 Tc(e) Tj1.091 Tw-.076 Tc(readershi) T

Other key elements that are emphasised in Fiedler's model which can either be favourable or unfavourable to a leader are:

- The structure of jobs or tasks;
- The power in the position of the leader; and
- The leader - member/worker relations.

One major lesson from the contingency theories is that there is no one best way of leadership. Successful leadership depends upon a number of factors such as the characteristics of the members of the group, the values, structure and type of organisation as well as the traits of the leader.

LEADERSHIP STYLE APPROACH

It is common for leadership theories to select leadership styles for emphasis. There are two frameworks which can help explain leadership styles within an organisational context: the way in which a manager exerts influence and his or her leadership orientation toward staff. (Brody, 1993 : 4)

Leadership Influence

Seltzer (1989 : 41 - 44) identifies a number of ways in which a manager may exert influence. The different approaches include the following:

Legitimate Influence	-	derived as a result of the manager's position and degree of authority bestowed by the organisation;
Coercive Influence	-	results from the capacity to impose punishment on staff who do not comply with work requirements;
Reward Influence	-	emanates from the power to motivate staff by providing them with valued outcomes including both financial and symbolic rewards;

Expertise Influence	exerted by the manager who has special knowledge that can be imparted to staff;
Referent Influence	may take various forms: display of charisma, instilling sense of loyalty; or fostering identification with the manager's goals and philosophies;
Communication Influence	arises when the manager is the source of critical information and has the power to determine whether to share or withhold it from staff.

Orientation of the Manager

The second framework related to leadership style involves a dynamic interplay between managers and the behaviour attitudes of their employees as well as various situational factors. Four Leadership styles may be identified. (Stewart, 1992:166).

Directive Leadership:	the leader assumes personal responsibility for making major decisions. He or she decides what needs to be done and tells the group what to do and how to do it;
Participative Leadership:	The leader presents ideas, invites feedback from staff but retains final decision-making authority. Two participatory leadership styles, consultative and collaborative may be identified (Stewart, 1992:116).

Delegative Style:	The leader explains-the situation and, constraints and gives the group responsibility for deciding what to do and how to do it. The leader derives satisfaction from giving decision-making responsibilities to staff.

The foregoing discussion underscores one important fact about leadership styles. It is that, different leadership styles are needed to cope with different situations. Thus, while the autocratic style, for example, may be appropriate when an organisation is in crisis and there is an urgent need for a rapid turn-round, it may be counter-productive during a period of stability or growth.

While it is essential to recognise the relevance and importance of universal basic principles of good leadership and management, it is also necessary to note that leadership profile and incentive systems need to reflect and adapt to different institutional and cultural contexts to be effective.

Study Questions:

1. What is your leadership style?

2. What is your Vice-chancellor's/Principal's leadership style?

FLAWED LEADERSHIP STYLES

In the real world it may be difficult to find a leader who has no flaws. Some may, however, have more flaws than others. Ralph Brody (1993:7) draws attention to the following flawed leadership styles:

The Oblivious Manager

Oblivious managers assume that people know what they should be doing and, therefore, rarely give directions or create a vision for the organisation. They neither follow-through nor monitor. With low expectations, they seldom encourage staff to excel. They ignore problems hoping that they will go away. They are usually oblivious to pending crises until the world crashes down upon them. They are passive which is reflected in the often-used expression, "whatever you want to do is fine with me". Such managers abdicate responsibility for making tough decisions.

The Misleader

Although they may use a participatory style, misleaders convey mixed and incorrect messages. Staff never know what to expect from such leaders or how they will react. Misleaders can, therefore, expect little commitment or investment from their employees, who do not want to invest time and energy in assignments that may later be cancelled or reversed. They are also prone to •changing their minds, thus making them unpredictable and thereby confusing subordinates.

The Put-Downer

Put-downers humiliate employees when they make mistakes or 'put them down' in front of others when they make mistakes. This leadership style is unlikely to encourage a change in the attitude of staff or an improvement in their performance.

The Micro-Manager

Micro-managers get into details that ares

freedom and autonomy to do it, believing that staff do not have potential. As a result, staff are denied the opportunity to grow and develop skills and experience, or to learn from their own mistakes. Micro-managers are often unable to trust the abilities of others. This leads them to be involved in the details of every one's work. Often they become so busy worrying about the work of others that they may fail to carry out their own managerial responsibilities.

The Arrogant Manager

Arrogant managers display exaggerated pride, super-self-confidence and a blinding sense of self-importance. They never admit mistakes. They disregard the contributions of the staff and think that positive results are due only to their own special performance. They think whatever ideas they come up with are good and should be accepted. As a result, staff may feel under-appreciated, disrespected, or ignored.

The Narcissist

Narcissists manipulate staff to achieve personal ambitions. They think very little about the good of the organisation. They would do everything to control the organisation's process to achieve predetermined personal goals. They are willing to advance their personal career or self-enrichment at the expense of the organisation.

The Loner

Loners limit contact with colleagues and see subordinates very infrequently to avoid delays or objections that may lead to the modification of their original ideas. Staff may feel ignored and abandoned under the leadership of loners and this may lead to low morale. Loners tend to have very poor communication skills, thus leaving subordinates uncertain as to the direction of their work.

The Charmer

Pursuit of personal acceptance from staff is the primary purpose of charmers. Popularity and good image are more important to

them than task accomplishment. Although liked by staff, charmers can be manipulative and perceived as unfair.

The Mistruster

Excessively suspicious, Mistrusters obsessively check on what staff do and think about them and in the process, kill initiative in staff.

In addition to the above flawed leadership styles identified by Ralph Brody may be added "the avoider".

The Avoider

As the name implies, avoiders deliberately dodge issues and confrontation. They can be engaged in discussions for several hours without making any decisive point or commitment. Like oblivious managers, avoiders would leave issues unattended to until some form for

From relatively stable environments, tertiary institutions are now transiting into unstable and sometimes chaotic settings, requiring of leaders the courage to take tough decisions. The oblivious leadership style is. therefore, inappropriate in such an environment.

Misleaders cannot survive in the academic environment either. While some faculty members get so much glued to their teaching and research work that they rarely have time for policy engagement and other institutional work, others take interest in the statutes and regulations governing the institution. There is very little room for any leader to mislead such staff. As many of them are also professionals, they expect to be consulted and to exert influence, especially on areas of management that impact directly on their work. The committee system and the diffused decision making structure within the academic environment also provide little opportunity for manipulation by misleaders.

Good communication is vital to ensuring commitment and creativity in employees. Peter Druker estimates that "60 per cent of all management problems result from faulty communication", (cited by Quirke, 2002 : 37). Providing every employee with a shared understanding of the institution's mission and strategic issues enhances productivity. Managers who want to lead successfully need to take internal communication seriously.

In the academic environment where one is dealing with enlightened staff, many of whom have big egos, a leader may not easily get away with a 'put-down' management style.

Similarly, there is a limit to which a micro-leader can operate within the academic environment. The micro-leader may, for example, want to prepare the strategic plan of the institution alone or seek to do most of the less technical assignments alone. But, before long he or she may have to face the appropriate board or committee to

justify the actions taken. Work of the semi-autonomous units in the academic institution is also so specialised that it may require expertise other than what the leader possesses to execute.

Whether rightly or wrongly, there is a public perception that, because of their background and training, a number of academic and some senior administrative and professional staff operating in the academic environment, have the tendency to display the arrogant leadership style. The feeling that their own ideas are always right and must be accepted often makes arrogant managers face stiff opposition from their colleagues.

Narcissists and mistrusters may be found in most organisations including academic institutions. If not checked, these leadership styles could lead to dissatisfaction and loss of morale. Attention should constantly be drawn to the negative effects of these leadership styles through training and leadership development.

The situation of 'charmers' is a controversial one. Although they are more concerned about their image than productivity, they are also sometimes useful in calming tensions and crises such as student and union strikes and demonstrations.

Although these flawed leadership styles may have been exaggerated, and may not in practice be manifested in their pure forms, they nevertheless serve as good signals to leaders. It is advisable for leaders to know and avoid lapsing into them, as adopting any of these leadership styles could spell great difficulties for leaders within the academic environment.

Study Question:

Can you think of individuals who adopt or have adopted each of the above-named leadership styles?

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Leadership is a universal concept. It can be learnt through a diversity of experiences. The process of leadership development typically involves progress through four stages, namely, unconscious incompetence, conscious incompetence, conscious competence and unconscious competence (Daft; 1999,23).
Non-leaders start from stage one, unconscious incompetence, where they are incompetent as leaders and are also unaware of this fact. Through training and coaching a potential leader may become conscious of what is required of leadership-visioning, team building, strategic thinking, etc.

This leads to stage two, conscious incompetence, where although one is aware of what is required of leadership, one is still personally incompetent, because he or she has not yet acquired or developed the necessary skills.

In stage three, conscious competence, there is both an awareness of what it takes to become a leader and leadership competence, evidenced through feedback from one's own skills and how well one is doing. During the last stage, unconscious competence, leadership skills would have been so developed that they would have become part and parcel of the leader, occurring involuntarily. In this last stage of leadership development, visioning and problem-solving, are no longer conscious activities of the leader, they emerge intuitively. The leader may be said to have acquired 'extra rational' powers.

Leadership then, can be learned by first becoming conscious of leadership qualities and then building personal competencies through practical experience.

IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP IN THE ACADEMIC ENVIRONMENT

The foregoing discussions have focussed on the general principles of leadership within a broad theoretical framework. They draw fundamental differences between leadership and management and highlight the universal nature of leadership as well as the need to apply knowledge and skills to inspire others to get things done. Although allusions have been made to the importance of leadership, this section answers the question: why is leadership important in the academic environment?

Leadership is a topic too often ignored in academia. But in the world today, knowledge, more than traditional capital and natural resources, has become the driving force behind the creation of wealth.

Whatever the broad national development goal of any country, whether it is enhancing economic growth, poverty reduction or improvement in the standard of living, the role of knowledge creation, dissemination and application is crucial. Indeed, knowledge has become the most important factor in economic development. (World Bank, 2002 : 7).

This emphasis on the knowledge factor singles out education, particularly the tertiary level, where knowledge is manufactured, stored and disseminated, as one of the key assets any country in the knowledge-driven twenty first century should acquire.

The benefits from knowledge acquisition are, however, not realised without effort. Neither do they come as a matter of course. This is because the rapid expansion of new information technology and improvements in communication technology as well as globalisation, have created new challenges and opportunities. New forms of competition, for example, have emerged among tertiary institutions.

To these may be added, particularly in the African context, the need to expand tertiary education coverage in a sustainable way, inequalities of access and outcomes, problems of educational quality and relevance, and rigid governance structures and management practices, what the World Bank's "Constructing Knowledge Societies: New Challenges for Tertiary Education", has described as "unresolved challenges". (World Bank, 2002 : xvii).

To be able to respond effectively to these challenges and stay aloft in the rapidly changing knowledge society, tertiary education institutions need to reposition themselves within their national economies. The process should involve a re-examination of the academic environment with a view to adopting new and flexible approaches alongside the traditional academic values. The traditional human resource model of selection and leadership training, the system of academic management, governance and financing, student support, use of technology, among others, will have to be revisited. New roles may have to be assigned to all stakeholders in education. New leadership skills will be required to meet the new challenges. Very little will, however, be achieved, unless the initiative comes from within the academic environment. The role of leadership in this process is critical.

Study Questions:

1. Can you think of examples of persons who have learned to be leaders?

2. What do you consider as your own strengths and weaknesses as a leader?

3. Why is leadership important in the academic environment where independent thinking and personal development are encouraged?

CHAPTER THREE

THE ACADEMIC ENVIRONMENT

Without difficulty, society accepts the fact that inquiry and teaching are best carried out in an academic environment. A number of institutions including universities, professional institutes and polytechnics operate within the academic environment. By far the oldest among these is the university.

There are three identifiable groups within the academic environment: students, the academic staff and non-academic staff, each with its own sub-groups.

Students

The first group is the students who, like those at all other levels of education, are learners. As suggested by Chief Adamolekum (1985 : 25) students at the university and other higher education institutions, unlike others at lower levels, claim to be "free and emancipated", an assertion which obviously has subtle implications for the administration. Indeed, there has been a period in the history of universities when universities were financed and run by students. (Bowden, 1977).

Students in universities are junior members in *statu pupilari.* The implied role of the universities *in loco parentis* has, however, been the subject of discussions for sometime now. Many universities and reports have asserted that the paternalistic posture inherent in *in loco parentis* should no longer be part of the role of the contemporary university. A University of Toronto Report (Cowen, 1975 : 67), for example, states, among other things, that:

> *"... the university assumes its students are sufficiently mature that they should make their own decisions concerning moral and social behaviour".*

A similar proposition was emphatically stated by the Ontario Commission in its Report on post secondary education in Ontario published in 1972. It said: (Cowen, 1975 : 67).

> *"The time has come for all vestiges of in loco parentis or guardianship rules to be abolished. "*

On account of the maturity of students in the university, Clark Kerr has said of students of the United States and, also by implication more generally, that they have become the new men of power to the extent that whereas in the past they asked for more freedom for themselves, they were now seeking to reduce

Students constitute an important component of the academic environment. As an important stakeholder in the education enterprise, improving students' understanding of the nature of tertiary institutions will lead to a better appreciation of the challenges of tertiary education, and the need for new policy initiatives.

It is important in this regard to emphasise the value of communication and sharing of information with students on regular basis arid of consulting with them and their leaders on matters that may affect them or their interests. The advantage in promoting such practices is that it avoids presenting students with "surprise" decisions that may provoke strong reactions.

Academic Staff

The next group in the academic community after students is the academic staff. Indeed, one of the legacies that the mediaeval period bequeathed to the modern world is the name 'University' as an association of masters and scholars leading a common life of learning. (Odumosu, 1973 : 4).

The university has a very high concentration of 'brain power' probably not comparable to what obtains in any other type of situation or organisation. Arguably, the professor is of a different genre. Indeed, as Chief N.K. Adamolekum (1985 : 26) puts it:

> *"A professor is a unique creature; he is the epitome of all the knowledge in his field; his type is rare in any other situation "*

In the university, there are various degrees of competencies, and the professor, the 'full professor' is the one adjudged by his peers and the academic community, to have reached the apex in his or her area of specialisation or discipline. The quality of the university is largely determined by the quality of its academic staff and students. In fact, Clark Kerr (1963 : 100) puts it very forcefully when he opines that:

> *"In every real sense, the faculty is the university - its most productive element, its source of distinction"*

Within the diffused and committee-based decision-making academic environment, the academic staff play an important role in management and institutional governance. The quality of management and governance is partly a reflection of the quality, active participation as well as the management and leadership capabilities of the academic staff.

Apart from representation on Departmental, Faculty and Academic Boards (Senates), academic staff are represented on Councils of the respective institutions. In addition, teachers or academic staff unions also have representation on Council as well as welfare committees of the institutions.

Non-Academic Staff

The third group within the university is the non-academic staff comprising the senior administrative and professional staff, senior technical and non-technical as well as junior technical and non-technical staff who provide academic and administrative support as well as maintenance services for the work of the academic enterprise.

In the past, when university education was for the elite classes who could afford it, the numbers were low and manageable. Established by Royal Charters with endowment funds, universities had respectable budgets for periods up to five years or more and, could safely take, within limits, the question of funding for granted.

Today, the question of funding can no longer be ignored. The challenges posed by inadequate funding, limited access, declining quality and the need for improved governance structures and management practices, among others, are daunting, requiring of higher education administrators and managers new leadership and management skills to address.

The library, for example, is an academic support unit and constitutes an integral part of the

> *versify requires experts of proven professional competence to man its administrative machinery, the administrative capacity needed for the purpose is of the highest order indeed".*

Therefore, far from being a subordinate and merely subsidiary and inferior activity, efficient administration remains an essential partner of sound academic leadership. (Kwapong, 1980 : 7)

These ideas are also in line with Professor Henry Wasser's (1996 : 5) rethinking of the whole structure and organisation of the university in his new concept of "university of calculation" which sees the university as a convenient assembly of talents in the intellectual marketplace.

In other words, in the restructured university of the future, emphasis would be placed on expertise as well as new structures and practices that promote efficiency and effectiveness. The work of each of the members of the academic community should complement and reinforce each other's to build the capacity to meet the new challenges of the tertiary education sector. Administration should not be seen as an end unto itself; it must minister to and foster inquiry and scholarship.

Regrettably, the trend in most tertiary institutions in Africa and other developing countries is that the number of non-academic staff, particularly those in the junior and senior non-technical grades, is increasing in relation to student and academic staff numbers. Indeed, it is possible that the contribution of some of the staff to productivity would be negative, implying that the institution would be better off without such staff. However, given the difficulties associated with retrenchment and redeployment exercises in tertiary institutions, particularly in Africa, one of the best ways of tacking this problem is to design and mount training and retraining programmes to equip the staff with basic technical skills to enhance their capabilities.

Academic Freedom and Institutional Autonomy

The twin concepts of academic freedom and autonomy are values, which have been cherished and preserved by academic institutions since the mediaeval period. The reason for this is not far fetched. Not without difficulty, society has been persuaded to the belief that knowledge and insight are the products of independent minds which will not often be attained otherwise. Universities and academic institutions have, therefore, spared no effort in fighting aberrations and violations against these time-honoured values.

Academic freedom, understood generally as a set of individual and collective responsibilities, may be interpreted in different ways. Charles Hanly (1975) identifies two viewpoints - that of the individual professor carrying out his scientific and scholarly work of research, teaching and publication and that of the university as an academic institution. Institutional autonomy, on the other hand, has been defined as the freedom and independence of an institution to determine its decision-making process and make its own internal decisions, with regard to academic affairs, faculty and student affairs, business affairs and external relations. (Ajayi, Goma and Johnson. 1996 : 243). In other words, a community of free enquiry with power to govern without outside control. So strong is the desire to safeguard academic freedom and university autonomy that Professor Adebayo Adedeji argues that;

> *"a university is a mental institution (where you get all sorts of people from the genius to the most erratic) but unlike other mental institutions, the inmates of a university are, or should be allowed to administer themselves". (Odumosu, 1973 : 21).*

This passion for autonomy follows from the conviction that academic work thrives best in an atmosphere of freedom and autonomy; and also that academic institutions need to be allowed to develop by learning from their mistakes and by internalising their control.

evidence from academic fora such as inaugurals, inter-faculty lectures, etc, that a fair amount of academic freedom and autonomy exist in Ghana.

The traditional values of academic freedom and institutional autonomy need to be respected because they are critical ingredients for the success of higher education systems. Confirming this assertion, Ncayiyana and Hay ward (1999 : 5) emphasise that if higher education institutions are to succeed as repositories of knowledge, they must operate in conditions of freedom, autonomy, responsibility and adequate resources. It is the responsibility of all concerned - Councils, Academic Boards, Vice-Chancellors, heads of institutions as well as Governments to ensure that these conditions are met.

STRUCTURE OF ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS

Academic institutions are highly complex entities. Their particular nature and traditions make it impossible for them to follow administrative models and procedures analogous to what obtains in government departments or other public organisations.

Furthermore, the specific functions of academic institutions dictate peculiar structures and procedures not easily replicated in Government and other corporate environments.

Most senior academics are familiar with the complex structure of academic institutions. Indeed, for some of them, the structure has become common- place. But, in the case of others who may not have held leadership positions within the academic enterprise, it bears repeating that most universities and other academic institutions operate a bicameral structure comprising a Council and Academic Board (or Senate), each with its defined roles and responsibilities. Many may also not be very familiar with the committees and boards of the two bodies. Council is the final

authority in institutional governance; however, in academic matters the supreme authority is the Academic Board or Senate.

It should also be explained from the outset that, although there are similarities in the structures of academic institutions, differences exist which reflect various cultures, history and traditions and, in some cases, stage of institutional development.

There are a number of important documents which every aspiring leader and administrator of an academic institution must know. These include:

- the Act establishing the institution and the enabling Statutes which set out structures, aims and objectives and define powers and responsibilities;
- conditions of service for the various categories of staff which regulate terms of appointment;
- scheme of service which sets out qualifications for appointment and job descriptions;
- financial and stores regulations which define accounting and stores procedures;
- regulations concerning procurement and tendering.

By and large, each academic institution, subject to minor modifications, operates five (5) broad and overlapping divisions as follows:

Central Administration;
Academic Divisions;
Services;
Hall of Residence/Hostel Administration;
Student Affairs.

Central Administration

As its namesTBT1 0 0 1 2962.9 490.560 Tm370Tw0.16ordininistratio0.2391.082 T190.01 ic(it) Tj

Office of Pro-Vice-Chancellor

The Statutes assign responsibilities to the Pro-Vice-Chancellor. But in majority of cases, no provision is made for specific duties, except to indicate that the Pro-Vice-Chancellor acts for the Vice-Chancellor when the latter is away. Traditionally, some Pro-Vice-Chancellors have been assigned responsibilities for housing, international relations and links with external institutions including staff and student exchanges and leave matters. In reality it is the Vice-Chancellor or the head of the institution who determines what responsibilities to assign to the Pro-Vice-Chancellor The Vice-Chancellor must assign responsibilities to the Pro-Vice-Chancellor if he or she is to be an effective leader and manager. Giving the Pro-Vice-Chancellor ceremonial or insignificant responsibilities will not produce effective management performance by the Vice-Chancellor's "administration" because too many responsibilities will be concentrated in the hands of the Vice-Chancellor, leading to back-ups, delays and inefficiencies.

The Registrar's Department

The Registrar who is statutorily the Secretary to Council and Academic Board is responsible to the Vice-Chancellor or head of the institution for the day-to-day administrative work of the institution. In other words, the Registrar is the chief executive officer of the Vice-Chancellor and the institution.

Subject to institutional differences, a typical Registrar's Department comprises the following divisions:

Personnel	-	responsible for the general processing of appointments and promotions as well as general welfare of staff;
Students Affairs	-	responsible for students welfare, including scholarships, bursaries, accommodation, guidance and counselling;

Academic Affairs	Comprising students admission, examinations, students records and Academic Board matters;
General Administration and Council Affairs	Including Council matters, estates, municipal Services, development matters and interpretation of regulations.

In addition, the Registrar's Department provides for each faculty, a secretary who services the faculty Board and also handles administrative matters.

The Finance Office

The Finance Officer's or Bursar's Office, as it is sometimes called, is the financial focus of the institution with responsibility for co-ordinating and supervising all accounting and financial activities of the institution. It is the main channel for receiving the institution's subvention from Government and other sources, and for disbursing it either directly or through the various sections of the institutions. The office also co-ordinates the preparation of the annual budget estimate of the institution.

Office of the Internal Auditor

The scope and objectives of the Office of the Internal Auditor are captured succinctly in the Administrative Manual of the University of Cape Coast (1988 : 7) as follows:

- To review and appraise, where necessary, the adequacy, 1 soundness and applications of accounting, financial and operational controls;
- To ascertain the extent of compliance with established policies, plans and procedures and appraise the qualify of performance of those carrying out assigned responsibilities;

- To ascertain the extent to which assets are accounted for and safeguarded against losses of all kinds; and

- To ascertain the reliability of accounting and other data developed within the university.

In effect, the Office is required to draw attention to deficiencies in the system with suggestions for remedy. It serves both as a counsellor and watchdog. In order to have a free hand to perform its onerous duties the Office is placed directly under the Office of the chief executive of the institution.

Office of Director of Physical Development

The duties of the Director of Physical Development are important and demanding, particularly in new or rapidly expanding institutions, requiring the appointment of persons of competence and energy. The duties include the following:

- Long-term development planning;
- Planning and capital works of the institutions;
- Design of new buildings;
- Supervision of major and minor works; and
- Liaison with consultants.
- Preparation of annual plans for maintenance and rehabilitation of physical facilities.

Office of the Director of Health Services

There is normally a Director of Health Services who is responsible for the administration of health services to all sections of the institution. The challenge is to provide adequate health services to students and all categories of staff and their dependants. For most academic institutions, free medical facilities constitute part of negotiated conditions of service.

Commercial Units

Commercial Units operate under the general supervision of the Central Administration in most academic institutions.

The units and their management structures vary from institution to institution, but generally include: bookshops, printing, farms, consultancy and hospitability and catering services. The units are normally headed by managers and operate under management committees.

Academic Divisions

The academiy bu i th c(operat) Tj0 Tc(09 0-0.273 Tw-0..25cernTc(heade) Tj0 T(e)) 0-0.276 Tw-0

improve the institution's access to information. For this reason, library managers are now playing more important roles in contemporary academic life than they have in the past. As a result, they need to be trained as "information managers" rather than as 'librarians'.

Study Questions:

1. Which values or structures in the academic environment would you like to have reinforced or changed? Give reasons for your choice.

2. If you had a limited budget for leadership training, which of the three identifiable groups within the academic environment - students, non-academic staff and academic staff would you first consider? Why?

CHAPTER FOUR

LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES IN ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS

Introduction

Allusions have been made to the fact of the complex nature of academic institutions. This complexity stems out of the unique characteristics that academic institutions possess. Among the major ones are the three important values and traditions, which must be respected if academic institutions are to undertake their core functions unfettered - academic freedom, institutional independence, and the need to hold consultation with stakeholders on appropriate decisions. Others include increased enrolments (i.e larger numbers of staff, students and associated logistics), increase in the number of academic disciplines overtime, the emergence of interdisciplinary centres on campus as well as the differentiation in th• Driven by high population growth rate and the desire

to expand enrolment at the basic and secondary levels, there is high social demand for tertiary education, far in excess of the capacity to manage;

- Quality is not assured and, institutions and programmes are becoming increasingly irrelevant;
- Globalisation, information and communication technology revolution have induced changes in the mode of operation and delivery of the traditional institutions;
- Changing student demographics and pressure to contribute to the building of open societies have

compelled institutions to introduce innovations such as diversification of institutions, courses and programmes.

- Students, traditionally seen as consumers, are now becoming customers, exercising choices over personal investment decisions among a large number of alternatives. It has become increasingly necessary for institutions to attract students based on the quality of programmes and services offered;

New forms of competition are emerging as a result of diversification and increasing participation of the private sector in the provision of tertiary education;

- Creative and new ways need to be found to break historical links to colonial administrations and the rigid governance models and management practices which have become barriers to innovation and changes in tertiary institutions;

- Funding, which seemed secured in the past, has become grossly inadequate; worse still, the indications are that it is unlikely that tertiary education institutions will ever again benefit from the high level of public grants they have enjoyed in the past;

- There is increasing pressure on tertiary education institutions to assist society in fighting poverty and in promoting community development;

- And finally, perhaps the toughest task, is to build the institutions themselves; this involves raising morale, recapturing expatriated talent, attracting and retaining staff and ensuring that the institutions live on.

The ensuing sections now discuss how leadership at the various levels of the institution can and should meet these challenges.

Leadership at the Institutional Level

The Chief Executive is the Vice-Chancel lor, Principal or Provost, who is normally the academic and administrative head and the chief disciplinary officer of the institution. In Ghana, the Chief Executive is appointed by the Council of the institution, normally from among the senior academic staff within or outside the institution. Typically, the process of appointment starts with the setting up of a Search Committee by Council, which makes recommendations to Council, the appointing authority.

Leaders face very hard choices. A former President of Tanzania, Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere, once felt that leaders often do not have choices. He said:

> *"Decades ago, as President of my country, I told Tanzanians that the choice before them was to change or be changed. I was wrong. There was no choice. They had to change, and would still be changed" (Acu Bulletin No 135, 1998:5).*

Most academic institutions in Africa and beyond have, as a result of their institutional history, adopted the 'collegial' model of administration by which the institutions are run by Committees and Boards. Many of them have adopted the two-tier or bicameral system of governance consisting of Councils which are the executive governing bodies of the institutions and Academic Boards (or 3 Senates) responsible for regulating and directing the academic work of the institutions.

The institutions have decentralised units with high degree of autonomy, delegated or devolved to faculties and departments. Management of the institutions is diffused and shared among the various committees and units. Under the circumstances Chief Executives in academic institutions must show flexibility in their leadership style. Where appropriate they must combine the different

approaches noted in chapter two. Within the academic environment there are limitations on the extent to which the various leadership styles can be exercised. As noted, the structure is decentralised. A strong collegial ethos also exists. Emphasis is on merit, scholarship and self-confidence. Independent work is promoted.

In such an environment, the Vice-Chancellor or Principal may not necessarily be the topmost researcher, nor the leading fundraiser or the most innovative thinker in the institution. Under such circumstances, the Vice-Chancellor or Principal has to lead more by persuasion and inspiration than by authority of his or her position. (Sawyerr, 1991:16)

Another major source of leadership influence in the academic environment is expertise, which, in the university, largely resides in the professoriate. Professors are adjudged by their peers to have reached the apex of their competencies in their specific field of learning in terms of research and publication. Their status gives them automatic membership of the Academic Board (or Senate), the body which regulates academic work. Added to this, is the fact that the professoriate has tenure, which allows this category of staff considerable freedom to profess their subject and to undertake research without let or hindrance, subject only to professional code and ethics.

The central administration, headed by the Vice-Chancellor, Principal or Provost, is responsible for the day-to-day management of the institution. As a result, it exercises considerable leadership influence. The authority of the central administration is strengthened by its control over information and role in the allocation of resources in the institution (Sawyerr, 1991 : 17).

Although each situation determines the appropriate leadership style to be used, the presence of highly professional and specialised staff and the complex nature of the academic environment, suggest

that participative or delegative rather than directive leadership style is most appropriate.

Within the academic environment, the institutional role of the Vice-Chancellor or Principal has largely been one of co-ordination and communication with limited executive and decision-making powers. In recent times, however, some chief executives have adopted measures to strengthen executive power through weekly or monthly meetings with key senior managers in their respective institutions. This has, however, not changed the authority relationships, which has largely remained diffused.

Initiating and periodically upgrading the institution's strategic development plan is one of the key responsibilities of the Chief Executive. In the context of increasingly rapid changes, and growing institutional interdependence in the tertiary education sector, strategic planning is becoming a vital responsibility of management. Key activities involved in the process include: visioning, definition of institutional or corporate identity, the setting of objectives and crafting strategies for their achievement.

Although the governing council of each institution has the oversight responsibility for ensuring that the institution has a strategic plan, it is the duty of the Vice-Chancellor or Principal to initiate the process of plan preparation, to ensure full participation of all members of the academic community, to link the plan to the process of financial resource allocation, and to ensure effective monitoring and evaluation of the strategic plan.

It is important to emphasise the need for consultation and participation of all stakeholders within the institution so that everyone would understand and be more likely to assume ownership of the plan and show commitment to its implementation. To facilitate the plan preparation, the chief executive should provide the institution with a common understanding of the institution's past, its current operations, and the values under which it operates.

The need for a strategic plan thus emphasises the importance of having visionary leaders who would dream the dream of their institutions and also take the necessary actions to ensure that the dream becomes a reality. The leadership of the academic institutions of the knowledge-driven twenty-first century should be trailblazers, capable of venturing into previously unknown and sometimes uncharted territories. Calculated risk-taking should replace the conservative and fear-prone ethos characterising the present academic environment.

It is necessary, therefore, for the leadership to step away from their desks once a while for reflection. This is an important leadership process which is very vital for the sustenance and good health of every organisation (Kossoff, 1999 : 2). This means that chief executives of academic institutions would have to adopt structures and strategies that would relieve them of the daily routine and chores to enable them have time to think strategically and dream about their institutions. Admittedly, it would take some effort to bring these changes about.

Recent developments in Cambridge University amply demonstrate the difficulties in effecting changes in governance models and management practices within the traditionally conservative and risk-averse academic culture. In an article in the Times Higher Education Supplement of February 8, 2002, Phil Baty highlights a proposal by the University to beef up the powers of its Vice-Chancellor and reduce the traditional democratic role of its community" of scholars as part of a major constitutional reform. In a consultation paper, "Changing Cambridge" launched by the Pro-Vice-Chancellor, Malcolm Grant, the University is proposing fundamental changes to the ancient democratic system of Cambridge which has been found to be too slow to react to competition, especially from top US institutions.

The "Consultation Paper" proposes that the Vice-Chancel lor should be recognised in the "statutes as the principal academic and administrative officer responsible for the direction and management of the university and its finances and be given authority to discharge these responsibilities. It further proposes a layer of five Pro-Vice-Chancellors responsible for finance, planning and resource allocation, personnel, research and education beneath the Vice-Chancellor.

This proposal, which apparently turns the Vice-Chancellor into an executive head, has been criticised by a section of the university as wiping out 800 years of democratic self-governance. This development is not an isolated case.

Universities in the United Kingdom are increasingly combining scholarship with entrepreneurship. The University of Warwick, for example, has established a science park in collaboration with industry. This trend is significant, because the traditional British Universities "boasted that they had nothing to do with industry and commerce" (Bowden, 1977 : 18). In their book "University Leadership: The Role of Chief Executive", Catherine Bargh, Jean Boek, Peter Scott and David Smith, have researched the careers and experiences of Vice-Chancellors, and completed a data set of 341 cases and outlined two major hypotheses, namely, that:

> *"new forms of executive leadership have emerged in British education based on managerial expertise rather than collegial or charismatic authority; and that there has been a power shift in universities with Vice-Chancellors becoming the dominant figures in defining their cultures and possessing the power to determine institutional missions and performance" (Pritchard, 2001:227)".*

Sir Richard Sykes took over the office of Rector of the Imperial College of Science, Technology and Medicine after distinguishing himself as a scientist and businessman. His vision for Impe-

rial College was to build the College's financial base, maintain its record of academic excellence and exploit more of its wealth of intellectual capital for commercial gain (Lucas, 2002 : 16)

Apart from initiating a major organisational restructuring, Sir Richard Sykes also launched an entrepreneur's programme designed to help academics and researchers to improve their business and innovation skills and enhance the College's already impressive track record for commercialisation of its research.

Similar initiatives are being taken in Africa. In the past few years, the University of Dar es Salam in Tanzania has initiated a very complex and important strategic planning process.

In an interview of Professor M.L. Luhanga, the Vice-Chancellor of the University, by Susan Robinson King, Carnegie Corporation Vice-President, Public Affairs in Carnegie Corporation Reporter (Vol. 2/No.l, 2002 : 33 - 39), the Vice-Chancellor summed up the rationale for the University's faculty-driven reform process as "initiated in response to the external environment which was hostile to the survival of the University", an assertion which aptly describes conditions confronting many African universities.

The University has in response, developed strategies for tackling its challenges including being entrepreneural, and making the work of the University more relevant to the future of Tanzania and what the country needs from the University.

Leadership at the Departmental Level

The basic cell or organisational unit in the academic life is the Department with the individual faculty member as the elementary particle. The Department contains sub-groups concerned with particular courses or research areas, but it is the academic discipline which provides a firm boundary around the Department

(Lockwood, 1985 : 34). The Department is semi-autonomous, subject to the authority of the Academic Board (or Senate) and to the parent discipline or professional body outside the institution in the case of those affiliated to professional bodies.

In the university, the Department is normally headed by a Professor appointed in accordance with the statutes of the university. In the past, a distinguished Professor could be appointed a Professor and Head of Department for as long as he or she remained at post. The situation has changed. Heads of Department are now normally appointed on rotational basis. In line with expansion in the knowledge base, specialised units or disciplines are being fragmented, broadening the span of control of the central administration rendering coordination more and more difficult.

Functions of the Head of Department

The Head of Department has overall responsibility for all aspects of the Department's activities. The sphere of responsibilities of the head include the following outlined in the University of Manchester, Manual for Heads of Departments, (1991 : 18)

- Departmental development and academic planning;
- The arrangements governing the teaching and study of the subjects assigned to the Department by the Academic Board (or Senate);
- Where appropriate, the arrangements governing the admission, welfare and academic progress of the students in the Department;
- The allocation of duties among the academic staff;
- The allocation of duties to the technical, secretarial and ancillary staff;

- The estimates of the Department;
- The allocation of available resources, including space, finance and apparatus;
- The control of Departmental expenditure;

The arrangements for advising and monitoring the progress of probationary academic staff in the Department;

- The arrangements for the appraisal and development of academic and related staff in the Department;
- The arrangements for the grant of leave of absence, with or without payment of salary, to members of the academic and related staff in the Department;
- The health and safety of the staff and students in the Department;
- The formation and presentation to the appropriate person or body in the university of recommendations concerning:

  i) The grant of permission to undertake outside work or consultancies to members of the academic and related staff in the Department;

  ii) The promotion, re-appointment and accelerated salary progression of members of the academic and related staff and non-academic staff in the Department;

In undertaking these responsibilities the Head of Department is enjoined to give due regard to the advice of the Departmental Board in the Department and to consult the Professors in the Department and the Dean of the Faculty, where appropriate.

Faculty Administration

A combination of Departments in related interests and activities constitute a Faculty, which is headed by a Dean, normally elected from among the academic staff of the Faculty.

Each Faculty has a Faculty Board whose membership normally shoha(o)Tj0 Tr(s)t 0 j70.516 Tw0.101 TcSenate)tie.

th wher o responsibilitie o th Facult Boars

Faculty members and industrial experts on the various professional fields within the Faculty.

The duties of Deans of Faculties and Heads of Department outlined above guide management action and, when executed efficiently, ensure stability in the Department or Faculty concerned. But, the reason why research is more vibrant, research output higher and promotion more rapid in some Departments than others, is that while some Departments have leadership, it is lacking in others.

Regrettably, owing to difficulties in attracting senior academic staff, largely because of poor conditions of service, the mantle of leadership in some Departments and Faculties has fallen on young and inexperienced academics, particularly in new institutions. Administrative responsibilities often take much more time of the work of these young, inexperienced heads than academic work, the reason for their appointment in the first place. This situation has not been helped by the absence of a regular, structured and systematic training programme for Heads of Department and Deans of Faculty whose turnover is high because of rotational appointment.

Study Questions:

1. If you had to train someone to take your place, what knowledge and skills would you ensure that he or she possessed?

2. If you were to design a training programme for heads of department in your institution, what would it contain?

3. List three activities that can be undertaken to improve your leadership capability.

CHAPTER FIVE

SOME SUGGESTIONS AND CONCLUSION

Suggestions

In reaction to the leadership challenges facing academic institutions/a number of proposals have been canvassed. One of them is the introduction of multiple Pro-Vice-Chancellorships, i.e. to have more than one Pro-Vice-Chancellor, as has been the practice in most universities.

In the traditional British universities, a Pro-Vice-Chancellor did not have a schedule. As provided for in the Acts and Statutes of the institutions, the Pro-Vice-Chancellor acts in the absence of the Vice-Chancellor. This is the tradition, which most academic institutions in Africa inherited. Increasingly, Vice-Chancellors are beginning to pass on more and more of their responsibilities to their Pro-Vice-Chancellors. This trend notwithstanding, power and authority continue to be diffused and shared with the various semi- autonomous units and committees and boards in the institutions.

In the US tradition, on the other hand, the University President has executive powers and can, together with his or her Vice-Presidents, take decisions with far reaching consequences. Because of these differences in tradition, great care needs to be taken in marrying the two systems. Not much difficulty will arise when Pro-Vice-Chancellorships are created for purely academic areas like co-ordination of research, international relations and foreign students affairs or quality assurance. But in situations where academic Pro-Vice-Chancellors have been assigned responsibilities for specialised and professional areas such as finance and administration and the library, without appropriate changes in the

traditional structure, conflicts are likely to arise between the Pro-Vice-Chancellors and the professional heads of the respective departments such as the Registrar, Finance Officer/Bursar and the University Librarian. In addition, difficulties are likely to occur between the Pro-Vice-Chancellors and the relevant committees and boards whose activities might appear to limit the authority of the former. Problems arising from duplication of duties and avoidable personality conflicts can be prevented by the development of new power and authority relationships as well as work schedules to ensure that the Pro-Vice-Chancellors and the professional heads have clear and unambiguous job functions.

Another area of concern is the apparent absence of regular and systematic training programme for the leadership in most academic institutions. In spite of being training institutions, tertiary institutions have, paradoxically, not traditionally institutionalised leadership training as one of their major activities. As a result, most academic institutions do not have any succession plan in place. Except for occasionally attending local and international training programmes, leadership development as obtains in the private sector is not common in academic institutions.

What is being advocated is a regular leadership development training programme for Vice-Chancellors, Principals, Heads of Department and Deans of Faculties, etc to meet two basic needs: First, to equip and update leadership in academic institutions with leadership skills on a continuous basis, to enable them to handle the emerging complex challenges facing tertiary institutions. Secondly, at any given time, there should be a pool of men and women with the vision, right orientation and skills to fill vacant

leadership positions in the institutions. Occasional attendance at national and international conferences and workshops is useful as it helps to expand leadership horizon; but it should complement and not be substituted for institutionally structured training and development programme.

The benefits of leadership training are not immediately obvious, which may explain why most institutions do not earmark funding for such training. Research undertaken by the Institute of Management and cited in Professional Manager (Cook, 2002 : 9) has demonstrated that where there is a specific budget and high priority given to leadership development within an organisation, both the quality of leadership and turnover are high. But, it also showed that only 25 percent of organisations have such policies in place.

In order to reap the full benefits of leadership training and development, such training should not be limited to executive heads of the institutions. It should cover Deans, Directors, Heads of Department as well as the leadership of students and unions in the academic enterprise. Chief Executives in tertiary education institutions should ensure that specific allocations are made in their institutions' budgets for leadership training.

The important question then is: who is responsible for developing the institution's leadership/management training plan, and where can one find the necessary information on concrete training opportunities?

There are two broad levels of responsibility as far as staff development and training are concerned, namely, the level of the individual and that of the organisation or institution within which the individual works. The employee has a responsibility for his or her own training and development. This includes:

- a self-assessment of training needs;
- reading professional journals to update oneself;
- taking part in managing one's career interests;
- looking for appropriate courses/seminars; and
- looking for sponsorship (including self- sponsorship)

The second responsibility lies with the institution, and in particular, with the Dean of Faculty, Director of an Institute or Head of Department. The institutional role in this regard would include describing what is expected for effective performance, identifying areas where improved skills will enhance performance and providing access to the best ways of developing these skills. (Schermerhorn, 1984 : 274).

This is not to downplay the role and importance of Human Resource Development Units (HRDU), training officers or other specialists which institutions must perforce have. Their duty is to assist or facilitate the development and implementation of overall training policies and not to take over the responsibilities of individuals or their heads of department in the identification of training needs and in planning and resourcing staff development and training. But the existence of HRDU's is important to facilitate the formulation of a staff development and training policy as part of the overall strategic plan of the institution and to stimulate provision for the training and development of all categories of staff to improve their performance and that of the institution.

It is important to allow the individual and the Head of Department to initiate the process of staff training for a number of reasons. First, it ensures that the training programme identifies and addresses the special needs of the individual and the department. Secondly, the staff and departments take ownership of the programme and

willingly agree to devote part of the departmental budget to this activity. Above all, the chief executive must be interested and supportive of staff training and development.

In spite of its importance, not many academic institutions have HRDU's to co-ordinate staff development and training activities for all categories of staff in the institution. Not only is the establishment of such a unit important, it is also necessary to staff it with the right personnel to enable it undertake its co-ordinating, accreditation, resourcing, facilitating, needs analysis, supporting, stimulating and networking functions.

In order not to reinvent the wheel, there are institutions which can be contacted for guidance and direction. The Association of African Universities (AAU) has for some time now been organising workshops for senior university managers in Higher Education Management and Administration and has acquired considerable experience and expertise in this regard. The Association of Commonwealth Universities based in London, United Kingdom, and the International Institute for Educational Planning in Paris, France are two other examples of institutions which have been organising training for heads of institutions and senior managers in higher education administration/management and planning.

The University of Western Cape in South Africa has established Masters and Postgraduate Diploma programmes in Higher Education Studies including Policy Analysis, Leadership and Management. The programmes offered by the Faculty of Education in collaboration with the Education Policy Unit are modular in design to accommodate flexible entry and exit points as well as short, executive-style courses.

In Ghana, the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) has, with support from the Association for Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) Working Group on Higher Education (WGHE) developed a training manual on Governance of tertiary education institutions and has been directing training workshops for Council members of tertiary education institutions. With support from Carnegie Corporation, the NCTE has also developed manuals on leadership and conflict negotiation and management skills and begun directing workshops for heads and senior managers of tertiary institutions.

Conclusion

Among other factors, massification, financial contraction and the comparative loss of autonomy, the growth of uncertainty and globalisation and the emergence of information and communication technology revolution within the tertiary education sector, argue for strong leadership skills.

Leadership means different things in different settings. But, no matter the setting, leadership is a dominant factor in a period of instability and rapid change. Among other things, leadership involves dealing with people and engaging them to achieve desirable objectives.

In the academic environment, leadership used to be almost synonymous with professorship, the apex of professional competency, when funding seemed secured, numbers were low, competition unintensive and the ICT revolution unchallenging, as it is today.

Although the academic environment has always been complex, its complexity has been complicated by the set of challenges confronting the knowledge-driven twenty-first century. What is required is not merely a set of skills to efficiently manage the *status quo.* It is, for example, no longer enough to depend on endow -

ment or public purse. Cost sharing and fee-paying which have arisen out of the present financial stringency, have meant that students and parents now exercise choices over their investment decisions about which institutions to attend and course to pursue. The emergence of private tertiary institutions has also engendered competition among institutions within the tertiary sector.

Management techniques, traditionally applicable mainly to the private sector, are increasingly creeping into the public sector, particularly academic institutions. This development calls for new attitudes and skills on the part of the leadership at all levels of the academic enterprise. In essence, new skills and different leadership styles are required to create and sustain the new academic environment. Visioning and strategic planning are becoming acceptable practices in all academic institutions. Leadership within the academic environment need to possess a range of skills which would facilitate the corporate transformation process.

While acknowledging that leadership is a complicated subject, one thing about it is clear: that is, it can be learnt or developed through practice and a diversity of experiences. The key skills to be acquired by leadership at all levels of the academic enterprise - central administration, faculty, department and student levels, have been aptly summarised by Professor Amin Rajan (2002, 33) as follows:

- Ability to inspire trust and motivation;
- Visioning;
- Ability and willingness to listen;
- Strategic thinking;
- Interpersonal communication skills;
- Understanding of core processes and products;
- Understanding of ICT as a business development tool;
- Presentational skills;

- Entrepreneurial skills;
- Confidence and self-knowledge;
- Intelligence and aptitude;
- Originality and flair;
- Analytical, diagnostic; and
- Problem-solving skills

What remains is for Chief Executives to ensure that leadership training and development is undertaken as a key activity of the academic enterprise and that a budget is also attached to this activity.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Adamolekun, N.K., (1985) "University Administration as a Profession" in "The University Administrator", Bondunde Bankole (Ed), University Press Ltd, Ibadan.

Ajayi Ade J.F., Goma, K.H Lamek and Ampah Johnson (1996), "The African Experience with Higher Education", The Association of African Universities.

Assimeng. Max. (1999), Social structure of Ghana, a Study in Persistence and Change (second edition) Ghana Publishing Corporation, Accra

Association of Commonwealth Universities Bulletin of Current Documentation No. 135, 1998, p 5.

Baty, Phil," (2002) Cambridge dilutes democratic governance" in Times Higher Education Supplement. February 8, p.56

Bowden, Lord (1977) The Role of Universities in the Modern World. A paper delivered at the R.P. Baffour Memorial Lectures, Kumasi, University of Science and Technology (Now Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology)

Brody, Ralph (1993) Effectively Managing Human Service Organisations, Sage Publications

Carnegie Corporation Reporter Vol. 2 No. 1 Fall 2002 New York, p 33 - 39

Cook, Petra, (2002) Leadership : the Challenge for all? In Professional Manager, Vol. 11, Issue 2, March 2002, p 9.

Cowen, Zelman, (1975) "The Governance of the Universities", in Universities in the Western World. Paul Seabury (Ed), the Free Press, New York,USA.

Daft, Richard L, (1999), Leadership Theory and Practice, the Dryden Press, Orlando

Daily Graphic, March 13, 2002

Daily Graphic, June 25, 2001

Dia, Mamadou (1996) , Africa's Management in the 1990's and Beyond. Reconciling Indigenous and Transplanted Institutions, the World Bank, Washington D.C.

Effah, Paul, (1998) "The Training and Development of Academic Librarians in Ghana" in "Library Management" Vol. 19 No. 1, MCB University Press, Bradford, West Yorkshire, p 37.

Fadahunsi, Olu, (1985) "The Challenge of University Administration in contemporary Nigeria" in "The University Administrator" Bodunde Bankole (Ed) University Press Ltd, Ibadan

Haggai, John Edmund (1986) "Lead On: Leadership That Endures in a Changing World". Haggai Institute.

Hagan, G.P. (1991) "Nkrumah's Leadership Style - An Assessment from a Cultural Uni39mrw0.1429 Tc(l) Tj" Bodund26 Tc(e) T1.023 Tw0.122

Hanly, Charles, (1975) "Problems of Academic Freedom in Canada" in Universities in the Western World. Paul Seabury (Ed), the Free Press, New York, USA.

Jones, Keith and Celia Whitechurch, (1991) "On Being Entrepreneurial" in Universities in the Market Place Paul Temple and Celia Whitechurch, (Eds) Conference of University Administrators (CUA)

Kerr, Clark (1963) "The Uses of the University", Cambridge, Massachusetts, Harvard University Press, p 38.

Kossoff, Leslie L, (1999) Executive Thinking Davies-Black Publishing, Palo Alto, U.S.A.

Kwapong, A.A. (1970), "Libraries in University Education in Ghana" in Ghana Library Journal, Vol. 4 No. 2, p 45.

(1980) Address at the inaugural meeting of the Ghana Association of University Administrators held at Legon, Accra, August, p 6.

Lockwood, Geoffrey, (1985) "Universities as Organisations" in Universities: The Management Challenge. Geoffrey Lockwood and John Davies (Eds), SRHE and NFER -Nelson, Windsor, Berkshire p 34

Lucas, Erika, (2002), "Goal getter" in "Professional Manager" Vol 11, issue 3, May 2002, p. 16

Mckenna, Eugene, (1994) Business Psychology and Organisational Behaviour. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Ltd.

Ncayiyana, J. Daniel and Hayward, M. Fred (1999) "Effective Governance: Guide for Council Members of Universities and Technikons". Centre for Higher Education Transformation, South Africa

Odumosu, T. Peter, (1973) "Government and University in a Developing Society". A Public Lecture delivered during the second phase of the University of Ife Tenth Anniversary Celebrations, University of Ife, Ibadan, Abiodum, Printing Works (October).

Pritchard, Rosalind, (2001) University Leadership: The Role of the Chief Executive, in Higher Education Quarterly Vol. 55 No. 2, April 2001, p. 227.

Quirke, Bill (2002) "Managers must convey the big picture" in "Professional Manager" Vol. 11, Issue 3, May 2002, p. 32.

Rajan, Amin (2002) "Meaning of Leadership in 2002" in Professional Manager Vol. 11 Issue 2 op cit.

Robbins, Stephen P, (1998), Organisational Behaviour: Concepts. Controversies, applications (Eighth Edition) Prentice-Hall International New Jersey.

,

Schermerhorn J.R. Jr (1984), Management for Productivity. 3rd ed, John Wiley & Sons, New York, NY

Seltzer, J (1989) Developing an Effective Leadership Style. In L.E. Miller (Ed), Managing Human Service Organisations , New York, Quorum

Stewart, Dorothy, M, (1992) Handbook of Management Skills. Gower Publishing Company Ltd, Hants, England.

Stewart, Rosemary (1979), The Reality of Management. Pan Books Ltd, London.

The Economist, January 11 - 17, 2003

Times Higher Education Supplement, February 22, 2002

University of Cape Coast (1988) Administrative Manual. GPC Tema Press, Tema, Ghana

University of Manchester, (1991), Manual for Heads of Department

University of Science and Technology Kumasi (1986) Manual of Administration of the Academic Department. February 1986, University Press, Kumasi

Wasser, Henry, "The University: Does it have a Future?" President's Lecture, the CUNY Academy for Humanities and Sciences, delivered on May 6 1996 at the City University of New York, USA.

Whethen, David, A and Cameron, Kim, S, (1998) Developing Management Skills. 4th Edition, Addison - Wesley Educational Publishers Inc.

World Bank, (2002) Constructing Knowledge Societies : New Challenges for Tertiary Education. Washington D.C.