

An analysis of leadership practices and leadership development in Pakistan universities

Asia Zulfqar

**Promotor:
Prof. Dr. Martin Valcke**

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Proefschrift ingediend tot het behalen van de
academische graad van Doctor in de
Pedagogische Wetenschappen

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Preface

In the name of Allah, the most beneficent, the most merciful.

“Dream is not what you see while sleeping; it is something what does not let you sleep”

I believe, dreaming is a powerful motivator to make your wishes a reality. One of the biggest dreams of my life to have PhD from a foreign university is now coming true. Courtesy to my parent university Bahauddin Zakariya University Multan (Pakistan) for awarding me this prestigious scholarship and providing me a chance to do something for my country. But the road to make this dream a reality was never easy.

The journey started four years ago, when I was securing admission in one of the top 200 universities of the world proved to be as difficult as winning the scholarship. I was told that it's an uphill task and it was. One fine morning, I received a questionnaire from Ghent University. I was running out of time and in utter desperation, I sent an email to the head of Department of Educational Studies. Keeping in view of my toil during the last few months, I was astonished at a quick reply from **Prof. Dr. Martin Valcke**. It was my first contact with him, and since then I found him an excellent teacher with unbelievable wits. From day one till now, it was his continuous support and guidance that enabled me to complete this work. After every meeting with him, I used to feel invincible strength within me. I would like to mention his 'drawings' for explanation of my work and I still have all those drawings. As a researcher, his vision can only be fancied. He involves himself in research to such extent that all research activities seem sacred. Another amazing aspect of his personality is his sense of humor that make things interesting. As a complete professional, he is matchless but above all, he is an absolute personification of "love for humanity." He is simply an exceptional person. This is not all how I wanted to describe him. This is not all, too, that I am unable to find words to express my respect for him. Perhaps, man has still to devise such vocabulary that can convey my gratitude for him. He deserves to be followed, and I'm very much sure that intentionally or unintentionally, I will want to be like him in many respects.

I am highly indebted to my co-supervisor Prof. Dr. Geert Devos for his scholarly guidance and moral support. I would also pay my gratitude to Guidance Committee Members, Prof. Dr. Jeroen Huisman and Prof. Dr. Dirk Van Damme for their intellectual input to improve my work. I am also thankful to Prof. Dr. Melissa Tuytens and Prof. Dr. Kris Rutten for their help in qualitative data analyses.

I am also obliged to secretariat office staff, Inge Perisman, Rebecca van der Wiele and Annick Lippens who are always there to facilitate me with quick and efficient solutions. I would also appreciate the moral and academic support of my office and department colleagues, Evelien Van Laere, Natalie Pareja Roblin, Bénédicte Vanblaere, Debbie De Neve, Diya Dou, Muhamad Nanang Suprayogi, Ngoc Thuy Thai, Zhuo Cui, Jessica Ercilia Castillo Nuñez, Laura Muniz Rodriguez, Abid Shahzad, and Zulaikha.

My heartiest thanks to Miriam Tratsaert and Brigitte De Craene who were so concerned about my health and loneliness and tried to provide me maximum comfort. I found them nearer to me in the times of depression and hardships. I am really thankful for their kind support and care.

I would like to say my heartiest thanks to Prof. Dr. Ahmed Farooq Shah for his continuous support and contribution to make this challenging study a success. I am also thankful to Prof. Dr. Mohammad Zafarullah, and Prof. Dr. Uzma Quraishi for their unconditional support in my research. I also appreciate the efforts of teachers and supporting staff who either helped me or participated in the intervention study.

I am highly grateful to my mentor Zulfiqar Ali Bhatti for his untiring support; he was the witness of my all hardships and sufferings. Whenever, I share my depression with him I get solutions to my problems and feel protected. A big thanks to his calm listening and backing.

I am highly indebted to my all friends and cousins who always stood with me in good and bad times. They always said don't worry, "you can do it," and this sentence raised my motivation. A special thanks to Dr. Razia Shabana and my cousins who have been with me in data collection. I am also thankful to my sisters, brother in laws, nieces, loving uncle and aunts. This innovative research was not possible without their prayers and support.

Last but not the least, I would like to pay gratitude to my parents, for their boundless prayers and best wishes. These four years were the real test of their patience. Although, they do not have much knowledge about my PhD, but they always showed their concerns about my work. But, their support, prayers, and love are infinite. Abbu (Papa) and Ammi (Mama) thank you so much for everything.

At the end, I would like to dedicate my work to all martyr children of Army Public School, Peshawar who went to school and never returned.

*Asia
Ghent, October 2016*

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General introduction

Chapter 1: General introduction

RO 1

To determine the nature of leadership and decision-making in Pakistan public and private universities by adopting TL and PDM.

RO 2

To investigate the relationship between TL – PDM and teachers' SE beliefs, IM and JS in Pakistan public and private universities.

RO 3

To study the impact of a TL intervention on leaders in Pakistan universities.

Chapter 2

Leadership and decision-making practices in public versus private universities

Chapter 3
TL and PDM and related outcomes

Chapter 4
Leadership development in higher education

Chapter 5
Evaluation of a leadership development intervention

Chapter 6
Sustainable leadership development in higher education

Chapter 7: General discussion and conclusion

Chapter 1

General introduction

Abstract

The first chapter presents the general introduction to the research theme of the present dissertation. It outlines the conceptual framework adopted as the starting point for the different studies, elaborated in more detail in the subsequent chapters. This introductory chapter especially focuses on the conceptualization of leadership and decision-making in general and transformational leadership, participative decision-making, and leadership development in higher education Pakistan in particular. Next, on the basis of the research context and conceptual framework, specific research questions are being framed. This chapter further provides an overview of the research design of all the studies in view of particular research questions, aligned with the general research objective. The first chapter concludes with an overview of the dissertation.

Introduction

Research context

Quality, merit-oriented, equitable and efficient higher education is crucial for making the dream of a knowledge-based economy to come true. Higher education can contribute in the attainment of related social goals in developing civic responsibility, social cohesion, and a tolerant society (Ministry of Education, 2009). With changing society, also higher education is pressured for change. This explains, why higher education underwent significant reforms during the last two decades in response to changes in governmental policies, growing demands for higher educational quality, rapid economic developments, demands for increased access to higher education, internationalization, and globalization (Abbas, Yousafzai, & Khattak, 2015; Malik, 2014).

Pakistan – a lower middle income developing country - spends a little more than 2% of its GDP on education (Ministry of Education, 2015). This is a low figure to be able to respond to the increasing demand for higher education. It is also very low compared to neighboring developing countries; even by regional standards. Nevertheless, an expansion and transformation has been observed in Pakistan higher education (Higher Education Commission, 2010). This expansion and transformation occurred not only in view of meeting

the increasing demand for higher education, but also because of national goals to develop a knowledge-based economy and to be able to compete in a global economy context (Ministry of Education, 2015).

The recent evolution in Pakistan higher education has resulted in the establishment of new institutes. This is reflected in the increase of the number of public universities at the one hand, but on the other hand especially in the number of private universities (Midterm development framework, 2010).

Though private universities are independent of governmental policies, yet they are bound to follow the quality standards set by Higher Education Commission (HEC) in terms of teaching research. Private universities are also partially funded by HEC in research, faculty development programs, library, and infrastructure by fulfilling the specific terms and conditions. However, there are differences between public and private universities in terms of faculty hiring, student evaluation, and administration, etc. These differences between public and private universities are discussed in detail in chapter 2 of this dissertation. (In chapter 3, considering the focus of journal, we used the term profit versus non-profit universities instead of public and private universities).

Pakistan higher education also developed linkages and synergies with international universities. This resulted in inviting international universities to establish teaching centers and sub-campuses in Pakistan and to launch split-degree programs. The establishment of the Knowledge Park in Lahore (Punjab Province) is but one example of the latter strategy. This expansion in public and private sector universities created a challenging situation (Subhani, Akif, Osman, & Fouzia, 2012). Among others, literature (Subhani, Akif, Osman, & Fouzia, 2012; Nadeem, Imran, Shah, & Sarwar, 2008; Haider, 2008) highlight the following critical problems in the Pakistan higher education sector:

- There is a serious challenge as to the benchmarking of tertiary education, considering internationally recognized standards. Related to this, a confusion about the accredited nature of the programs, and weak monitoring of the programs has been observed (Nadeem, Imran, Shah, & Sarwar, 2008). To deal with such problems, a series of measures has been taken by the Higher Education Commission (HEC), such as alignment of academic degrees with international norms, curriculum revisions, the establishment of the higher education quality assurance agency, the development of quality assurance units in all

higher education institutes (Higher Education Commission, 2010). But the problem persists because the standards have been adapted from developed countries; questioning the fit with the Pakistan context.

- The new context challenges the nature and quality of the academic staff. A program was launched to equip faculty with better qualification, introducing scholarship programs, developing linkages with international universities. Also, a Tenure Track System was introduced, with a strong emphasis on academic research (Haider, 2008). Despite these initiatives, there is a lot of loopholes and gaps in the implementation of these programs, e.g., involving tenured staff in administration resulting in a decreased focus on research, a large investment in foreign scholarship programs but a weak monitoring of these scholars who often do not return to their home universities, etc. (Nawab & Bhatti, 2011; Sial, Jilani, Imran, & Zaheer, 2011).
- To develop the recognition and international ranking of universities, a lot of investment has been made to upgrade infrastructure and labs of the universities. But, when it comes to teaching and research related standards, HEC puts forward rather soft criteria. For instance, when it comes to valuing research output, the international aspirations conflict with accepting local and national research publications (Haider, 2008). Although a substantial increase in research output can be observed, this output is below par when its quality is compared to the output standards of international universities (Abbas et al., 2015). Accepting lower teaching and research standards compromises the hiring of high-quality staff (Nawab & Bhatti, 2011). This could be one of reasons that why Pakistan higher education is hardly present on the map of world ranking universities.
- Last but not the least, the challenges put forward for higher education require the engagement of key stakeholders. As such, leadership and decision-making processes are of utmost importance. To enhance leadership and management skills of vice-chancellors, a series of international programs has been implemented (Midterm Development Framework, 2010). But, considering the limited nature of the programs and the scale of the problem, leadership in universities remains critical. Authors refer to inefficient governance, excessive powers in the hands of individual vice-chancellors and registrars, internal and external pressures, and this in a context of political and economic instability (Subhani et al., 2012). Iqbal and Iqbal (2011) especially stress – in this context - the high

political pressure to control education and to interfere in academic decisions in higher education. This distorts the status and image of the institutions, creates tension in the work environment. This was already reflected in the UNESCO (2000) when it identified critical features of higher education in developing countries. They cited as a main challenge the involvement of political elements in the education system. This seems especially true for Pakistan higher education. Higher education systems should be insulated from undue influences by political elements in educational affairs and to ensure the impartial leadership.

To summarize, Pakistan higher education challenges are a function of multiple factors, but we focus in the present doctoral dissertation on the key factor of leadership and decision-making. Especially in the context of changing society demands, upgrading quality criteria, and enhanced academic standards, the role of academic leaders is imperative in steering the universities into the right direction. At the core of this, is sound decision-making (Nadeem et al., 2008). Leaders make decisions to implement policies. Their decisions influence all stakeholders, e.g., teachers, students, and society. Thus, universities need to develop a more strategic context for leadership and decision-making in periods of rapid change (Subhani et al., 2012). Universities need to re-think and re-design their policies and priorities to address their problems with the help of efficient and competent leaders, who can bring higher education and society to a higher level. Excluding prejudiced political interests from the operation of a higher education system helps to safeguard meritocratic decision-making, a hallmark of effective higher education systems (UNESCO, 2000).

This brings us to the topic of “leadership” and “decision-making”, the key concepts in this dissertation. The general aim of this dissertation is three-fold:

- (1) To understand the nature of leadership and decision-making in public and private universities in Pakistan,
- (2) To study the relationship between leadership and decision-making and how this is connected to university teachers’ motivation, self-efficacy beliefs, and job satisfaction, and
- (3) To determine the impact of a leadership development intervention on university leaders.

In the following sections, we will elaborate in more detail the theoretical background and underlying assumptions of the present dissertation.

Conceptual and theoretical background

Leadership

Leadership is one of social science's most examined phenomena (Bass & Riggio, 2008). Leadership represents a complex and diverse topic (Day, 2000). Due to the complex nature of leadership, a specific and widely accepted definition of leadership is not available and – according to some authors - might even never be found (Day & Antonakis, 2012). Nevertheless, most scholars agree that leadership can be defined in terms of:

- (a) An influence-related interaction - and its resultant outcomes - between a leader and followers and;
- (b) How this influencing process is explained by;
 - a leader's dispositional characteristics and behavior,
 - follower's perceptions and attributions of the leader, and
 - the context in which the influencing process occurs (Bass & Riggio, 2008; Liden & Antonakis, 2009).

More than one hundred years of leadership research resulted in a voluminous body of knowledge, reflecting a series of paradigm shifts. Leadership is and has been an evolving construct that reflects ongoing changes and challenges (Bryman, 1992). At a time when leadership research lacked theoretical advances or insights, the work of Bass and his associates (Bass, 1985a; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Hater & Bass, 1988) promoted new leadership orientations, as reflected in visionary and charismatic (transformational and transactional) leadership theories (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987). This reignited interest in leadership research in general (Bryman, 1992; Hunt, 1999) and specific schools of thought in particular (Day & Antonakis, 2012).

Academic leadership models

These models remain firmly focused on the individual 'leader', treating followers as somewhat passive or subservient in the process. While the move to 'transformational leadership' (Bass, 1985a; Burns, 1978) in the 1980s and 1990s went some way to recognizing the need to engage

followers. Among the educational leadership models, transformational leadership has been overwhelmingly used in educational research over the last three decades (Hallinger, 2003).

Recently, Bacon (2014) and also Taylor (2013) found in his study that the time is ripe for a paradigm shift towards a more collegial approach appropriately updated to 21st century.

Moreover, Bolden et al. (2012) discussed the model of a university as a community of scholars with a highly democratic and decentralized process of decision-making, representing leadership as a shared responsibility.

Hallinger (2003) explained that the shift in leadership literature towards adopting new leadership models should be consistent with the trends and demands linked to educational reforms. The new models include approaches labeled as “empowerment, shared, distributed, and charismatic leadership” (Bligh, Pearce, & Kohles, 2006; Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Chen, Kanfer, Kirkman, Allen, & Rosen, 2007).

This shift can be linked to the research findings of Ramsden (1998), Cowan and Heywood (2001), and more recently Jones (2013), who put forward that leadership should be shared and distributed rather than being based on a hierarchy. This evolution in academic leadership roles has been considered ‘second order’ changes as it primarily aims at changing the organizations’ normative structure (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). In this context of “change”, the literature strongly emphasizes the notion of transformational leadership to be the best model for understanding and developing general principles for leaders in the higher education sector (Bryman, 2007).

This proliferation in specific leadership orientations in the literature is in particular interesting given the context of the present doctoral dissertation. While we focus on higher education, we look for leadership approaches that fit this particular setting: instructional or academic leadership. In addition, we focus on leadership approaches that fit the Pakistan higher education context that – as stated above – reflects multiple challenges in view of educational innovations, quality demands, increasing access demands, ranking, etc. This introduces a focus on transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership

Burns (1978) initially introduced the concept of transformational leadership. Transformational leadership entails binding the leader and the follower, together in a mutual and continuing

pursuit of a higher purpose. A transformational leader - in an academic community - effectively communicates the mission and vision of the university in relation to the task at hand. Transformational leaders foster an environment in which staff can contribute and collaborate (Ramsden, 1998). The essence of transformational leadership is that leaders lift people to extraordinary heights (Boal & Bryson, 1988), motivate followers to do more than expected (Yukl, 1989) and push them to perform beyond levels of expectations (Bass, 1985b).

Transformational leadership is a multidimensional concept (Bass & Riggio, 2008; Burns, 1978). This could be a reason that authors are also criticizing this leadership approach (Van Knippenberg, 2013). *(We will come back to this discussion in the last chapter of the dissertation)*. Furthermore, a lot of attempts to define the concept have been put forward; resulting in revisions of earlier definitions to determine to a better extent its composing behaviors or dimensions. In Table 1, we bring together a series of definitions for transformational leadership by mapping the different behaviors as distinguished by the different authors. The analysis shows how the approach of (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990) can be considered as a full model integrating the variety in behaviors as distinguished by the different authors.

General introduction

Table 1. Behaviors of existing models of transformational leadership

Behavioral Components	House (1977)	Bradford and Bass (1985b) Cohen (1984)	Bennis and Nanus (1985)	Tichy and DeVanna (1986)	Conger Kanungo (1987)	Kouzes and Posner (1987)
*Identify and articulate a vision	Provide an appealing vision	Determine and build a common vision	Charismatic leader behavior	Management of attention through vision	Recognize a need for change and create a new vision	Advocate an appealing yet unconventional vision
*Providing an appropriate role model	Set an example for followers to imitate		Charismatic leader behavior			Model the way
*Fostering the acceptance of group goals	Communicate high expectations of followers	Build a shared responsibility team	Inspirational leader behavior	Work to develop commitment and trust	Team build to gain support for new vision	Enable others to act
*High-performance expectations						
*Provide individualized support			Individualized consideration			
Recognize and accomplish					Be sensitive to the needs of the followers	Encourage the heart
*Intellectual stimulation			Intellectual stimulation			
Other	Behave to arouse individual motives	Continuously develop the skills of individual	Charismatic leader behavior		Behave with confidence and enthusiasm	Encourage the heart

**Adapted from the work of Podsakoff et al. (1990).*

The six behaviors, listed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) are therefore the backbone of this concept in the present dissertation.

Behaviors of transformational leadership

In the different studies, we will consequently return to the six central behaviors distinguished in relation to transformational leadership:

Articulating a vision

Transformational leaders can make a difference by envisaging the future and creating an ideal and unique image of the organization. They inspire such a vision in their followers with a positive and hopeful outlook (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). This helps creating a shared culture for individuals and the group to work together for the organization (Hickman, 1997).

Providing an appropriate role model

Kouzes and Posner (1995) explained this concept as modeling, implying that leaders go first. Transformational leaders create a program of excellence and set the example for others. They believe that consistency between words and deeds builds their credibility as transformational leaders. Transformational leaders help followers to discover who they are and what role they can play in the organization to achieve its mission.

Fostering the acceptance of group goals

Fostering the acceptance of group goals is likely to promote collaboration, cooperation, and harmony among group members, encouraging them to be team players (Schaubroeck, Lam, & Cha, 2007). Leaders also inspire, motivate, and foster harmony in their team members for achieving the shared vision (Bass, Waldman, Avolio, & Bebb, 1987; Bennis & Nanus, 1985).

High-performance expectations

Successful leaders expect the best from their employees and themselves. For people to achieve high performance, leaders must provide clear directions, feedback, and encouragement (Weichun, Sosik, Riggio, & Yang, 2012). Here, the leader raises followers' expectations and inspires action by reassuring them that they can achieve these ambitious goals. The motivational impact from transformational leaders raises followers' interest to perform beyond the level of expectations (Bass, 1985a). Bass and Avolio (1990) theorized that transformational leadership creates employees who are selfless, faithful, and connected to the organization (Bass, 1985b).

Providing individualized support

In order to foster supportive relationships, transformational leaders keep lines of communication open so that followers feel free to share ideas and leaders also offer direct recognition of the unique contributions of each follower (Bass, 1985a). Rafferty and Griffin (2004) stated that a leader provides individual socio-emotional support, developing followers to realize their highest level of potential and empowerment. The supportive relationship helps – in addition – to build trust between leader and followers (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Tichy & DeVanna, 1986). Bass (1985b) suggests leaders encourage followers to go beyond their self-interest and help them looking for the good of the team and the organization.

Intellectual stimulation

This leadership behavior aims to increase followers' interest in and awareness of problems, developing their ability and inclination to think about problems in new ways (Bass, 1985a). The leader must be able to determine the intellectual capacities of subordinates and decide the level of tasks that can be assigned to subordinates (Northouse, 2007).

Outcomes of transformational leadership

Transformational leaders are expected to change the status quo in their organizations by demonstrating the appropriate behaviors, discussed in a general way above. Transformational leadership has been associated with a range of outcomes in leaders and in followers (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Eisenbeiss, Van Knippenberg, & Boerner, 2008). We list a number of particular research outcomes:

- House (1977); Runhaar, Sanders, and Yang (2010) focuses on the impact on higher levels of self-efficacy that motivates followers to perform beyond the expectations of the leader, thus leading to higher job commitment and job satisfaction.
- Transformational leaders encourage followers to think critically and look for new approaches to do their jobs (Bass, 1985b; Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013).
- Other authors could show how transformational leadership behaviors create a trust and loyalty on the part of followers (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007; Creed & Miles, 1996).

-
- Trice and Beyer (1993) Liu, Siu, and Shi (2010) stress how transformational leadership reinforces an established sets of beliefs, shared values, practices, and norms within the organization.
 - Transformational leadership has been linked to employees' commitment to the organization (Barling et al., 1996; Shin, Seo, Shapiro, & Taylor, 2015), job satisfaction (Aydin, Sarier, & Uysal, 2013), creative performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Gilmore, Hu, Tetrick, & Zaccaro, 2013).
 - Barling et al. (1996); Dvir, Eden, Avolio, and Shamir (2002) identified how transformational leaders had a direct impact on followers' empowerment, morality, and motivation (Wang & Howell, 2010).
 - Researchers stress transformational leaders influence and motivate their employees in such a way this has a positive impact on the organization (Jang, Reeve, & Deci, 2010; Tre'panier, Fernet, & Austin, 2012).

In the context of the present dissertation, we build on this list and center on the outcomes variables – in university teachers - stressed to a larger extent in more recent studies.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy beliefs have been studied in public and private organizational research for over decades (Bandura, 2000). Bandura (1997) has defined perceived self-efficacy as “. . . beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required in managing prospective situations” (p.2). Self-efficacy beliefs influence how people think, feel, motivate themselves, and act. In this dissertation, our focus is on the organizational support from the leader's point of view. We will analyze how the leadership style enhances teachers' self-efficacy in academic settings.

Intrinsic motivation

As stated above, transformational leadership and participative decision-making are linked to motivation. Ryan, Mims, and Koestner (1983) suggested that the controlling aspect of rewards decreases intrinsic motivation (see e.g., Rummel & Feinberg, 1988). However, transformational leaders are known to empower rather than control their followers (Kanungo & Mendonca, 1998). In the context of leadership and decision-making research, most authors center on intrinsic motivation as defined by Deci and Ryan (1985). Latter, Deci and Ryan,

(1985) introduced the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) as a humanistic theory of motivation. Self-determination theory presumes that humans are “inherently motivated to grow and achieve and will fully commit to and even engage in uninteresting tasks when their meaning and value is understood” (ibid, p.77) (Stone, Deci, & Ryan, 2009). From this, three core psychological needs are deduced:

First, *autonomy* refers to the need to act with a sense of volition, choice, and self-determination.

Second, individuals have a basic need for *competence*, the idea that a person can interact with its environment and is of influence of important outcomes.

Third, when *relatedness* is high, people experience satisfying and supportive social relations (Deci & Ryan, 1985). These needs promote autonomous motivation, which means that one acts with a sense of volition, engagement, the experience of choice and this emerges from a sense of the self (Fernet, Gagne, & Austin, 2010).

Job satisfaction

Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job and job experience. In other words, it emphasizes the relationship between what a person wants from the job and what the job offers. The education mission seems to be dependent on the way teachers feel about their work and how satisfied they are with it.

The three above variables – in academic staff - will be considered when studying the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors in the Pakistan higher education context.

Leadership development in higher education

Available empirical research underpins the observation that transformational leadership is - universally - an effective leadership style (Bass & Riggio, 2008) also in academic organizations (Dinh et al., 2014; Gumus, Bellibas, Esen, & Gumus, 2016). Dickson, Den Hartog, and Mitchelson (2003) reiterate the findings of an earlier cross-cultural study about the generalizability of leadership theories. Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, and Dorfman (1999) “results support the hypothesis that specific aspects of

charismatic/transformational leadership are strongly and universally endorsed across cultures” (p.219).

As such, fostering the adoption of transformational leadership in a developing country context might be acceptable and be promising. Research shows that leadership matters when it comes to economic growth. Institutions with strong leaders are therefore potential contributors to the social and economic progress of developing countries. But, anecdotal evidence stresses that leadership conceptions in developing countries might be strongly influenced by cultural, social, and political factors. Mintzberg (2010) stresses this is especially true for academic leadership in developing countries. This points at the need to study leadership development in general and the development of transformational leadership in particular in a developing country context.

Another critical question is what to develop? There is an ongoing debate in the literature relating to the question whether leadership is innate: are leaders born or made? Varying positions are presented in the literature (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). If leaders are born, organizations need to adopt clear-cut selection systems. In addition, the potential for developing leaders is limited (Avolio, Avey, & Quisenberry, 2010). However, if leaders can be developed, attention must be paid to creating the conditions in which leadership can flourish (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013).

We follow the latter rationale in the present dissertation. Therefore, leadership development is the central focus of this dissertation. We designed and planned an intervention study for university leaders based on the above conceptions of transformational leadership building on the six behaviors of transformational leaders as discussed by Podsakoff et al., (1990). Authors, Bolden, Jones, Davis, & Gentle (2015) reviewing leadership development literature stress how the focus in development interventions has shifted from an emphasis on individual leader’s interest and responsibilities to the development of a shared and mutual sense of leadership.

Thus, both theory and practice suggest the need for leadership preparation programs. Within higher education, leadership development programs, therefore, reach a critical level of importance (Madsen, 2012). Though, there is growing literature focusing on leadership development (Stigmar, 2008), most literature mainly stresses the complex and multifaceted leadership development process, points at potential ways to enhance leadership development

(Day & Harrison, 2007), or shows pathways to study leadership practices (see e.g., DuBrin, 2012). But, evidence-based literature is lacking in higher education. Bush (2010) focuses on the need to develop both academic leaders and leadership capability in general. But the crucial fact, academia is not paying attention to such efforts because teaching and research is priority for university leaders and they do not have time to get training to strengthen their leadership roles (Evans, Homer, & Rayner, 2013; Morris, 2008). As described earlier, this lack of awareness can be detrimental to new leadership challenges. But the fact is, these practices are different in developed countries and in best practice organizations. They pay attention to prepare academic leaders, for example in UK, USA, and Australia they have certain leadership development centers, which mainly focus on preparing academic leaders.

Literature suggests that such organizations and leadership development centers are concerned about the effectiveness of their investment and output. As Burgoyne et al. (2009) identified in their research of UK higher education institutions, although 78% believe their investment in leadership development gives value for money, many are uncertain if this investment has had an impact. On the other hand Gmelch (2013) stressed to increase the investment in academic leadership development - deans and department chairs in US universities and colleges. Fullan (2007) considered the role of academic leaders, deans/heads are pivotal to the success of the organization, no institute can grow without the efficient performance of their middle (deans/heads) leaders. In relation to this, Bryman (2007) identified on the base of his review of the literature, the following aspects for effective leadership:

- (a) Clear sense of direction/strategic vision;
- (b) Preparing department arrangements to facilitate the direction set;
- (c) Being considerate;
- (d) Treating academic staff fairly and with integrity;
- (e) Being trustworthy and having personal integrity;
- (f) Allowing the opportunity to participate in key decisions/encouraging open communication;
- (g) Communicating well about the direction the department is going;
- (h) Acting as a role model/having credibility;

- (i) Creating a positive/collegial work atmosphere in the department;
- (j) Advancing the department's cause with respect to constituencies internal and external to the university and being proactive in doing so;
- (k) Providing feedback on performance;
- (l) Providing resources for and adjusting workloads to stimulate scholarship and research;
- (m) Making academic appointments that enhance department's reputation;

In higher education, leadership development has been strongly emphasized. Bolden et al., (2012) state this as follows: "Given that much of the theory and practice of shared leadership comes from the education sector, it is not surprising that higher education in developed countries has been at the forefront of recent developments in the field" (p.4). Drawing on the latest developments in theory and practice, this explores the question of what universities can do to develop and sustain cultures of shared leadership that prepare them for current and future challenges (Davis & Jones, 2014). Building on the work of different authors we can reiterate key dimensions that should be considered when attempting to develop leadership (Bolden et al., 2015; Packard & Jones, 2013).

Though, number of facts matter in effective leadership yet at the first step, leadership development has to be the part of the organizational vision. Once it became the integral part of the organizational strategy then organizations can think to invest in such initiatives. This is further stressed by McCauley, Williams, Gillon, and Braganza (2013); Leskiw and Singh (2007) highlighted, in best-practice organizations, leadership development practices are closely tied to the vision, values, and goals of the organizations, and that leadership development is a core part of the organizational strategic planning process. After an extensive review of the literature on best practices in organizations Leskiw and Singh (2007) identified six key areas of importance for designing an effective leadership development program:

- (a) A thorough needs assessment;
- (b) The selection of a suitable audience;
- (c) The design of an appropriate infrastructure to support the initiative;
- (d) The design and implementation of an entire learning system;
- (e) An evaluation system, and;

(f) Corresponding actions to reward success and improve on deficiencies;

This is crucial for developing a systematic leadership development programs, it requires much attention, expertise, and investment. These steps are formulation for leadership development in higher education. The effectiveness of such programs is another concern for academic policy makers. Although, it is not easy to measure the effectiveness of leadership development programs because to observe long-term impact of such programs needs investment and systematic planning.

This is already endorsed by Allio (2005) who stressed, it is important that leadership developers first establish a metric for assessing leadership effectiveness, and then design experiments that can establish a causal or statistically significant relationship between training initiatives and leadership competency. It is also necessary to develop a better understanding of the conditions or contextual factors needed to enable the development of effective leaders. In their white paper on effective leadership development programs in Europe, Eckert, Isaakyan, and Mulhern (2015), identified the seven steps of effective leadership development programs. Next, Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) four level model of effective leadership development is also popular in designing leadership development programs.

Decision-making

An important hallmark of leadership is decision-making (Mumford, Friedrich, Caughron, & Byrne, 2007; Tichy & Bennis, 2007). Lipham (1974) defined decision-making as a process in which “awareness of a problematic state of a system, influenced by information and values, is reduced to competing alternatives among which a choice is made, based on perceived outcomes states of the system” (p.155). We can distinguish three key dimensions or decision stages in this process: how a decision is made, decision content; what a decision deals with; and decision involvement, who participates in making a decision.

Decision-making is a complex phenomenon in organizations (Towler, 2010). But, decision-making seems mostly dependent on the leadership style (Freedman, 2009; Rowe & Mason, 1986; Scott & Bruce, 1995). Leaders affect the organization through their decisions, and their decisions influence the organizational strategy, organizational change, and workforce structure; e.g., hiring new employees or launching new programs, developing infrastructure, and developing new policies (Scott, Coates, & Anderson, 2008; Towler, 2010). Such decisions can obviously affect people in profound ways.

A variety of decision models and theories are available and have evolved over time (Scott & Bruce, 1995). Classical theorists relied heavily on hierarchy one-way command structure, and top-down decision-making (Fayol, 1996; Taylor, 1996; Weber, 1968). In later years, in response to the changing and complex needs of contemporary society, collaboration for achieving organizational goals was getting valued (Friend & Cook, 1996). This explains the shift towards participative decision-making (Vroom & Jago, 1990).

But the origin of participative decision-making was already expressed at an earlier stage. Follett (1996), building on studies from the early 1930s, demonstrated that workers adopt strong feelings of belongingness. This pushed Miles (1965) to suggest creating opportunities for workers to share their expertise and creativity to improve decision-making. These ideas have been retained in recent organizational literature, following which members of organizations are encouraged to channel, cultivate and learn from each other. Leaders, therefore, have been encouraged to move from traditional top-down management practices to more horizontally structured practices allowing types of shared decision-making (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; Shedd, 1987).

Participative decision-making

The former section illustrated the move towards participative decision-making in the literature and management practices. Participative decision-making (PDM) is the extent to which leaders allow or encourage followers to participate in organizational decision-making (Probst, 2005). According to Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, and Jennings (1988) the format of participative decision-making could be formal or informal. In addition, the degree of participation could range from zero to 100% at different participative stages (Black & Gregersen, 1997).

Available definitions of participative decision-making are diverse. Some authors indicate the concept remains confusing due to its multi-dimensional nature (Brouillette, 1997; Somech, 2005). Already starting with Lewin (1947), PDM researchers started exploring different dimensions of PDM (Lewin, 1968). Locke and Schweiger (1979) identified six of these dimensions of PDM (e.g., rationale, structure, form, issues, decision processes, and degree of involvement). Cotton et al. (1988) also identified six, but slightly different dimensions, such as:

- (a) Participation in work decisions;
- (b) Consultative participation;
- (c) Short-term participation;
- (d) Informal participation;
- (e) Employee ownership, and;
- (f) Representative participation;

The latter also illustrates how participative decision-making is closely related to leadership as adopting decision-making procedures allows other people to influence leader's decisions (Yukl, 1989). These six behaviors can clearly linked to academic culture. But due to its diversified behaviors authors criticized the decision process and the impact of those decisions on staff in resultant to adopting participative decision-making. (*We will discuss the critical elements of this approach in the last chapter of the dissertation*).

Academic settings are well-known for including staff in decision-making processes (Sukirno & Siengthai, 2011). Academic leaders often deploy strategies to involve their employees via committees, a senate and task forces (DeNardis, 2001). The key to success in an academic environment seems also to depend very much on one's ability to recognize how they can contribute to the institutional goals (McCann, 2011). Staff participation in academic decisions enhances communication and the perceived quality of work life. It also affects a sense of responsibility, develops a shared culture, and invokes organizational commitment (Lipman, 1997). Staff involvement in decision-making also creates opportunities for instructional improvement (Mualuko, Mukasa, & Judy, 2009) and better classroom performance (Kadri, Alwi, & Hashim, 2009). Scholars and practitioners believe that academic institutes cannot move or grow without teamwork (Dee & Henkin, 2001).

Leaders who involve teachers in the decision-making process aim at generating social capacities, improving the quality of decisions (Scully, Kirkpatrick, & Locke, 1995), and enhancing teacher motivation (Taylor & Tashakkori, 1997). Academic leaders are considered being responsible – when align the strategic goals and mission of the institute – for ensuring staff is not lost in this process. Participative decision-making also helps institutions to cope with changing demands of society. To transform academic organizations into “empowered organizations”, leaders need to adopt participative decision-making (McCann, 2011).

Participative decision-making and related outcomes

Participative decision-making affects leaders and followers in a large number of ways. A significant body of PDM related research is available documenting empirical studies about its outcomes (Scott-Ladd, Travaglione, & Marshall, 2006). In the former paragraphs, we already referred explicitly and implicitly to such impact. PDM has been reported to make employees feel their superiors treat them with fairness (Jung & Avolio, 2000; Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999), consideration (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), respect, and dignity (Bijlsman & Bunt, 2003), which are conducive to a high level of trust in their superior.

Though the general PDM-related research presents a convincing picture, the results of empirical research involving teachers and academic organizations is less clear (Parnell & Crandall, 2001). An early review of the literature helped establishing a positive link between PDM and teachers' job satisfaction (Bogler & Nir, 2012; Taylor & Tashakkori, 1997). Later reviews established a link with job performance, teacher turnover, educational innovation, and organizational behavior (Bogler, 2001; Fernet et al., 2010). Past research mainly focused on participatory decision-making as a motivational technique, as a way to raise job satisfaction (Durham, Knight, & Locke, 1997). In educational settings, the literature suggests that participative decision-making promotes two motivational mechanisms: teacher empowerment and organizational commitment (Somech, 2010).

Participation in academic decision-making has the potential of creating an environment where teachers feel valued to contribute to school goals. It is expected to increase their sense of self-efficacy and their professional fulfillment (Harris, 2004). Participatory approaches provide teachers with the opportunity to be involved in and exert influence over decision-making processes and as a consequence to enhance their self-determination (Wilson & Coolican, 1996). Moreover, teacher involvement in decision-making ensures information distribution for making decisions about successful teaching. According to researchers, this enhances again teacher self-efficacy and self-determination (Blase & Blase, 1996), or internal motivation (Probst, 2005; Randolph, 1995).

This short summary of empirical research underpinning the importance of participative decision-making shows how a number of key variables – already discussed in connection to transformational leadership – resurface in the context of PDM: self-efficacy, job satisfaction,

and motivation. This is not surprising given the strong interrelationship between this leadership approach and PDM. This is tackled in the next section.

The relationship between transformational leadership and participative decision-making

Above, we have already referred to a strong theoretical rationale to explain how transformational leaders encourage their followers to work together and give them autonomy (Fletcher, 2004; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Lontos, 1992; McCann, 2011; Pearce, 2004). Participative leadership thus implies in a rather straightforward way that leaders share decisions with team members.

Empowered staff in decision-making processes is thus an indicator of transformational leadership (Schuster, 1994). Such leaders collaborate with staff in defining goals, reducing teacher isolation, supporting change, and fostering delegation and active communication (Lontos, 1992). Academic leadership tends to be collegial, otherwise, it would be difficult to run a department or faculty. As commented by Leithwood, (1992), a key goal in educational settings is to develop and maintain a collaborative, professional culture.

The literature stresses how shared and participative leadership practices expect teams being involved by sharing duties and responsibilities otherwise taken up by individual central leaders (Rice, 2006). Teams often function better when leadership is shared (Carson et al., 2007; Mehra, Smith, Dixon, & Robertson, 2006). A participative climate is paramount in all shared leadership and decision-making processes (Meyers & Johnson, 2008).

As explained above, in the present dissertation we also focus on leadership development. The key features of a related intervention study will be discussed in further chapters. The reader will observe how this leadership development intervention will explicitly focus on the development of the six central behaviors of transformational leadership as presented by Podsakoff et al., (1990). We will not focus – separately - on participative decision-making. But, considering the rationale presented in this section, the connection between participative decision-making and transformational leadership is such, that we nevertheless incorporate key features of PDM in the intervention considering the nature of some of the transformational leadership behaviors.

Research objectives

Building on our introduction to the particular Pakistan research context, the theoretical and conceptual base and the research challenges that can be derived from the literature, we now present the general aim of this dissertation: to gain insight into the nature of leadership and decision-making practices adopted in Pakistan universities. Next, we aim at designing and evaluating a leadership intervention, using the lens of transformational leadership, and involving leaders from Pakistan universities. This aim is broken down into three specific research objectives that direct the different studies of this dissertation:

Research objective 1: To determine the nature of leadership and decision-making in Pakistan public and private universities by adopting transformational leadership and participative decision-making and to determine the extent to which public and private universities are different in adopting these approaches.

Research objective 2: To investigate the relationship between transformational leadership – participative decision-making and teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction in Pakistan public and private universities.

Research objective 3: To study the impact of a leadership intervention - based on transformational leadership - on leaders in Pakistan public universities.

In order to pursue these research objectives, several research designs, building on different research methods have been implemented. These are described in the next paragraphs.

Research design

In order to pursue the general research aim and the related specific research objectives mentioned above, studies - applying both quantitative and qualitative approach – have been designed and carried out. In total, five studies have been set up. Table 2 presents an overview of the chapters, the related research objectives, and the research methodology for each study (research design, sample, data collection, and data analysis techniques).

Table 2. Overview of the chapters, research objectives, research design, samples, data collection, and data analysis techniques

Chapter	Study	Research objectives	Research design and sample	Data collection method	Analysis techniques
1		General introduction (<i>Conceptual framework, research objectives, research design, and overview of the dissertation</i>)			
2	Study 1	To explore the nature of leadership and decision-making in Pakistan public and private universities.	Survey design: Leaders' interviews (n=46)	In-depth interviews	Cross-case content analysis (Nvivo)
3	Study 2	To examine the relationship between transformational leadership – participative decision-making and teachers' intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy beliefs, and job satisfaction in Pakistan public and private universities.	Survey design: Based on university teachers (n=218)	Survey	Preliminary multilevel analysis (HLM & SPSS)
4	Study 3	To study the impact of a leadership development intervention on university leaders' awareness about transformational leadership in one Pakistan public university, (Pilot version of the intervention study).	Experimental pretest-posttest design (n=9)	In-depth interviews	Path analysis (AMOS) Multiple regression analysis (SPSS) Content analysis (WeftQda)
5	Study 4	To study the impact of a leadership development intervention on university leaders' awareness about transformational leadership in two Pakistan public universities, (Main intervention study)	Quasi-experimental pretest-posttest design involving 2 experimental groups (n=25) and 2 control groups (n=12)	In-depth interviews	Content analysis (Nvivo)
6	Study 5	To check the sustainability of a leadership development intervention in two public universities through a short and long-term impact of the intervention.	Survey design: Interviews with leaders (two experimental groups, n=25) and two control groups, n=12)	In-depth interviews and case study	Content analysis (Nvivo)
7		General discussion and conclusion (<i>overview of the main results, limitations, suggestions for future research, implications of the dissertation, and final conclusions</i>)			

To achieve research objective 1, a qualitative research design was adopted to study leadership practices in both public and private universities. A semi-structured interview questionnaire based on the six behaviors of transformational leadership was developed, and additional questions were added to study the participative decision-making approaches. Data were collected from leaders of both public and private universities (N=46). Cross-case analysis was adopted as a framework for data analysis and to explore the differences in leadership and decision-making practices between public and private university leaders.

In order to meet research objective 2, a survey-based study was set up involving university teachers from public and private sector universities (N=218). Four research instruments were adopted to study the influence of leadership and decision-making on teacher self-efficacy, motivation, and job satisfaction. To determine self-efficacy, a new scale was developed. As to the data analysis, since the data are hierarchical in nature (universities, faculties, and departments), a multilevel data analysis technique was applied to check whether part of the variance in dependent variables was explained beyond the individual teacher level. This was not the case. Also, path analysis was adopted to test the complex interplay between the research variables. Weak goodness-of-fit indexes forced us to adopt linear regression techniques to analyze the data to answer the research questions.

As to the research objective 3, three qualitative studies were set up. This started with a – pilot version of an – intervention study to foster the development of behaviors aligned with transformational leadership. Leaders from a public university (N=9) participated in this pilot version of the intervention study. A detailed interview questionnaire was developed, based on the six behaviors of transformational leadership. Data were collected by setting up the interview before and after the intervention to study the potential impact of the intervention. Content analysis was carried out, focusing on the identification of indicators pointing at awareness of the six behaviors of transformational leadership. WeftQda was used to manage the qualitative data.

In study four, the leadership development intervention was repeated. In total 37 leaders – assigned to either an experimental or a control group - participated in this intervention. Pre and post-intervention interviews were conducted with participating leaders (deans and heads of faculties and departments). The revised Bloom taxonomy of learning objectives was

adopted as a framework for content data analysis to identify the levels of awareness about transformational leadership behaviors. Nvivo was used to manage the data analysis.

Study five was conducted to check the short and long-term impact of the above intervention. Participants were additionally interviewed one year after the intervention to study the “long-term impact.” Another group was interviewed three months after the intervention to study the “short-term impact. In total, data from 37 leaders from two universities are considered in this study. The same interview tool was adopted as above. The revised Bloom taxonomy of learning objectives was again used as a framework for content data analysis. Qualitative data analysis was managed through Nvivo.

Overview of the dissertation

The dissertation consists of seven chapters, of which five chapters are based on actual research articles. These chapters are preceded by this introductory chapter (chapter 1) and the dissertation completed with a general discussion and conclusion (chapter 7). Chapter 2 to chapter 6 build on empirical studies, developed as journal articles that have been published in or submitted to international ISI-indexed journals. Figure 1, represents the overall structure of the dissertation. It shows the position of the studies in view of the research objectives and illustrates how studies are interconnected. In the remaining sections of this chapter, we present the specific conceptual and theoretical base for each study and we highlight the specific elements being studied.

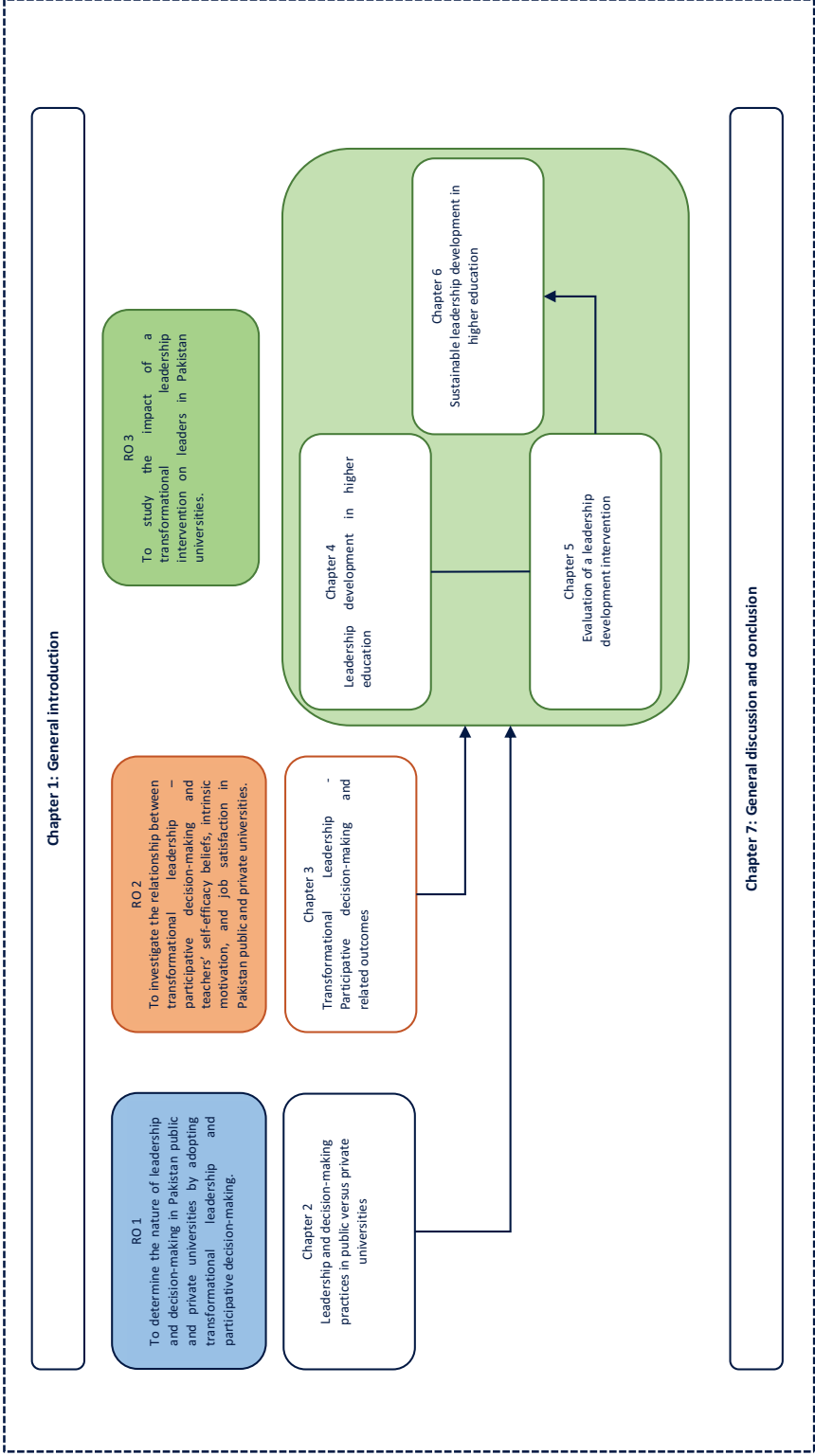


Figure 1: Graphical representation of the dissertation structure

Chapter 1: Introduction

The current chapter introduced the research context, the conceptual and theoretical base and the outline of the dissertation.

Chapter 2: Leadership and decision-making practices in public versus private universities

This first study aims at investigating the leadership and decision-making practices and how leaders in Pakistan public and private universities are different in their adoption of transformational leadership and participative decision-making. A semi-structured interview – focusing on transformational leadership and participative decision-making - was set up involving 46 deans and heads of different faculties and departments from two public and two private universities. Significant differences were observed between public and private universities in view of their leadership and decision-making practices. As to the transformational leadership, we find differences in all six TL behaviors but the following three behaviors seem crucial in both public and private universities: (1) articulating a vision, (2) fostering the acceptance of group goals, and (3) high-performance expectations. As to participative decision-making, deans and heads seem to adopt a basic shared approach. However, participative decision-making approach remains limited in both sector universities and remains limited to specific decision topics. Overall, our results identified that the leadership and decision-making practices in Pakistan universities are transformational and participative in nature. *This chapter has been published in Asia Pacific Education Review.*

Chapter 3: Transformational leadership and participative decision-making and its outcomes

This study examines how transformational leadership and participative- decision-making are related to self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation in 218 faculty members from four public and private universities. Since the data in this study are nested (teachers in departments, faculties, and universities), various data analysis techniques were adopted to cater for the particular nature of the data. Multi-level modeling seemed inadequate. But path analysis and multiple regression techniques helped analyzing the data in view of finding answers to the research questions. The results show how transformational leadership and participative decision-making are significantly related to job satisfaction in both public and private universities. The relationship with intrinsic motivation is weak, and no significant link with self-efficacy could be identified. These critical results are not in line with available research in the literature, and question established assumptions about leadership and

decision-making practices in this Pakistan academic context. In the discussion, we focus on explanations that mainly build on the particular current status of Pakistan higher education.

This chapter has been submitted for publication in Personnel Review.

Chapter 4: Leadership development in higher education

In the literature, there is a gap between the number of studies about the nature of leadership practices and studies reporting about the impact of leadership development programs in academic contexts. The aim of this empirical study was to study the impact of a leadership intervention. The intervention aimed at raising academic leaders' awareness of transformational leadership behaviors. Leaders from a public university were involved in a six-week training program. Content analysis of interviews data, collected before and after the intervention, helped checking the related impact. Compared to the "before" intervention situation, we identified clear differences and higher awareness level of leaders, reflecting a positive impact of the intervention related to all transformational leadership behaviors. Next to limitations of the study, the article focuses on the design of a future large-scale intervention study. *This chapter has been published in PONTE.*

Chapter 5: Evaluation of a leadership development intervention

Higher education is becoming crucial due to the rapid changes in society and policy demands. This introduces complex problems and requires skilled leaders to tackle a growing number of higher education challenges. The literature is scarce when it comes to evidence-based leadership development interventions, especially in an academic and in a developing country context. This invoked the call for a leadership development intervention involving academic leaders from Pakistan public universities. The study aimed at raising awareness in university leaders about transformational leadership behaviors in their academic practices. An experimental research design was adopted to explore the impact of a six-week leadership development program. Academic leaders from two public universities were involved in the intervention. Content analysis of interview data collected before and after the intervention helped answering the research questions. Bloom's taxonomy was adopted as a framework for the content analysis of interviews. A significant increase in leadership awareness in view of all six behaviors of transformational leadership was observed in both conditions, but to a far larger extent in the experimental setting. Next to a discussion of limitations, implications and

directions for future research are presented. *This chapter has been submitted for publication in Human Resource Development Quarterly.*

Chapter 6: Sustainable leadership development in higher education

Systematic evaluations of leadership development programs are crucial in higher education. Considering the need for systematic evaluation of such programs with a focus on a long-term impact of such interventions, a follow-up study was set up to evaluate the short and long-term impact of the leadership development intervention discussed in chapter 5. To investigate the short-term impact of the intervention, interview data collected three months after the intervention were analyzed. The long-term impact was determined by collecting data from another group one year after the intervention. The data from the semi-structured interviews and data, resulting from a case study, were analyzed on the base of a content analysis to determine changes in awareness levels as to TL behaviors. Compared to the significant short-term changes in awareness for all TL behaviors in the experimental group, the long-term impact showed a decrease in awareness levels. Nevertheless, these changes were still robust as compared to the awareness levels identified in the control group participants. Implications and recommendations for future research are being discussed. *This chapter has been submitted for publication in Journal of Management & Organization.*

Chapter 7: The general aim of the dissertation was to gain insight about the leadership and decision-making practices in Pakistan universities, and to implement a leadership development program for university leaders to raise awareness about their leadership practices. To pursue the aim of the dissertation, five different studies were conducted. This concluding chapter gives an overview of the main findings of the various studies, considering the three research objectives. Findings in relation to each research objectives are presented, followed by a comprehensive discussion of the results focusing on four different themes. These themes link aspects of leadership and decision-making to our key findings. Furthermore, limitations of the dissertation research program and possible directions for future research are also presented. A new move towards leadership development in higher education Pakistan is discussed in view of one of the key directions for future research. The chapter concludes with implications for theory, practice, and policy.

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Chapter 1: General introduction

RO 1

To determine the nature of leadership and decision-making in Pakistan public and private universities by adopting TL and PDM.

Chapter 2

Leadership and decision-making practices in public versus private universities

RO 2

To investigate the relationship between TL – PDM and teachers' SE beliefs, IM and JS in Pakistan public and private universities.

Chapter 3

TL and PDM and related outcomes

RO 3

To study the impact of a TL intervention on leaders in Pakistan universities.

Chapter 4

Leadership development in higher education

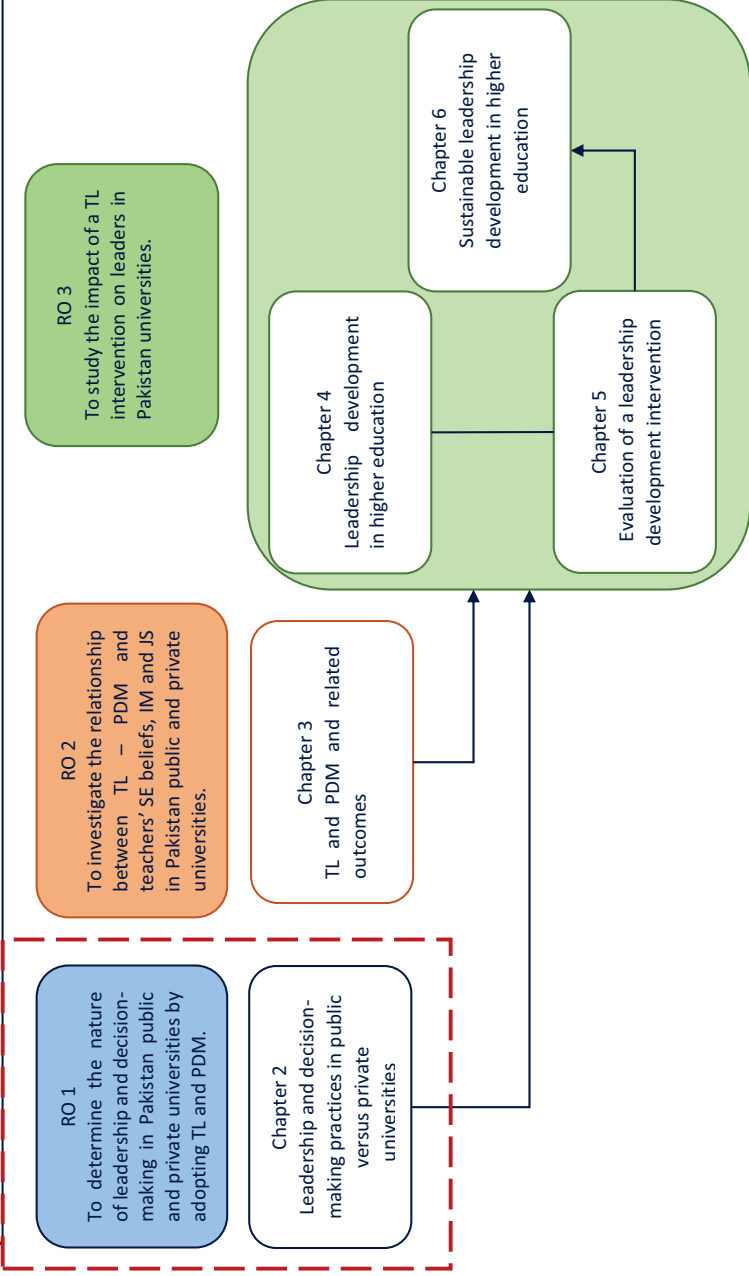
Chapter 5

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Chapter 7: General discussion and conclusion



Chapter 2

Leadership and decision-making practices in public versus private universities

Abstract

The goal of this study is to examine differences in leadership and decision-making practices in public and private universities in Pakistan, with a focus on transformational leadership (TL) and participative decision-making (PDM). We conducted semi-structured interviews with 46 deans and heads of department from two public and two private universities in Pakistan. Our findings indicate that leadership and decision-making practices are different in public and private universities. While differences were observed in all six types of TL-behavior, the following three approaches emerged to be crucial in both public and private universities: (1) articulating a vision, (2) fostering the acceptance of group goals, and (3) high-performance expectations. In terms of PDM, deans and heads of department in public and private universities adopt a collaborative approach. However, on a practical level this approach is limited to teacher- and student-related matters. Overall, our findings suggest that the leadership and decision-making practices in Pakistani public and private universities are transformational and participative in nature.

Introduction

Worldwide, higher education has become increasingly important. It is considered a critical factor in innovation, human capital development, and the development of a knowledge economy (Dill & Van Vught, 2010). It is also undergoing profound changes and reforms (OECD, 2008). The dramatic expansion of higher education has introduced particular institutional problems linked to student-learning and curricula, quality assurance, high student enrollment, lack of resources, accountability, and above all, problems with respect to leadership (Haider, 2008).

Among the challenges in higher education, research presents academic leadership as one of the most critical challenges for the future (Bolden et al., 2012). According to Brown (2001) changes in quality requirements, demands from the public, funding agencies, and new technological demands, ... require "leaders who thrive on the challenge of change" (p. 312). At the same time, this introduces a critical debate about leadership styles (Jones, 2013; Sinha, 2013). Shared and distributed leadership approaches dominate the related literature (Bolden

et al., 2012) and strongly builds on Ramsden (1998) argument that shared leadership in academic institutes should be based on “how people relate to each other” rather than hierarchy. Bryman (2007) supports this notion by stressing that within academic institutes, leaders should foster a balance between support, autonomy, and academic staff expectations. This leads to an emphasis on staff consultation regarding important decisions.

Pakistan is facing higher-education challenges that can be linked to this particular context. Both public and private universities in Pakistan are autonomous bodies, recently confronted with changing circumstances. First of all, there has been a growing need for access to higher education, which has resulted in (1) an increase in the size of universities, and (2) the emergence of private universities. At the same time, the Higher Education Commission (HEC) has imposed new requirements to be met by both public and private universities. These requirements include the alignment of academic degrees with international standards, curriculum revisions, and the development of quality assurance units in universities (HEC, 2009). As for academic staff, a program has been launched to equip teachers with better qualifications, the introduction of a tenure track system, and a stronger emphasis on merit (Haider, 2008). Despite the progress made in addressing these challenges, much remains to be accomplished. For example, recent research highlights the insufficient accountability of higher education institutes, inefficient governance of universities, under-qualified administrative staff, and excessive power placed in the hands of individual vice-chancellors and registrars (Nawab & Bhatti, 2011; Sial, Jilani, Imran, & Zaheer, 2011).

This situation calls for leadership practices that support the transformation of institutes in lieu of these developments. Therefore, the present study focuses on transformational leadership (TL) and participative decision-making (PDM) in public and private Pakistani universities. Research put forward TL and PDM as a solution to meet the need for rapid (university) innovation (Jones, 2013; Nordin, 2012; Tipu, Ryan, & Fantazy, 2012). This study aims to explore the extent to which Pakistan’s academic leaders adopt TL and PDM in public and private universities.

Theoretical background

Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is one of the predominant approaches in educational leadership (Lai, 2014; Nordin, 2012). It was first elucidated as a theory in the literature during the 1970s and 1980s (Bass, 1985b). We focus on “academic leadership” following the related definition of Ramsden (1998) who stresses that an academic transformational leader effectively communicates the mission and vision of the institute in relation to the task at hand. His/her transformational leadership requires precise explanations while creating and fostering an environment in which staff can contribute and collaborate.

Transformational leadership is a multidimensional concept. Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) distinguish six types of behavior in TL: articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high-performance expectations, providing individualized support, and intellectual stimulation. Though, no consensus can be found in the literature as to a “final” typology, a core set seems to be shared by most researchers (Hardy et al., 2010).

Articulating a vision: Transformational leaders can make a difference by envisaging the future and creating an ideal and unique image of the organization. They inspire such a vision in their followers with a positive and hopeful outlook (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). In so doing the transformational leader encourages others to adopt the transformation process as their own and thus allows for the attainment of the targeted transformation (Geib & Swenson, 2013).

Providing an appropriate role model: Kouzes and Posner (1995) explained this concept as modeling, implying that leaders go first. Transformational leaders create a program of excellence and set the example for others. They believe that consistency between words and deeds builds their credibility as transformational leaders.

Fostering the acceptance of group goals: Fostering the acceptance of group goals is likely to promote collaboration, cooperation, and harmony among group members, encouraging them to be team players (Schaubroeck, Lam, & Cha, 2007). Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993) also favor this TL-behavior: from their point of view it (1) encourages leaders to work with the team members to develop a common or shared vision of the desired outcomes from the group

efforts, and (2) encourages leaders to share responsibility with them in developing joint strategies and actions to achieve common goals.

High-performance expectations: Successful leaders expect the best from their employees and themselves. For people to achieve high performance, leaders must provide clear directions, feedback, and encouragement (Weichun, Sosik, Riggio, & Yang, 2012). Here, the leader raises followers' expectations and inspires action by reassuring them that they can achieve these ambitious goals.

Providing individualized support: In order to foster supportive relationships, transformational leaders keep lines of communication open so that followers feel free to share ideas and leaders also offer direct recognition of the unique contributions of each follower (Bass, 1985a). Rafferty and Griffin (2004) stated that a leader provides individual socio-emotional support, developing followers to realize their highest level of potential and empowerment.

Intellectual stimulation: This leadership behavior aims to increase followers' interest in and awareness of problems, developing their ability and inclination to think about problems in new ways (Bass, 1985a). The leader must be able to determine the intellectual capacities of subordinates and decide the level of tasks that can be assigned to subordinates (Northouse, 2007).

Participative decision-making

Participative decision-making implies power-sharing arrangements with hierarchically unequal individuals (Conger & Lawler III, 2009). This results in co-determination of working conditions, collaborative problem-solving, and collaborative discussion of decisions to be made. Locke and Schweiger (1979) and Harrison (1987) additionally stress how superiors invite subordinates' opinions and take these opinions into account. According to (Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, & Jennings, 1988) such employee involvement potentially improves work quality and employees' attitudes, plays a role in overcoming resistance to change, motivates workers and strengthens goal-oriented behavior (Vroom & Jagao, 1990).

The relationship between transformational leadership and participative decision-making

According to Schuster (1994), transformational leaders transfer decision-making authority to their subordinates. Empowered staff is thus an indicator of transformational leadership in an organization. Such leaders collaborate with staff to define goals, reduce teacher isolation,

support change, and foster delegation and active communication (Liontos, 1992). One of the resulting effects of transformational leadership is helping employees to transform the organization (Burns, 1978). The latter fits with the strong need for university innovation, outlined above.

Leadership and decision-making in public and private universities

The Pakistan Higher Education Commission (HEC) took steps to attract the private sector in meeting the growing demand for higher education (Harris, 2004). Though private universities are largely independent of governmental policies, they must adhere to quality standards in terms of teaching and administration. Private universities are even partially funded by HEC in research, faculty development programs, library, and infrastructure by fulfilling the specific terms and conditions set by a HEC. However, there are differences between public and private universities in terms of faculty hiring, student evaluation, and administration, etc.

In this study, we ask to what extent leadership and decision-making practices differ between public and private universities. In the literature, differences between the public and private universities have been described. The following five domains can be clearly linked to both leadership and decision-making:

- (1) Differences in organizational aims: The goals of public universities are often less clear than private universities. Public universities strive for prestige (Rainey, 2009), or research and teaching performance (Hicks, 2012). The focus on ranking universities reflects this particular concern (Shin & Toutkoushian, 2011). In contrast, private universities put an emphasis on competition, financial returns, and profit (Hicklin, Meier, & O'Toole, 2009). This can be related to leadership as reflected in the development of a particular "vision" (Kantabutra, 2005).
- (2) The extent to which the universities are scrutinized: Feeney and Rainey (2010) state that public universities face higher levels of red tape due to expectations about transparency, accountability, and diversity, all of which invoke much paperwork and reporting. This affects all academic dimensions up to HR policies. In particular, public universities have more stringent systems of hiring, firing, and promotion as compared to private universities (McLendon, Hearn, & Deaton, 2006). Levy (2013) refers to this as the "squeezing" of universities. Dealing with transparency and diversity are central to transformational leaders' attempt to share high-performance expectations and involve staff in decision-

making processes. Although private universities are also subject to external oversight, this is less developed and not dependent on legislative regulations or scrutinizing policies (Denison, Fowles, & Moody, 2014).

- (3) The way staff are motivated: Public universities offer job stability and security; private universities motivate employees through financial incentives, career possibilities, and relative autonomy (Boyne, 2002). Aside from this, public universities have more limited abilities to tie financial incentives to performance at work (Weibel, Rost, & Osterloh, 2010). This introduces a need for stronger intellectual stimulation as reflected in transformational leadership (Ayoubi & Khalifa, 2015). It also requires giving more autonomy in the context of shared decision-making.
- (4) Differences in discretionary powers: Nawab and Bhatti (2011) stress that public university management is strongly influenced by bureaucratic mechanisms. For instance, Khang (2015) points at the increase of agency cost and decrease of operational efficiency in universities. In contrast, private universities are run by a board, influenced by financial stakeholders and their interests. In China, for instance, research indicates that external stakeholders in private universities adopt a transformational management style in order to extend power to staff (Lin, 2015). This can be linked to shared decision-making (Boyne, 2002). The differences between public and private universities are not always clear with regard to the “power” issue. For instance, in Pakistan governmental politics also define the boundaries of public initiatives in terms of the quality standards to be adhered to (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010). This will affect the leadership dimension (Dattey, Westerheijden, & Hofman, 2014).
- (5) Differences in accountability: Some believe that the values and mission of public universities lead them to be less accountable or efficient as they lack proper monitoring (Alderman & Carey, 2010). This assumes university funding is linked to accountability, and will force public universities to become more efficient and produce better results (McLendon et al., 2006). In contrast, private universities have to cater for their “customers” and therefore heavily emphasize student satisfaction (Bayraktar, Tatoglu, & Zaim, 2013). Not all researchers agree with this comparison between public and private universities (Othman & Othman, 2014). Othman and Othman (2014) emphasize that, particularly in developing countries, both types of university should be accountable to society (e.g., community involvement, social responsibility). The fact that private

universities are more accountable to their external stakeholders that take part in the decision-making process could result in lower levels of participative decision-making (Hunter, 2015).

This brings us to the focus of the present study. Changes in Pakistani universities prompt questions in relation to the kind of leadership that is necessary to meet the related challenges. Little is known about the nature of TL and PDM in private or public universities in Pakistan. An exception is a recent survey-based study of Bodla and Nawaz (2010), which focused on differences in staff preferences for transformational, transactional or passive leadership in either public or private universities in Pakistan.

Research design

In a previous study, we identified differences in public and private universities in terms of TL and PDM (A et al. 2015). However, that study was based on a survey design, and it was stressed that the surveys used might not have been sufficiently geared to the Pakistani academic context. In the present study, we adopt an interpretative approach based on semi-structured interviews involving leaders of public and private universities. By using a qualitative method, we were able to gather the rich data from the university leaders. This study also uses cross-case analysis to compare TL and PDM in public and private universities. The research questions guiding this study are as follows: "To what extent do Pakistani academic leaders adopt TL and PDM? And to what extent do we observe differences in leaders of public and private universities?"

Sampling

In total, there are currently 34 private and 50 public universities in Punjab, the largest, most populated province of Pakistan. Four universities were selected on the basis of a stratified sample: two public universities out of 50 and two private universities out of 34. From each university three faculties, (faculty of sciences, faculty of social sciences, and faculty of arts & humanities), five departments from each faculty and deans of particular faculties were selected. In total, 46 deans and heads of the faculty/departments were involved in this study. Their average age was 26-65 years old, with on average 01-30 years of experience.

Data collection

A semi-structured interview was designed, structured along the six types of behavior associated with TL and elements of PDM. On the basis of each starting question, leaders got the opportunity to talk freely about the leadership practices adopted in their universities. Next to the interview questionnaire, an interview protocol was developed to guarantee a sufficiently controlled interview scenario (see Appendix A and B). On average, interviews lasted between 30 minutes and one hour. All interviews were audio-taped in view of subsequent analysis. Informed consent was obtained from all participants. Names of respondents were re-coded in the transcripts to ensure anonymity.

Data analysis

Building on the methodology suggested by Matthew, Miles, and Huberman (1994), each interview was transcribed verbatim. Nvivo, version 9.0 (QSR, 2013) was used to support the data analysis. First the analysis focused on questions in relation to TL and then on questions in relation to PDM. In order to establish inter-rater reliability, ten interviews were coded independently by the first author and a researcher not familiar with the study. The inter-coder reliability was 91%, which is in accordance with the standard of 80% (Matthew et al., 1994).

To start, each interview transcript was dealt with as a single case, looking for themes or patterns in participants' responses. Next, each emerging theme was linked to a relevant TL-behavior and an element of PDM. The analysis proceeded by linking case-data to the other cases within the same university (public/private). This helped to obtain a more general and less case-specific picture of leadership and decision-making features in a particular public or private university. Finally, a cross-case analysis was carried out to compare data from public and private universities. We calculated frequencies of fragments related to each theme and subsequent percentages.

Results

Building on the analysis, we structured the themes identified in the interviews along theoretical behavior as found in the TL and PDM literature. To illustrate these themes, fragments of the transcripts are presented below. We limit our focus to the key differences and similarities, as summarized in Table 1 (Appendix, B). The numbers in the table refer to the amount/proportion of interview fragments that are related to a particular TL-behavior.

Transformational leadership

TL-Behavior 1, "Articulating a vision:" After asking general questions about their leadership experience, we presented the first question. "How can a leader set an inspiring vision for his/her university and how can he/she communicate that vision to his/her colleagues?" Most leaders stated that they found this a difficult question. Nevertheless, the following four themes emerged from the analysis: (1) Leaders can set a vision according to goals and objectives, (2) Leaders must have a vision and the ability to articulate that vision, (3) Leaders can set a vision through teamwork, (4) A leader can set a vision by starting new programs and initiatives.

In public universities, (26.08%) of deans/heads emphasized that a faculty/departmental leader must be aware of the vision of the university, its goal, objectives, and mission and develop strategies to achieve related objectives; (26.08%) of the fragments linked the vision of the university to the start of new programs and (34.79%) considered teamwork to be important when setting a vision.

The private university deans and heads did not link the articulation of a vision to new programs. They strongly emphasized setting a vision in line with the university goals (37.50%). They also stressed the importance of articulating the vision (31.25%). However, setting this vision in collaboration with the whole team was stressed to a lesser extent (31.25%):

"Setting a vision and the articulation of a vision is very difficult, but a leader must keep on sharing and communicating the vision to his colleagues. Then other people will try to reach that vision."
(UMF1, H2)

TL-Behavior 2, "Providing an appropriate role model:" In response to the question "When does a staff member respect you as a leader?" we identified the following four themes: (1) Teachers respect me when I respect them, (2) Teachers respect me when I solve their problems, (3) Teachers express respect me in view of their personal benefit, (4) Teachers respect me when I share things.

Many of the interview fragments of deans and heads in public (51.85%) and private (33.33%) universities indicated that if you respect your staff, they would respect you.

Nevertheless, public university deans and heads (37.04%) think teachers only respect you to get benefits from you. This belief is observed to a lesser extent in private universities:

“Teachers usually think about their own benefits. If they get some benefits from the head of the department, then they will give him respect.” (BZF1, H5)

Private universities deans and heads believe teachers give you respect when you share things (27.78% of interview fragments). We did not observe this belief in public universities:

“I consider my teachers as partners. I put forward the matter and tell them all the relevant facts. So they can understand, even when dealing with tough issues. They respect me, and I don't feel reluctant to share things with them.” (UMF2, H4)

TL-Behavior 3, “Fostering the acceptance of group goals:” Regarding the question “What about your teachers working together?” we identified the following three themes: (1) Leaders are in favor of collaboration, (2) There is no collaboration among teachers, (3) Leaders appreciate collaboration to a certain extent.

The deans and heads of public (64%) and private (57.90%) universities mentioned that their academic staff collaborate in relation to academic affairs. However, public (28%) and private (15.79%) universities stress that this collaboration is mostly limited to teaching and some administrative affairs. We also observed that public (8%) and private (26.31%) deans and heads stress that there is no collaboration between academic staff. Some deans and heads point out that this might be a threatening development:

“Unfortunately, the culture of sharing is diminishing now. Sharing of knowledge, expertise, and reinforcement of each other, which is the thing that needs to be improved.” (UMF3, H1)

TL-Behavior 4, “High-performance expectations:” Participants were asked: “Who sets the standards in relation to the job performance of your staff members?” The interview transcripts revealed the following three themes: (1) The university sets the standards, and we ensure the standards are implemented, (2) Leaders set job standards for their teachers, (3) Leaders evaluate teachers' performance on the basis of student feedback.

The deans and heads of public (47.61%) and private (50%) universities remarked that the university defines the performance standards for teachers:

“When the university selects a person they expect performance from them, and for that they set some standards and mechanisms.” (IUF2, H2)

The deans and heads of public (47.61%) and private (25%) universities state that they set the performance standards for teachers. In private universities, the deans and heads (25%) remarked that they evaluate the performance standards of their faculty on the basis of student feedback. This approach is less prominent in public universities (4.78%):

“We usually assessed the teachers’ performance on the basis of students’ feedback, which is also part of their annual appraisal.”

(UMF2, H3)

To conclude, the deans and heads seem unclear regarding university standards. Almost 50% of leaders from public and private universities follow university standards, and the remaining 50% consider it the leaders’ responsibility to “set standards.”

TL-Behavior 5, “Providing individualized support:” The question “How do you develop a supportive relationship with your teachers?” elicited three themes: (1) Leaders assign tasks according to teachers’ abilities, (2) Leaders assign tasks after interaction with teachers, and (3) Leaders assign tasks according to teachers’ motivation.

The deans and heads of public (51.51%) and private (66.67%) universities responded that if they assign a task to their teachers, they select them according to their abilities and provide them with support in achieving that task or challenge:

“I assign the duties to my teachers according to their abilities and capabilities. Someone is more interested in fieldwork, and someone is more interested in research and teaching. So I assign according to their caliber, and I am always there to support them.” (BZF1, H1)

The deans and heads in public (27.28%) and private (20.83%) universities believe in interaction before assigning a task. The public (21.21%) and private (12.50%) university deans

and heads consider teachers' motivation before assigning the task. It is remarkable that the transcripts do not reflect how deans or heads provide support in relation to personal matters, both in public and private universities.

TL-Behavior 6, "Intellectual stimulation:" We put forward the question "what motivates your teachers to deliver high-quality work?" The following themes emerged from the transcripts: (1) Leaders consider that teachers are motivated by incentives, (2) The leader should motivate his teachers, and (3) Leaders believe that motivation is intrinsic.

The deans and heads of public (64.51%) and private (58.33%) universities believe that their teachers are motivated by particular incentives, encouragement, and appreciation.

The public university deans and heads (22.59%) consider this as a key responsibility of their own:

"Every person needs a different kind of motivation. Some need verbal reassurance. Some work if you send them an email "well done, keep it up." some need a pat on the back. So it is entirely depending on the individual who is leading." (UMF1, H1)

Conversely, this was not strongly observed in private universities (16.67%). The private university deans and heads (25%) consider staff motivation to be intrinsic in nature. Public university deans and heads put forward this idea to a lesser extent (12.90%). The interview transcripts reflect opinions from the leaders. They especially emphasize that they "should" adopt this kind of intellectual stimulation. However, the heads and deans did not give practical examples of actual ways of motivating their staff.

Participative decision-making

Participants were presented with the following question: "When you need to make a decision, what is your general approach?" Three themes were identified in the transcripts: (1) We decide together, (2) Pulse taking: prepare the work in advance and then seek their opinion, and (3) Leaders make policy decisions on their own.

The deans and heads of public (58.33%) and private (33.34%) universities refer to a collaborative approach. They involve their teachers in decision-making:

"Usually, we decide together about course allocation, student problems, exams, research matters, etc." (BZF3, D1)

Deans and heads of public (13.89%) and private (18.52%) universities seem to sample opinions from individual teachers to understand their opinions about particular matters. However, in relation to policy matters, both heads and deans from public (11.11%) and private (7.40%) universities rather decide on their own.

PDM can result in differences of opinion, which can lead to conflict. To develop a better understanding of this, we presented leaders with an additional question about conflict resolution. Two main themes reappear: (1) When presented with conflict, leaders decide by themselves, and (2) They resolve the conflict through communication.

The private (11.11%) and public (5.56%) university deans and heads stated that when there is conflict they decide on their own. Deans and heads of public (11.11%) and private (29.63%) universities also stated they try to settle the conflict through communication:

“People sometimes do not agree, but I think communication is the best way to go ahead. The better and more you communicate, the less you have conflict.” (UMF1, H1)

Discussion

The present study explored the extent to which TL and PDM is adopted by the deans and heads of department in public and private universities in Pakistan. Our findings confirm the multidimensional nature of TL as explained in the literature. In terms of the six TL-behavior types outlined above, some differences were observed between public and private universities when analyzing the interview transcripts.

TL-behavior “articulating a vision:” private university deans and heads were explicitly concerned about their vision. They were clearly aware of how vision translates into practice. This was observed to a lesser extent in the public universities. Deans and heads were less explicit about a particular faculty/department vision or just followed a broader university vision. This can be linked to the differences in organizational aims of public and private Pakistani universities. Whereas public university leaders follow a “set” system (Eckel & Morphew, 2009), private university deans and heads are concerned about the success and profit of their universities, in addition to employee performance and attainment of standards (Rainey, 2009). The literature often presents a more dynamic picture in relation to this TL-behavior and points out that public universities need to develop a vision that makes explicit

their quality, standards, and achievements, in line with society's expectations. Recent calls to produce socially-relevant output, return-on-investment,... are now also applicable to public university settings (Hart & Northmore, 2011).

TL-behavior "providing an appropriate role model:" The deans and heads in both public and private universities present themselves as role models for their teachers. These findings are in accordance with a previous quantitative study, which showed that transformational leaders set an example for others, leading to employees' job satisfaction (A et al. 2015). Observed differences between public and private universities are mainly linked to a stronger emphasis on "respect" as part of the interpersonal relationship between the leader and teachers in public universities. The latter could be explained on the basis of a stronger emphasis on hierarchical structures in public universities (Fullwood, Rowley, & Delbridge, 2013).

TL-behavior "fostering the acceptance of group goals:" Here, there are stronger differences between public and private universities. The private university leaders admit that their teachers are less likely to work together (e.g., in article writing, sharing teaching materials). Teachers collaborate mainly in teaching and administrative assignments. This situation is different in public universities. Teachers are expected to work together as they usually work in teams or committees. What we observe in the Pakistan context is different from the observation of Hicklin et al. (2009) who stress that both public and private universities need to create a more collaborative and shared environment within and between universities. Such differences observed in the Pakistan context could be explained by the nature of the "vision" put forward by private universities, which tend to value higher financial returns over research or educational quality. The latter requires a stronger collaborative endeavor (Aktas, Gelfand, & Hanges, 2015). Nevertheless, we found one remark of a particular leader alarming for a university setting: "the culture of sharing is diminishing now (...) (UMF3, H1)." Coping with the challenges of higher education in Pakistan requires "united" forces within academia.

TL-behavior "high-performance expectations:" While deans and heads of both public and private universities adopt standards and evaluation policies set by the university, they tend to do it in different ways. The public university deans and heads are not satisfied with the standards put forward by the Higher Education Commission (HEC). This is in accordance with the study of Ullah, Ajmal, and Rahman (2011), who state that there is an appropriate yardstick for quality assessment, but the implementation of the standards is lacking. This was also noted

by Feeney and Rainey (2010) who emphasized that leaders in public universities build on input from external stakeholders, such as general public, media, and the government (Stewart & Schlegel, 2009). In contrast, deans and heads in private universities adopt a strict quality assurance approach, based on established performance measures that are heavily influenced by internal stakeholders. They stress that teachers have been informed about the related evaluation standards and student feedback. This is consistent with the study of Roolaht and Türk (2007) who found that private universities seem to value student feedback in the appraisal function somewhat more highly than public universities.

TL-behavior “Providing individualized support:” The deans and heads of public and private universities provide support for their teachers to achieve tasks, which are assigned in line with their abilities. They interact with them, encourage them, and support them. Our results are in line with the study of Marshall, Kiffin-Petersen, and Soutar (2012) who found that transformational leaders provide individualized support and encouragement to teachers. This also mirrors the results from our earlier survey study set up in Pakistan (A et al. 2015). However, in both private and public universities, leaders were less clear about how to provide support to teachers. This points to the critical difference between the perceptions of the leaders and their potential actions.

TL-behavior “intellectual stimulation:” the deans and heads of both public and private universities believe that appreciation, encouragement, incentives, and a more conducive working environment are key motivators for teachers. This confirms the findings of Hicklin et al. (2009) who stress that public universities have motivated teachers because of job security, and private universities motivate staff through financial incentives and career possibilities. Boyne (2002) also argues that public universities provide more relative autonomy to teachers, resulting in a more stimulating environment. However, it must be noted that in our study, while leaders mention they “should” adopt this kind of approach, they gave few real-life examples of how they do so.

In terms of PDM, the literature emphasizes that leaders should give team members a chance to voice their opinions (Bergman, Rentsch, Davenport, & Bergman, 2012). However, this is not yet the case in Pakistani universities. Our results point out that deans and heads in public and private universities adopt participative approaches, but these are limited to routine matters. Other studies in the Pakistan setting come to the same conclusion (Nadeem, Imran,

Shah, & Sarwar, 2008). For example, research indicates that Pakistani deans tend to ignore the recommendations of lecturers (Shah et al., 2014). These findings could be partly explained from the point of view of Pakistani culture, which emphasizes the traditional power-position of leaders and inter-relational “boundaries.” In this context, Aktas et al. (2015) analyzed the extent to which cultural tightness-looseness affects the way they observe more or less collectivism and power distance. The Pakistani cultural setting would therefore reflect a tight focus on social norms, resulting in weaker PDM.

Limitations and directions for future research

Though our research findings are informative, the present study is not without limitations. Firstly, we only interviewed heads and deans to gain insight into the nature of leadership and decision-making within universities. As noted in the discussion of our results, this introduces a tension between perceptions on the one hand and real-life actions on the other. Other methodologies should be adopted to tackle this issue. For example, one approach could build on a multi-actor perspective to develop a richer picture that enables a comparison of perceptions and experiences of different parties, such as leaders, teachers, and students.

In this study, we could build on available survey-data collected from teachers in other Pakistani universities. Teachers reporting on the leadership behavior of their deans and heads of department indicate that leadership in Pakistani universities is transformational in nature, and decision-making can be qualified as participative (A et al. 2015). Secondly, both public and private universities are autonomous bodies in Pakistan. This introduces promising directions to set up interviews with the rectors and vice-chancellors to understand how the universities deal with the changing higher education political context and how these actors implement the new policies. This can be linked to the need to adopt a longitudinal research design to clarify potential changes or evolution in leadership approaches and decision-making. Thirdly, though a relatively large number of interviews were carried out, universities, faculties, and departments from different provinces should be included in future research to explore the reported differences and develop a comprehensive picture of Pakistani higher education.

Implications for theory, policy, and practice

Though we observed that a basic level of TL and PDM is adopted in the Pakistani universities involved in the present study, there is room for considerable improvement. The changing context of Pakistani higher education calls for “leaders who thrive on the challenge of change”

(Brown, 2001). A key political implication could be an investment in “leadership development.” Countries need accountable and autonomous universities with adequate leaders at the top. From a practical point of view, the six TL-behavior types can be the backbone of such a leadership development program starting from a strength-weakness analysis of individual leadership behavior. From a theoretical perspective, our results add an in-depth perspective to the six TL-behavior types as observed in a university context and with a focus on differences between private and public universities. This adds to the validity of the theory in these particular contexts.

Conclusion

The present study investigated the TL and PDM practices in public and private universities of Pakistan and to what extent these practices are different in both types of university.

We found interesting similarities and differences between public and private universities. Overall, the present study confirms that the nature of TL and PDM can be described in terms of available models, derived from developed countries.

We found similarities in most and differences in some of the six TL-behavior types in public and private universities in Pakistan. Some of these differences are important, particularly in the context of the challenges currently encountered by universities in Pakistan. While PDM was observed in both public and private universities, it largely concerned involving staff in rather routine matters. This might be too limited to cope with the changing requirements from the HEC as to quality assurance, accreditations, and many new innovations set for the future of Pakistan’s higher education.

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Appendix A:

Interview outline

Sr#	Questions
1	How long are you working on this post?
2	Tell me about a leader you have worked with, and who you greatly respect?
3	What are the characteristics of a person that make him/her a good leader?
4	How a leader can set his vision forward for his/her organization?
5	When does your staff member respect you as a leader?
6	How do you interact with individual staff members in your organization?
7	What about your staff working together?
8	Who sets what standards as to the job performance of your staff?
9	What motivates your employees/staff to meet high quality work?
10	When you need to take any decision, what is your general approach?
11(a)	Can you give me an example of how you involve others in making a decision?
11(b)	Do you face conflict sometimes?

Interview Protocol

Subject	Detail	Notes
Research topic	Leadership and decision-making practices in public/private universities in Pakistan	
Research question	To what extent do Pakistan academic leaders adopt transformational leadership and participative decision-making? And to what extent do we observe differences in leaders of public/private universities?	
Way of contacting respondent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Introductory email with indication that the respondent will be called personally. - At least three attempts to call the respondent by phone to set an appointment. - During the call, (1) repeat the research topic; (2) repeat research question; (3) ask for willingness to participate; (4) give time frame (duration interview); (5) specify preferred location at premises of respondent; (6) acknowledge the participation 	
Arrival at premises	According to the appointment.	
Prior to the interview	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Thank the respondent and restate the research topic and research question; (2) Present the letter of consent and mention the deontological code of the university to ensure privacy and ethical issues; (3) Seek permission to audio-tape the interview, for transcription purpose; (4) Indicate the interview will last 30 minutes to one hour; (5) Thank the respondent for his/her time and participation. 	
During the interview	<p>Interview background:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Please introduce yourself? - How long you are working on this post? - Tell me about a leader you have worked with, and who you greatly respect? - What are the characteristics of a person that make him/her a good leader? <p>Key starting questions:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (6) How can a leader set his/her vision forward for his/her university and how he can communicate that inspiring vision to his/her colleagues? (7) When does your staff member respect you as a leader? (8) How do you develop a supportive relationship with your teachers? (9) What about your teachers working together? (10) Who sets the standards as to the job performance of your teachers? 	

-
- (11) What motivates your teachers to deliver high-quality work?
 - (12) When you need to make any decision, what is your general approach?
 - (13) Additional probing question: How do you solve conflict when making decisions?
-

Appendix C:

Table 1. Summary of the fragments related to each TL-behavior

TL-Behaviors	Public		Private	
	Frequencies	Percentages	Frequencies	Percentages
Articulation a vision				
A leader can set the vision according to the goals and objectives	6	26.08	6	37.50
A leader must have a vision and the ability to articulate that vision	3	13.05	5	31.25
Teamwork is important for setting a vision	8	34.79	5	31.25
A leader can set a vision by starting new programs and initiatives	6	26.08	0	0
	N=23	100	N=16	100
Providing an appropriate role model				
Teachers respect me when I respect them	14	51.85	6	33.33
Teachers respect me when I solve their problems	3	11.11	4	22.22
Teachers express respect in view of their personal benefits	10	37.04	3	16.68
Teachers respect me when I share things with them	0	0	5	27.78
	N=27	100	N=18	100
Fostering the acceptance of group goals				
Leaders are in favor of collaboration	16	64	11	57.90
There is no collaboration among teachers	2	8	5	26.31
Leaders appreciate collaboration to a certain extent	7	28	3	15.79
	N=25	100	N=19	100
High-performance expectations				
University sets the standards, and we ensure standards implementation	10	47.61	10	50
Leaders set job standards for their teachers	10	47.61	5	25
Leaders evaluate teachers' performance on the base of students feedback	1	4.78	5	25

Leadership and decision-making practices in public versus private universities

	N=21	100	N=20	100
Providing individualized support				
Leader assigns the tasks according to teachers' capabilities	17	51.51	16	66.67
Leader assigns the task after interaction with teachers	9	27.28	5	20.83
Assign the task according to teachers' motivation	7	21.21	3	12.50
	N=33	100	N=24	100
Intellectual stimulation				
Leaders considers that teachers are motivated by incentives	20	64.51	14	58.33
The leader should motivate his teachers	7	22.59	4	16.67
Leaders considered that motivation is intrinsic	4	12.90	6	25
	N=31	100	N=24	100
Participative decision-making				
We decide together	21	58.33	9	33.34
Pulse taking, leader prepares the work in advance and then seek their opinion	5	13.89	5	18.52
Leaders make policy decisions on their own	4	11.11	2	7.40
When presented with conflict, leaders decide by themselves	2	5.56	3	11.11
Leaders resolve the conflict through communication	4	11.11	8	29.63
	N=36	100	N=27	100

The frequencies refer to the number of "fragments" found in the interviews transcripts in relation to each particular (sub) theme.

3 Transformational leadership and participative decision-making and related outcomes

This chapter is based on:

Zulfqar, A., Valcke, M., Devos, G., & Shahzad, A., (2016). Transformational leadership and participative decision-making in profit vs non-profit universities. Manuscript submitted for publication in *Personnel Review*

Chapter 1: General introduction

RO 1

To determine the nature of leadership and decision-making in Pakistan public and private universities by adopting TL and PDM.

RO 2

To investigate the relationship between TL – PDM and teachers’ SE beliefs, IM and JS in Pakistan public and private universities.

RO 3

To study the impact of a TL intervention on leaders in Pakistan universities.

Chapter 2

Leadership and decision-making practices in public versus private universities

Chapter 3

TL and PDM and related outcomes

Chapter 4

Leadership development in higher education

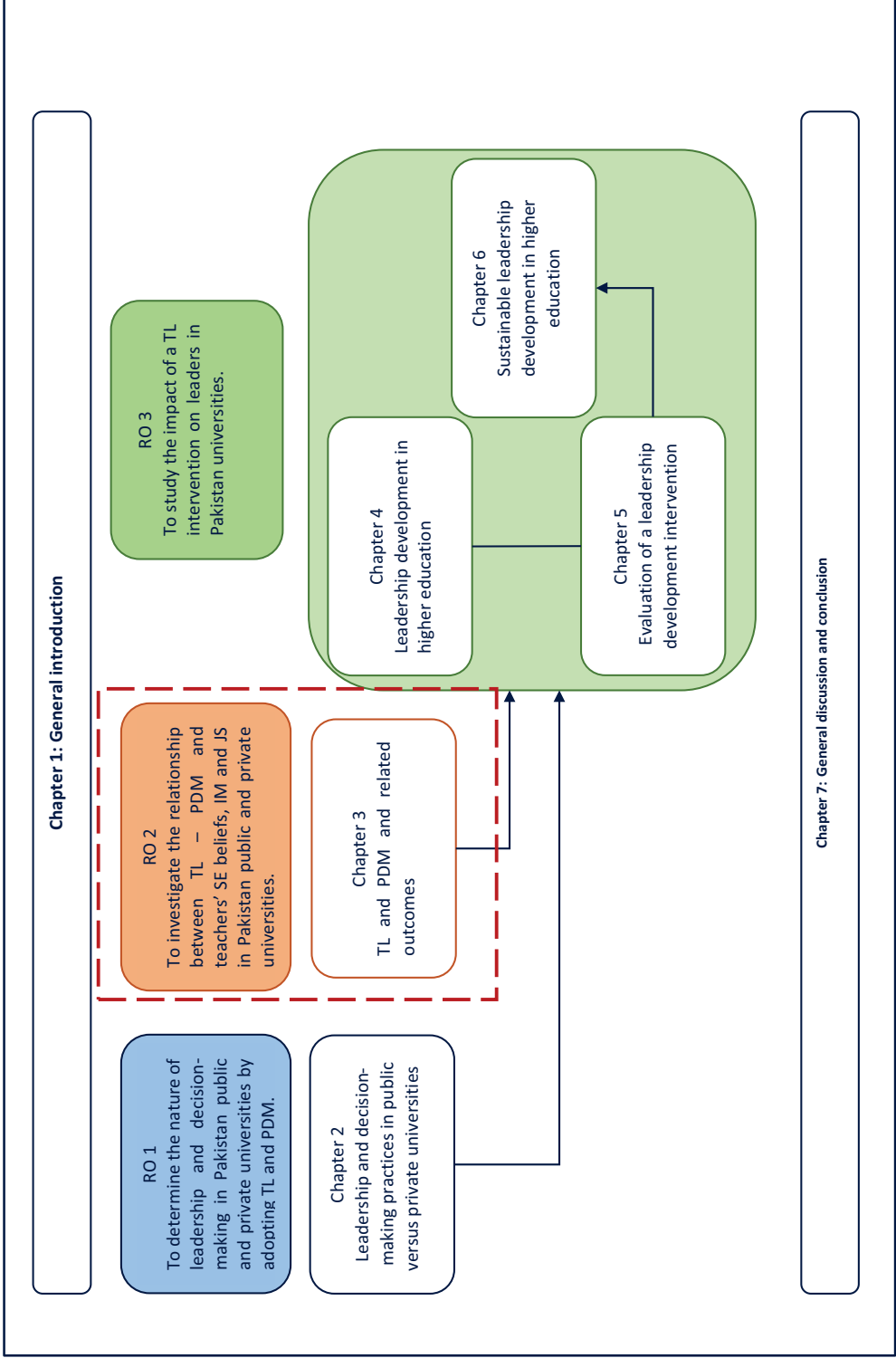
Chapter 6

Sustainable leadership development in higher education

Chapter 5

Evaluation of a leadership development intervention

Chapter 7: General discussion and conclusion



Chapter 3

Transformational leadership and participative decision-making and related outcomes

Abstract

This study examines the relationship between transformational leadership and participative decision-making with self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation. An innovative research dimension is related to comparing this relationship in profit versus non-profit universities in Pakistan. In a survey study, 218 faculty members were involved from four profit versus non-profit universities to rate their leaders. Since the data in this study are nested within a hierarchical structure, we adopted various data analysis techniques e.g., multilevel modeling, path analysis, and multiple regression to explore the variance at university, faculty, and departmental level. The results indicate that transformational leadership and participative decision-making have a significant impact on job satisfaction of university teachers, both in the profit versus non-profit universities. The relationship with intrinsic motivation is weak, and no significant link with self-efficacy could be found. These critical results are not in line with available research and question established assumptions about leadership and decision-making practices in Pakistan academic context. In the discussion, we focus on explanations that mainly build on the particular current status of Pakistan higher education.

Introduction

Organizations acknowledge that talented employees are vital to organizational success (Saks & Gruman, 2014). Currently, not only corporate organizations but public organizations are also concerned to develop their HR policies to deal efficiently with their employees (Morris, 2008). However, the role of leaders in the process of implementing and communicating HR policies is crucial (Ning & Jing, 2012). Universities either profit or non-profit compel to create new leaner business models as competition increase for staff, students, funding, and partners. Academic organizations will increasingly be run like corporations while seeking to maintain the freedom of inquiry and academic rigor that their long-term reputation depends on (Palmer & Bogdanova, 2008; Zulfqar, Valcke, Devos, Tuytens, & Shahzad, 2016). Pakistan profit and non-profit universities are also facing challenges that can be linked to this particular context.

Pakistani universities - either profit and non-profit - confronted with changing circumstances. First of all, there was a growing need for access to higher education, resulting in the emergence of for-profit universities. At the same time, the Higher Education Commission (HEC) imposed new requirements to be met by – both profit and non-profit – universities: alignment of academic degrees with international standards, curriculum revisions, and the development of quality assurance units in universities,(HEC, 2009).

As to HR policies for academic staff, a program was launched to equip faculty with better qualification, the introduction of the tenure track system, and a stronger emphasis on merit (Haider, 2008). Despite already made progress in addressing these challenges, much remains to be accomplished. Authors mention for instance: insufficient accountability of higher education institutes, inefficient governance of universities, under-qualified administrative staff, and excessive power in the hands of individual vice-chancellors and registrars (Nawab & Bhatti, 2011). The current situation calls for leadership that supports the transformation of institutes to be able to tackle the changes in Pakistani universities. Brown (2001) stated that the changes in quality requirements, demands from the public, funding agencies, and new technological demands, ... requires “leaders who thrive on the challenge of change” (p.312). At the same time, this introduces a critical debate about leadership styles. Shared and distributed leadership approaches dominate the related literature (Bolden et al., 2012) that strongly builds on Ramsden (1998) argument that shared leadership in academic institutes should be based on “how people relate to each other” rather than hierarchy. Bryman (2007) supports this notion by stressing that - within academic institutes - leaders foster a balance between support, autonomy, and academic staff expectations. This leads to an emphasis on staff consultation over important decisions. The way transformational leaders involve their employees in decision-making practices can offer insights and provide directions for human resource development (HRD) practices (Hoon Song, Kolb, Hee Lee, & Kyoung Kim, 2012).

This accounts for our rationale to put forward a focus on transformational leadership and participative decision-making. Ensari and Murphy (2003) state, “the power of leaders is largely dependent on how they are perceived by others” (p.52). Available evidence shows that through transformational leadership and participative decision-making one can observe an increase in employee motivation (Hetland, Skogstad, & Mikkelsen, 2011). Others report about

the impact on self-efficacy (Aggarwal & Krishnan, 2013) and job satisfaction (Munir, Rahman, Malik, & Ma'amor, 2012).

Transformational leadership and the related topic of participative decision-making have not been extensively studied in Pakistan. This brings us to the focus of the present study: developing a better understanding of the nature of leadership and decision-making in Pakistan profit and non-profit universities. After describing the conceptual and theoretical base for the present study, we discuss a research design involving staff of four Pakistan universities.

Theoretical background

Our research is driven by the following conceptual framework and hypothetical interrelations. Though it builds on available literature and research, it adds to the literature because it present a comprehensive view and studies the relationships in a HE context, distinguishing between the profit and non-profit universities.

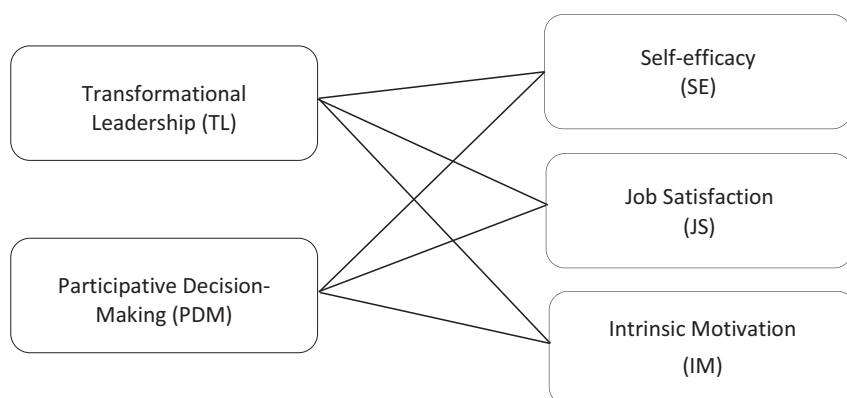


Figure 1: Conceptual framework and hypothetical interrelations for the present study

Transformational leadership

The original, expanded and refined version of Burn's transformational leadership theory has been adopted in organizations since the 1980s (Tichy & DeVanna, 1986). Since our focus is on "academic leadership," we build on Ramsden (1998) definition of transformational leadership to depict an academic leader. A transformational leader - in the academic community - effectively communicates the mission and vision of the university about the task at hand (Bass, 1985a). The essence of transformational leadership is that leaders lift people to extraordinary heights, motivate followers to do more than expected, and perform beyond levels of

expectations (Mesu, Sanders, & Riemsdijk, 2015). Transformational leadership is a multidimensional concept. In this context, Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) present six behaviors of transformational leadership:

Articulating a vision – Leader aimed at identifying new opportunities for his/her organization, articulating, and inspiring other with his/her vision (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Providing an appropriate role model – Behavior on the part of the leader that sets an example for followers to follow that is consistent with the values the leader espouses (Kouzes & Posner, 1995).

Fostering the acceptance of group goals – Leader promotes cooperation among employees and getting them to work together toward a common goal (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993).

High-performance expectations – Behavior that demonstrates the leader's expectations for excellence, quality, and high performance on the part of followers (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Providing individualized support – Leader indicates that he/she respects followers and is concerned about their personal feelings and needs (Bass, 1985a).

Intellectual stimulation – Leader aims to increase followers' interest in and awareness of problems, developing their ability and inclination to think about problems in new ways (Bass, 1985b).

Participative decision-making

After the early research of Lewin (1947) on participative decision-making (PDM), scholars started exploring different dimensions of PDM. Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, and Jennings (1988) Identified six dimensions of PDM, such as participation in work decisions, consultative participation, limited participation, informal participation, employee ownership and representative participation. Participative leadership behavior makes employees feel their superiors treat them with respect, and dignity, which are conducive to a high level of trust in their superior (Jung & Avolio, 2000). PDM is closely related to leadership approach adopting decision-making procedures that allow other people to influence leader's decisions (McCann, 2011; Pacheco & Webber, 2016).

The relationship between transformational leadership and participative decision-making

As commented by Leithwood (1992) a key goal in an academic setting is to develop and maintain a collaborative, professional culture. Transformational leaders work with teachers to

develop collaborative goal setting, reduction of teacher isolation, support for changes, delegation, and active communication (Van Ginkel & Van Knippenberm, 2012).

The key role of self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy beliefs have been studied in profit and non-profit organizational research for over decades (Bandura, 2000). Self-efficacy represents an individual's belief in his/her capabilities to accomplish a specific task or set of tasks (Bandura, 1986). Research emphasizes the meaning and measurement of teachers' self-efficacy. In the context of the present study, our focus is on the organizational support from the leader's point of view. We will analyze how the leadership style enhances teachers' self-efficacy in academic settings.

Job satisfaction

Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job and job experience. In other words, it emphasizes the relationship between what a person wants from the job and what the job offers. Griffin and Bateman (1986) Considered job satisfaction to be a generic construct, encompassing a variety of particular aspects of the job that influence a person's level of satisfaction.

Intrinsic motivation

As stated above, transformational leadership and participative decision-making are linked to motivation. In the context of leadership and decision-making research, most authors' center on intrinsic motivation. The latter authors introduced the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) as a humanistic theory of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Intrinsic motivation arises from three basic needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Autonomy is invoked when leaders give their employees the feeling that they initiate their own behavior. Competence implies that one experiences being confident and capable in action. Relatedness refers to the experience that one is related to others and is also accepted by them (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Empirical evidence as to the relationship between transformational leadership and self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation

Transformational leadership and self-efficacy

Transformational leaders can raise the self-efficacy of followers by showing their confidence in followers and by helping them to tackle the problems (Camps & Rodríguez, 2011; Gist, 1987). Empirical evidence suggests that leaders can significantly influence teachers' job experiences, their efforts, and their commitment to change (Geijssel, Slegers, Leithwood, & Jantzi, 2003; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). However, the primary evidence to support this notion comes from a study by (Hipp & Bredeson, 1995) that focused on the relationship between transformational leadership style and teachers' self-efficacy.

Transformational leadership and job satisfaction

There is an essential connection between transformational leadership and job satisfaction (Lowe & Kroeck, 1996). Research findings support the effect of transformational leadership on subordinates' job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001).

Transformational leadership and intrinsic motivation

Empirical evidence proves that transformational leader fosters a higher level of motivation among employees (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2008). Transformational leadership implies that the leader acts as a model that influences through vision, inspirational motivation, shows individual consideration, and is intellectually stimulating. Transformational leadership has been found to be positively related to intrinsic motivation (Bo, 2014).

Empirical evidence as to the relationship between participative decision-making and self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation

Participative decision-making and self-efficacy

Participative decision-making and teachers' self-efficacy have hardly been studied in the context of higher education. Participatory decision-making empowers teachers by delegating authority and responsibility to them, thus strengthening their perceptions of personal ability and fostering their belief that they can create the results they desire (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, & Malone, 2006). Literature shows that through power sharing and participative leadership employees enhance their self-efficacy (Lu, Jiang, Yua, & Li, 2014).

Participative decision-making and job satisfaction

Shedd (1987) indicated that participation in decision-making is positively associated with job satisfaction and job morale, resulting in trust in leaders, reduced stress, and burnout. Also, Sukirno and Siengthai (2011) reported that increased participation in organizational decision-making resulted in improved job satisfaction.

Participative decision-making and intrinsic motivation

Earlier research suggests that participative behavior of superiors plays a vital role in invoking intrinsic motivation (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Participative leaders recognize and release into an organization power people possess at the base of their internal motivation. This is supported by research showing that a participatory leadership style promoting autonomy enhances intrinsic motivation (Brown & Owusu, 2014).

Available research shows that transformational leadership and participation in decision-making are related to self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction. The present research will study the combined relationship of all these variables as depicted in figure 1. The study is unique because it investigates the complex interplay in the Pakistan profit and non-profit academic context where related research is scarce.

Differences between profit and non-profit academic organization

As described in the introduction, the non-profit universities cannot cope with the increased demand for higher education. Thus, by following the Mid-term Development Framework policy, it has been decided by the government of Pakistan to push for-profit universities in the domain of higher education (Midterm development framework, 2010). The for-profit universities are even partially funded by higher education commission (HEC) in research, faculty development programs, library, and infrastructure by fulfilling the specific terms and conditions set by the Higher Education Commission (HEC). However, there are differences in profit and non-profit universities concerning faculty hiring, students' evaluation, administration, and HRM practices, etc., (Alatrasta & Arrowsmith, 2004). In the literature, differences between the profit and not-for-profit universities have been described. The following five domains can clearly be linked to both leadership and decision-making:

(1) Differences in organizational aims: The goals of academic non-profit organizations are often less clear than for-profit academic organizations. For-profit academic organizations

strive for prestige Rainey (2009) or (research and teaching) performance (Hicks, 2012). This can be related to leadership as reflected in the development of a particular “vision.”

(2) The extent to which the academic organizations are scrutinized: Feeney and Rainey (2010) state non-profit academic organizations face higher levels of red tape, due to expectations about transparency, accountability, and diversity, all of which invoke much paperwork and reporting. This affects all academic dimensions up to HR policies (Word & Park, 2015). In particular, non-profit academic organizations have a more stringent hiring, firing, and promotion system as compared to for-profit academic organizations (McLendon, Hearn, & Deaton, 2006).

(3) The way staff is being motivated: Non-profit academic organizations offer job stability and security; for-profit academic organizations motivate employees through financial incentives, career possibilities, and relative autonomy (Boyne, 2002). Besides, non-profit academic organizations have more limited abilities to tie financial incentives to individual work (Weibel, Rost, & Osterloh, 2010). This introduces a need for stronger intellectual stimulation as reflected in transformational leaders (Ayoubi & Khalifa, 2015). Also, it calls for giving more autonomy in the context of shared decision-making.

(4) Differences in discretionary powers: Nawab and Bhatti (2011) stress non-profit academic organizational management is strongly influenced by bureaucratic mechanisms. For instance, Khang (2015) points at the increase of agency cost and decrease of operational efficiency in academic organizations. In contrast, for-profit academic organizations are run by a board, influenced by financial stakeholders, and their interests. The latter can be linked to shared decision-making (Boyne, 2002). The differences between profit and non-profit academic organizations are not always clear as to the “power” issue. For instance, in the Pakistan case, also governmental politics define the boundaries of non-profit academic organizations; for example, concerning the quality standards to adhere to (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010). This will affect the leadership dimension (Dattey, Westerheijden, & Hofman, 2014).

(5) Differences in accountability: Some believe the values and mission of non-profit academic organizations lead them to be less accountable, and inefficient (Alderman & Carey, 2010), because they lack proper monitoring. In contrast, for-profit academic organizations have to cater for their ‘customers’ and therefore heavily emphasize student satisfaction (Bayraktar, Tatoglu, & Zaim, 2013). Authors emphasize that – particularly in a developing country setting

– both types of academic organizations should be accountable towards society (for example, community involvement, social responsibility). The fact that for-profit academic organizations are more accountable to their external stakeholders that take part in the decision-making process could result in lower levels of participative decision-making (Hunter, 2015).

This brings us to the focus of the present study. The literature is particularly scarce when it comes to leadership and decision-making in Pakistan higher education. It is, therefore, interesting to examine whether the hypothetical complex relationships – presented in our theoretical background – will be different in profit and non-profit universities.

Research design

Research hypothesis

Considering the expected differences between profit and non-profit universities, we put forward the following hypothesis:

Transformational leadership and the level of participative decision-making are associated with university teachers' self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction in profit versus non-profit universities in Pakistan.

Procedure

A survey study was set up, involving university teachers to gather data about the research variables. Informed consent was obtained from all respondents with the help of their head of the departments. Appointments were made with every individual faculty members. Participants were invited to fill out the survey instruments, focusing on their self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction. They also reported about the transformational leadership and participative decision-making keeping their head of the faculty/department in mind. While keeping in the back, the researcher was available when participants required more information about the survey items. After completing the questionnaire, participants received a USB stick as a present, stocked with information and literature about the object of the research.

Sample

A stratified sample was defined. Four universities – two for-profit and two non-profit - were selected from the 34 for-profit and 50 non-profit universities in Punjab province in Pakistan. From each university three faculties, (faculty of sciences, faculty of social sciences, and faculty

of arts & humanities) and five departments from each faculty and a maximum of 10 faculty members from each department were approached to be involved in the data collection. From a total of 489 faculty members in non-profit and for-profit, 218 teachers were willing to participate in the survey study (45 %): university 1, (N=66), university 2, (N=75), university 3, (N=37) and university 4, (N=40). The name of the universities re-coded to ensure anonymity.

Research instruments

Available research instruments were adopted to measure the research variables. In view of studying teacher self-efficacy, a new scale was developed. All research instruments can be found in Appendix A.

The Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI) developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) was used to investigate the perceived adoption of transformational leadership. As already indicated above, these authors distinguish between six behaviors of transformational leadership. Participants were asked to rate their head of the faculty/department on a seven-point Likert scale (from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree”). Sample item: My leader ... fosters collaboration among workgroups. A high internal reliability was reported with Cronbach’s α ranging from .78 to .92 Podsakoff et al., (1990).

To measure perceived participative decision-making (PDM) from university teachers, we adopted the scale developed by (Leithwood, 1992). This PDM survey reflects factors fostering participation in school decisions. The participants were asked to rate their head of the faculty/department on a five-point Likert scale (0 strongly disagree; 4 strongly agree). Sample item: Leadership is broadly distributed among the staff. Reported reliability is Cronbach’s α : .81 Leithwood, (1992).

Several self-efficacy scales were reviewed to be used in the present study – for example, occupational self-efficacy scale by Birgit and Collani (2002), teacher’s self-efficacy scale by (Bandura, 2000), and the self-efficacy scale of (Van, 2003) - none was found applicable to an academic setting. The available scales were about school teacher self-efficacy towards students learning and instructional strategies. However, the nature of self-efficacy of university teachers is different. Thus, building on the guidelines of (Bandura, 2006), a new scale was developed to determine academic self-efficacy of university teachers. In view of each item, respondents were invited to indicate their degree of confidence (from 0 to 100).

Sample item: Master all the subject knowledge in my domain. The reliability of this scale is Cronbach' α : .91.

A 6-item scale of job satisfaction was used as designed by Dewitte and Cuyper (2003). This scale was earlier used in an educational setting by (Hulpia & Devos, 2009). Sample item: I am proud of my job. The scale items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale (from 0 "very dissatisfied" to 4 "very satisfied"). The reported reliability of this scale is Cronbach' α : .86 (Devos, Bouckennooghe, Engles, Hotton, & Aeltermann, 2007).

To measure intrinsic motivation, the 22-item version of intrinsic motivation inventory (IMI) developed by Deci and Ryan (1985) was adopted. Sample item: I found the task very interesting. The reported reliability of this scale is Cronbach' α : .85.

Data analysis

Before the analysis, all variables were examined for accuracy of data entry, missing values, and outliers, following the procedure described by Field (2009). Descriptive statistics was calculated for all research variables. Standardized values were calculated for all research variables (max. score = 10). Since the data in this study are nested within a hierarchical structure, multi-level modeling techniques were adopted to explore the variance at university, faculty, and departmental level. The latter assumption was not confirmed in the initial analysis. Therefore, path analysis was applied to study the research model. Fit indices did not meet the goodness-of-fit benchmarks of Bentler (1990) and Steiger (1990); neither in the measurement model nor via a structural equation modeling multi-group analysis. Literature suggests this could be caused by the small sample size. Therefore, multiple regression techniques were applied. In view of this, multicollinearity was assessed, considering tolerance and VIF measures. SPSS version 20 and AMOS version 9 were used to carry out the analyzes; a significance level of $p < .05$ was put forward.

Research results

Descriptive results

Before analysis, the reliability of all instruments adopted in the present study was checked. High to very high reliability level were observed: TL .94, PDM .85, SE .91, JS .89, and IM .76. Table 1 summarizes the descriptive analysis results for all research variables.

Table 1. Means^a and standard deviations of the research variables (N=218)

Variables	Non-profit		For-profit					
	University 1		University 2		University 3		University 4	
N	N=66		N=75		N=37		N=40	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
TL	6.75	1.61	6.22	1.84	6.60	1.39	7.12	1.43
PDM	6.38	2.08	6.09	2.23	6.36	2.15	6.40	2.17
SE	72.05	14.86	65.93	18.51	72.24	13.05	74.21	12.97
JS	8.45	1.14	8.31	2.06	7.64	1.72	7.88	1.57
IM	6.18	.72	6.17	.74	6.25	.49	6.37	.69

^aMaximum score for each scale is 10; for self-efficacy, it is 100.

In addition, significant correlations have found between most variables. The two predictor variables (TL and PDM) are highly correlated ($r = .69$). TL and PDM are not significantly correlated with self-efficacy. The correlation analysis results indicate that regression can be successfully applied.

Multilevel analysis (Null model)

Multilevel analysis (SPSS, 2011) was adopted to evaluate to what degree the independent variables - transformational leadership and participative decision-making – are associated with self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation. A three-level hierarchical linear model was applied to study the relationship of variables at university, faculty, and departmental level. We centered the Grand Mean for all variables. In a first step, the null model was tested at the university level, showing for self-efficacy an intercept of .037. The variance at the university level for self-efficacy was not significantly different from zero (Wald $Z = .862, p = .389$). For job satisfaction, the intercept at university level was .027, and significant (Wald $Z = .113, p = .484$). No significant variance was found for intrinsic motivation.

A null model was also tested at faculty and department level, but no values were significantly different from zero. Considering these results, the multilevel analysis approach was dropped, and the analysis was carried out at the individual teacher level.

Path analysis

To study the complex interplay of all variables in the research model, a path analysis was conducted. Also, a multi-group analysis was carried out to compare two models, building on data from the for-profit versus non-profit universities. We did not observe acceptable goodness-of-fit indices (CMIN=10.195, $df=2$, $p < .01$; RFI= .699; CFI=.94; TLI=.72; RMSEA=.206). The sample size seems not to be adequate to test the multi-group analysis. We decided to move towards multiple regression analysis.

Regression analysis

Separate linear regression analyses were carried out with both transformational leadership and participative decision-making as predictor variables and SE, JS, and IM as dependent variables. TL and PDM explained a small proportion of variance. Two predictor variables job satisfaction $F(2, 13.18)$; $aR2 = 10\%$, $= p < .05$, and intrinsic motivation significantly account for $F(2, 4.77)$; $aR2 = 34\%$, $= p < .05$.

We can conclude that the amount of variance explained by TL and PDM is rather small. Both predictor variables significantly account for 10.1% of the variance in job satisfaction and 3.4% in intrinsic motivation. These results suggest that our hypothesis cannot be completely accepted.

Table 2 shows the further details of the regression analysis results for the predictor variables TL and PDM. Only in relation to participative decision-making, we observe a significant relationship between job satisfaction. The results imply that an increase of one unit in PDM will result in an increase of .233 in JS.

Table 2. Regression coefficient of dependent variables (N=218)

Variable	Self-efficacy			Job satisfaction			Intrinsic motivation		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>Se B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
TL	-.222	.907	-.023	.050	.092	.048	.023	.039	.055
PDM	.921	.696	.125	.233	.071	.295*	.053	.030	.164

* $p < .05$.

Differences between for-profit and non-profit academic organizations

Since our sample consisted of staff from profit and non-profit universities, a hypothesis was put forward focusing on the potential impact of the different settings. When carrying out multiple regression analyzes on the teacher’s data from the two types of universities, a particular picture emerges. In Table 3, we see differences in explained variance between profit and non-profit universities. TL and PDM explain together a higher proportion of variance in job satisfaction (32%) in for-profit universities as compared to non-profit universities (6.6%). Subsequently, intrinsic motivation has a significant F-value and accounts for 6.1% of the variance in transformational leadership and participative decision-making variables in the non-profit universities. However, self-efficacy hardly has an impact on transformational leadership and participative decision-making in both profit and non-profit universities.

Table 3. Regression analysis with TL and PDM as predictor variables in non-profit (N=141) and for-profit universities (N=77)

Universities		Self-efficacy	Job satisfaction	Intrinsic motivation
Non-profit	<i>F (df=2)</i>	1.03	4.87*	4.46*
	<i>Adjusted R²</i>	1.5%	6.6%	6.1%
For-profit	<i>F (df=2)</i>	.372	17.41*	.444
	<i>Adjusted R²</i>	1%	32.0%	1.2%

p < .05*

In Table 4, we report the regression coefficients. In non-profit universities, a significant relationship is only found between participative decision-making and job satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation. A one-unit increase in PDM results in an increase of .213 in JS and of .082 in IM. In for-profit universities, both transformational leadership and participative decision-making have an impact on job satisfaction. An increase of one unit in TL results in an increase of .394 in JS; an increase of one unit in PDM results in an increase of .216 in JS.

Table 4. Comparison of regression analysis results in profit and non-profit universities

Universities	Variable	Self-efficacy		Job satisfaction			Intrinsic motivation			
		B	SE B	B	B	Se B	β	B	SE B	β
Non-profit	TL	-.770	1.20	-.079	-.020	.116	-.020	.002	.050	.004
	PDM	1.31	.977	.166	.213	.094	.271*	.082	.041	.243*
For-profit	TL	.076	1.355	.008	.394	.142	.343*	.025	.063	.060
	PDM	.568	.900	.094	.216	.095	.283*	.017	.042	.061

$p < .05^*$

On the base of these analysis results, we can partly accept our hypothesis. Transformational leadership and the level of participative decision-making are especially associated with a significant positive increase in university teachers' job satisfaction; both in profit and non-profit universities. Intrinsic motivation has only been found to be significantly associated with PDM in non-profit universities. No significant association is observed between transformational leadership, participative decision-making, and teacher's self-efficacy; neither in profit and non-profit universities.

Discussion

There is a clear lack of leadership studies set up in the context of Pakistan higher education. In an attempt to fill this gap, we investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and participative decision-making with university teachers' self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation in profit and non-profit universities in Pakistan.

From the review of the literature, we know that transformational leadership and participative decision-making have been widely studied in educational institutes (McCann, 2011). The results of the present study confirm to a certain extent that TL and PDM influence teacher-related variables. However, this influence seems to be different from what has been observed in earlier studies. Especially the fact that no relationship with self-efficacy of university teachers in Pakistan was observed and this neither in the non-profit nor the for-profit universities.

The findings demonstrate that transformational leadership has a strong relationship with teachers' job satisfaction; in both types of universities. Our results align with research about the direct and indirect link between TL and JS (Munir et al., 2012). Though most of the research is set up in developed countries, the research findings are also consistent with available research set up in developing countries (Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005).

Likewise, our research model proved that PDM is closely linked to job satisfaction; both in profit and non-profit universities. This matches the findings of earlier research that links PDM to JS in Pakistan (Zia, Khan, & Nouman, 2012). International research also confirms this positive relationship (Somech, 2010).

Transformational leadership is positively associated with intrinsic motivation. Past research demonstrated successful interventions to develop intrinsic motivation in the workplace (Amin, Shah, & Talah, 2013). Surprisingly, we cannot confirm these results. Intrinsic motivation of Pakistan university teachers does not seem to be associated with TL; in both type of universities. Though a moderate level of TL was observed in Pakistan universities, this level might have been too low to compensate for the impact of other variables that challenge university teachers' IM in Pakistan.

In the literature, PDM has predominantly been considered as a key source of intrinsic motivation (Nazir, Shah, & Zaman, 2014). In line with our results, also, (Huang, Lun, Ailiiau, & Gong, 2010) found a relationship between participative leadership and IM. However, in our study, this relationship is weak and restricted to teachers in non-profit universities. As to the for-profit universities, no significant association is found.

Some additional explanations can be put forward to explain our particular results. These build in the context of Pakistan HE. The Higher Education Commission Pakistan (HEC) is trying hard developing a strong centralized system through the professional development of teachers to adopt innovative instructional strategies. These policies include national and international scholarships, teachers training, increasing salary packages, and revising teaching compensation programs, etc. No doubt these initiatives can invoke intrinsic motivation of teachers, but the policies do not start from a TL and PDM point of view. The aims of these central governmental policies clearly center on teacher performance in particular and to improve higher education standards in Pakistan at a general level (Rasheed, Aslam, & Sarwar, 2010).

As to the non-significant link between TL-PDM and IM in for-profit universities, the market position of these universities can explain their lower tendency to adopt PDM since it would result in extra overhead time and result in higher costs. The top leadership is usually involved in policy definitions and decision-making, and these decisions are conveyed to the faculty members. They pay less attention to HRM practices (Arif, 2013).

Self-efficacy has been the focus of organizational research since a long time, but few authors studied SE in relation to TL and PDM. Past research found self-efficacy to be positively linked to transformational leadership (Fitzgerald & Schutte, 2010). Participative decision-making was also found to influence employees' self-efficacy (Lu et al., 2014). The results of the present study do not corroborate these findings. Explanations could be related to the type of SE explored in the Pakistan context. We especially focused on "academic" self-efficacy. The question is whether – in the current Pakistan situation and the universities under study – TL and PDM sufficiently focus on these issues. If leadership or decision-making is not closely linked to these personal, academic tasks of staff, our findings are less surprising.

Also, comparable to other institutions in Pakistan, HEIs are not yet stable organizations with established leadership practices. Being a developing country, Pakistan is struggling to improve the institutions. A remarkable initiative is the development of the Accreditation Council for Teacher Education (ACTE), which is recently established at national level, the core purpose is to develop specific standards and requirements for teacher education programs and HEIs. This has recently resulted in the release of "National Standards for Accreditation of Teacher Education Programs" that focus on the seven aspects (National Standards for Accreditation of Teacher Education Programs, 2009).

A promising fact is that some of these aspects are linked to leadership and decision-making. The latter explanations put forward the strong impact of the policy context in which HEIs have to taken up their role. Our findings have particular implications for the Pakistan context related to leadership training intervention. Literature becomes particularly scarce when it comes to train leaders in HE context. The focus on leadership development is also reinforced by Steinert, Naismith, and Mann (2012) who suggest that leadership development is an underutilized strategy in most universities. Our results also provoked a consistent call for a leadership training program in universities (Day, Fleeno, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014).

Limitations

The latter already suggests that our findings have to be discussed in relation to certain limitations. First, decision-making and leadership approaches were studied on the base of survey instruments. Next to the fact that surveys build on perceptions instead of factual information, the instruments could also have been insufficiently geared to the Pakistan HE context. The same applies to the way job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy were measured. Qualitative research set up in a preliminary phase could have helped to determine the nature of these research variables in Pakistan universities. The results could help to (re) design the research instruments.

Also, the qualitative data could contribute to frame the divergent quantitative findings. Another shortcoming of our study is a number of teachers, departments, faculty, and universities involved. Though, we based the sampling on a stratification framework, this might still be insufficient to capture the population variance. Future studies should reiterate the current design by involving at least other universities from other provinces. Lastly, the voice of the leaders themselves was not considered. Next to surveys, interviews involving heads of departments, deans, and vice-chancellors could help to identify the particular nature and interpretation of leadership and decision-making approaches in Pakistan universities.

Conclusion

The present study focused on the complex interplay of transformational leadership, participative decision-making with intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, and job satisfaction in Pakistan universities. We identified a definite link between TL and PDM with job satisfaction. Also, the relationship between intrinsic motivation could be detected to a certain extent. However, no significant association with self-efficacy could be observed. Our findings are therefore not completely in line with earlier research. We referred tentatively to the particular setting of both sector universities to explain these differences. Future research can build on this benchmark study, to explore the full complex of the related variables in Pakistan HE. Next to a reiteration of this study - involving more universities from more provinces - qualitative studies should be set up involving university leaders and teachers to develop a deeper understanding of leadership practices and the related decision-making as currently practiced in higher education Pakistan.

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Appendix A:

Transformational leadership inventory

Select one of the choices by using the scale below:

Strongly Disagree Disagree Slightly Disagree Neutral Slightly Agree Agree Strongly Agree
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Sr#	Statements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Encourage employees to be "team players"							
2	Provides a good model to follow							
3	Shows us that he/she expects a lot from us							
4	Has ideas that have forced me to rethink some of my own ideas							
5	Inspires others with his/her plans for the future							
6	Leads by examples							
7	Gets the group to work together for the same goal							
8	Has a clear understanding of where we are going							
9	Fosters collaboration among work groups							
10	Leads by "doing" rather than simply by "telling"							
11	Is able to get other committed to his/her dream of the future							
12	Behaves in a manner that is thoughtful of my personal needs							
13	Develops a team attitude and spirit among his/her employees							
14	Will not settle for second best							
15	Is always seeking a new opportunities for the department/faculty/university							
16	Paints an interesting picture of the future for our group							
17	Treats me without considering my personal feelings							
18	Has provided me with new ways of looking at things that used to be a puzzle for me							
19	Acts without considering my feelings							
20	Has stimulated me to think about old problems in new ways							
21	Insists on only the best performance							
22	Shows respect for my personal feelings							

Participative decision-making scale

Select one of the choices by using the scale below:

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree
0 **1** **2** **3** **4**

Sr#	Statements	0	1	2	3	4
1	Leadership is delegated for activities critical for achieving school goals					
2	Leadership is broadly distributed among the staff					
3	We have an adequate involvement in decision making					
4	There is an effective committee structure for decision making					
5	Effective communication among staff is facilitated					
6	There is an appropriate level of autonomy in decision making					

Job satisfaction scale

Select one of the choices by using the scale below:

Strongly Agree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Disagree
0 1 2 3 4

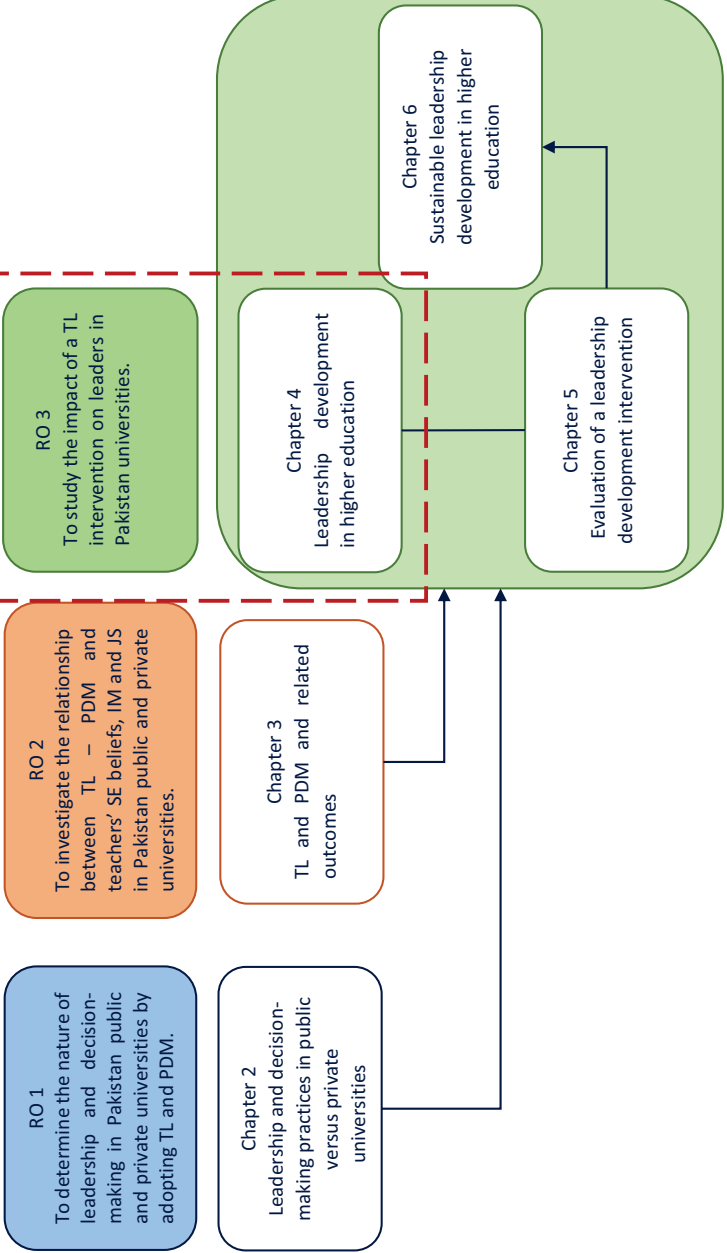
Sr#	Statements	0	1	2	3	4
1	My job has more advantages than disadvantages					
2	I'm proud of my job					
3	My job inspire me					
4	I'm very enthusiastic about my job					
5	In the morning I like to go to work					
6	I'm really absorbed in my work					

4 Leadership development in higher education

This chapter is based on:

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Chapter 1: General introduction



Chapter 7: General discussion and conclusion

Chapter 4

Leadership development in higher education

Abstract

In the literature, there is a clear gap between the number of studies about the nature of leadership practices and studies reporting about the impact of leadership training programs. The aim of the empirical study reported in this article was to raise academic leaders' awareness in view of adopting transformational leadership behavior. Leaders from a public sector university were involved in a training intervention program. Content analysis of interviews data collected before and after the training helped to check the impact of the training program. Compared to the "before" training situation, we find clear differences in the awareness level of leaders reflecting an impact of the training intervention program related to TL-behaviors. Next to limitations of the study, the article focuses on the design of future research.

Introduction

Among the other challenges in academic organizations, authors present leadership development as one of the most critical challenges for the future (Bolden et al., 2012). Brown already stated in 2001 that the changes in quality requirements, demands from the public, funding agencies, and new technological demands, ... requires "leaders who thrive on the challenge of change" (p.312). Leadership development programs in academic organizations raise a series of questions. For instance, what should be the features of leadership development program? What policies are needed to sustain leadership development programs? Is training sufficient to meet leadership challenges in higher education?

At the same time, this introduces a critical debate about leadership styles. Shared and distributed leadership approaches dominate the literature (Bolden et al., 2012) that strongly builds on Ramsden (1998) argumentation that shared leadership in academic organizations is - rather than being based on a hierarchy - to be approached as "how people relate to each other." Bryman (2007) supports this notion by stressing that - within academic organizations - leaders foster a balance between support, autonomy, and academic staff expectations. This results in an emphasis on the transformational style of leadership.

The current situation calls for leadership that supports the transformation of organizations to be able to tackle the changes in academic organizations. This accounts for our rationale to put forward a focus on transformational leadership. An empirical study design was set up to study the impact of the intervention involving leaders of particular departments in a public university in Pakistan.

Theoretical background

Leadership development programs

Both theory and practice suggest the need for leadership preparation programs. Higher education - in developed and developing countries - face growing pressure to ensure high-quality teaching and learning outcomes (Al-Husseini & Elbeltagi, 2014). Within higher education, leadership development programs, therefore, reach a critical level of importance (Madsen, 2012). Ruben (2004) writes in this context: "leaders with exceptional capabilities are needed to help the institution meet these challenges" (p. 288).

Despite the fact there is growing literature centering on leadership development (Stigmar, 2008), most literature mainly stresses the complex and multifaceted leadership development process, points at potential ways to enhance leadership development, or shows pathways to study leadership practices (Day & Harrison, 2007). The extensive review study of Dinh et al. (2014) who scrutinized ten top-tier academic publications in the period 2000 to 2012, concluded that only 9% of the articles focused on concrete leadership development studies. This is in sharp contrast to the emphasis on the need for leadership development.

Training duration is crucial in leadership development programs. In his seminal paper, Conger (1993); McCall (2004) criticizes current training approaches: haphazard, occasional skills-building exercises, focusing on concepts, focus on top leaders only, and outdoor training. He points at the need for systematic training with a focus on close contact with the target group, action learning, focus both on top and middle management, on junior and senior management, focus on long-term goals, move beyond awareness to action, and emphasis on reflection. But the authors acknowledge that, considering the profile of training participants - senior managers/executives, CEOs, vice-chancellors, deans, heads, and program coordinators - it is difficult to engage them in long-lasting leadership development programs. Lastly, these authors stress that group size is critical in leadership development programs. Empirical

evidence proved that engaging a too large group is challenging. Available studies mirror small sample sizes; e.g., Gilpin-Jackson and Bushe (2007) involved a sample of 18 participants, similarly De Vries et al. (2009) involved 11 senior executive in their LD program and Inman (2011) included 18 leaders in her study.

Interventions focusing on leadership development in academic organizations

The literature is particularly scarce when it comes to research about training leaders in the higher education context. Next to Davies, Hides, and Casey (2001); Kulati (2003), also other authors suggest that higher education should learn from the corporate sector while adopting a more entrepreneurial outlook. In this context, the focus on leadership development is reinforced by Brown (2001) who suggests “leadership development is an underutilized strategy in higher education” (p.313). Steinert, Naismith, and Mann (2012) indicated in their review of higher education leadership training approaches - set up in the medical education field - that from the initial 530 studies set up between 1985 and 2010, only 19 studies focused on 14 interventions with leadership as a primary focus. This is in line with the findings of the meta-analysis study of Collins and Holton III (2004) who concluded only 10 percent of the training interventions studies published between 1982 and 2001, focused on leadership development.

The current research article addresses this omission and studies the impact of a leadership development intervention in a higher education context.

Transformational leadership in academic organizations

Abundant literature is available discussing types of leadership approaches (DuBrin, 2012). In the present article, we focus on transformational leadership. Transformational leadership theory received large attention from scholars in the new millennium. Empirical research also shows a significant amount of interest in transformational leadership with respect to leadership development (Dinh et al., 2014).

Transformational leadership is a multidimensional concept. Its behaviors are still being discussed, but most approaches share the perspective that effective leaders transform or change the fundamental values, beliefs, and attitudes of followers. The latter will make them willing to perform beyond the minimum levels specified by the organization (Bass & Riggio, 2008). The essence of transformational leadership as described by Brown (2001), “this type of

leaders (...) thrive due to the challenge of change; foster an environment of innovation; encourage trust and learning, and (...) can lead themselves, their constituents and units, departments and universities successfully into the future" (p.312). In this context, Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) presented six behaviors of transformational leadership: articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high-performance expectations, providing individualized support, and intellectual stimulation.

Articulating a vision

Transformational leaders passionately believe they can make a difference by envisioning the future and creating an ideal and unique image of the organization. They articulate an ideology that enhances goal clarity, task focus, and value congruence; such a vision ascend positive and hopeful outlook in their followers (Kouzes & Posner, 1995).

Providing an appropriate role model

Gmelch, Reason, Schuh, and Shelley (2002) explained this behavior as modeling, implying that leaders go first. To model the way, leaders adopt a philosophy, a set of high standards by which the organization is measured. They model principles concerning the way people should be treated, and the way goals should be pursued. They believe that consistency between words and deeds builds their credibility as transformational leaders (Bass, 1985a).

Fostering the acceptance of group goals

Fostering group goals is likely to promote collaboration, cooperation, and harmony among group members and encourage them to be team players (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993) also favored this behavior of the transformational leadership. According to their view, it encourages leaders, (1) to develop a common or shared vision of the desired outcomes of the group efforts, and (2) to share responsibility for them to developing joint strategies and actions to achieve the common goals.

High-performance expectations

Successful leaders expect the best from their employees and themselves. They must provide clear directions, feedback, and encouragement (Rousche, Geropge, & Robert, 1989). In this way, the leader raises followers' expectations and inspires action by communicating confidence that they can achieve these ambitious goals (Bass, 1985a).

Providing individualized support

In order to foster supportive relationships, transformational leaders keep open lines of communication. This helps followers to feel free sharing ideas, and it invokes in leaders direct recognition of the unique contributions of each staff member (Bass & Riggio, 2008). Bass (1985b) stated that a leader – focusing on individuals - provides socio-emotional support to empower followers to realize their highest potential.

Intellectual stimulation

This leadership behavior encompasses behavior that increases followers' interest in and awareness of problems and develops their ability and propensity to think about problems in new ways (Bass, 1985a). The effects of the intellectual stimulation are reflected in follower's ability to conceptualize, comprehend, analyze problems, and are reflected in the quality of solutions being generated (Bass & Avolio, 1990). A transformational leader can determine the intellectual capacities of subordinates and can decide on the tasks that can be assigned to subordinates (Bass, 1985b).

Research design

Research question

Aiming at an increase in all behaviors of transformational leadership, due to a focused training, we put forward the following research question: *To what extent will an experimental training intervention, inducing reflection on behaviors of transformational leadership, significantly increase related awareness in a public sector university leaders in Pakistan?*

Procedure

On the base of the results of an earlier survey study (Zulfqar, Valcke, Devos, Tuytens, & Shahzad, 2016), we could confirm that leadership in Pakistan universities can be considered as transformational in nature. In addition, some differences were identified between leaders of public and private universities as to particular behaviors of transformational leadership. To strengthen academic leadership, we developed a focused training for university leaders to strengthen their personal awareness about transformational leadership behaviors in their work setting. An empirical study was set-up to explore changes in their TL-behaviors before and after the training. Semi-structured interviews were designed, based on the six behaviors of transformational leadership. All participants were interviewed before and after the training.

Informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to the first interview after giving information about the nature of the study, the way data would be treated and the fact the interview was being audiotaped.

Taking into account the agenda of the leaders we split the sample (nine leaders) into two groups and conducted one session per week for each group. Overall, six training sessions, each lasting two hours, were set up by the first and the second author of this article. The content of the training sessions was defined on the base of an in-depth literature review about the six TL-behaviors. Each training session focused on a particular TL-behavior. Next to the conceptual base, concrete examples and cases were added that fit the Pakistan university setting and that were collected during earlier survey studies (Zulfqar et al., 2016) involving Pakistan leaders. The real-life examples and cases helped to contextualize leadership practices within the university setting of the participants. Next to the conceptual base and the cases/examples, the leaders were presented with concrete problems to be solved during the session. The problem solution was carried out with the Metaplan technique (Metaplan, 2000). This implied that each leader started by giving individual input about the problem solution on colored card. Next, these cards were put on a whiteboard and discussed by the group through (1) prioritizing ideas or (2) structuring the ideas (clusters, order, and importance) or (3) giving personal examples. In addition, during each session, leaders were presented with a role-playing, and they could listen to exemplary audio clips (recorded during earlier survey studies) (Zulfqar et al., 2016) from other leaders discussing a particular TL-behavior. At the end of each session, a video-clip was presented – developed by the second author of this article – summarizing and recapitulating the key concepts, some examples and wrapping up the session by referring to the former and subsequent TL training session.

The training took place in a central building of the local university setting. The training tried to implement the “*learn and practice*” principle. Leaders did not only learn “about” the real, transformational leadership behaviors and related practices, but they also experienced this through Metaplan based problem solving, through role play, and by discussing the audio-clips building on their understanding develop through the training. No homework was assigned to participants, but take-home messages were given to prompt leaders how to improve their leadership practices. A training outline based on the six TL-behaviors can be found in Table 1.

Sample

In an earlier study, a stratified sample was defined, building on a total of 34 private and 50 public universities situated in Punjab, one of the main provinces of Pakistan (Zulfqar et al., 2016). From this sample, one public university was selected to be involved in a first intervention study. This university was chosen at random and negotiations resulted in a willingness to participate in the training. In total, 15 leaders were invited to participate. These leaders were from three different faculties reflecting different scientific field (arts and humanities, natural sciences, and social sciences). However, only nine participants could take part in all six sessions due to time constraints. Only the data of these nine participants were considered in view of the qualitative data analysis.

The average age of the respondents was 45-60; average years of experience was 10-30. Participants assumed a range of leadership roles and responsibilities at the faculty (dean) and departmental level (head of the department). Names of participants and the university were re-coded to ensure anonymity.

Data collection

As stated above, a semi-structured interview was designed based on the six TL-behaviors. An interview protocol was developed to guide a strict interview scenario, starting with an introduction to the research topic and information handed over after the interview. Fifteen participants were interviewed prior to the training; however in total nine participants were interviewed and could attend all sessions of the training program. The drop-out was not systematic and mostly due to unexpected rescheduling of priority work or travel. On average, each interview lasted 30 to 45 minutes before the training and 15 to 25 minutes after the training. All interviews were audiotaped in view of the analysis.

Data analysis

Building on the methodology suggested by Matthew, Miles, and Huberman (1994), each interview was transcribed verbatim in view of the analysis. WeftQDA (2004) was used to manage the data. The researcher coded all transcripts. Content analysis was carried out, to determine the content units for analysis based on the six behaviors of transformational leadership. A deductive method was adopted to develop a category matrix. Next, interview

data were reviewed for interpretations and reflections of the identified categories related to each TL-behavior (Polit & Beck, 2004).

The analysis focused on identifying differences before and after training results. The findings from a content analysis can be presented in a quantitative form. Following the study design and analysis, coded data can be compared meaningfully using frequencies and percentages of codes (Curtis et al., 2001). Thus, calculated frequencies and percentages are presented in Table 2.

Subsequently, a second researcher coded all the nine transcripts. The resulting inter-rater reliability was 94% (Matthew et al., 1994). We attempted to maximize consistency by using a protocol, digital recording, and systematic data analysis. Transferability to other contexts was limited because of the empirical nature of the study.

Results

We structure this result section by looking first at the general picture that could be developed from the interviews, set up prior to the training. In relation to this “baseline,” we indicate what leaders mainly point at in relation to each TL-behavior. In the second phase, we describe what leaders stress after the training. As will become evident, a much broader picture can be developed building on the ideas leaders put forward about the six particular TL-behaviors.

Transformational leadership baseline results prior to the training intervention

Before the training intervention, the interview data reflect a - basic - awareness in leaders about all six TL-behaviors. We will center on categories observed in most leaders’ responses. Details are available in Table 2.

Articulating a vision, two out of five categories – identified in the literature – dominate leader responses. Leaders emphasize in the interview (53.85%) that a leader has to envision the future for their faculty/department. Despite this apparent emphasis on envisioning, articulating the vision is stressed to a lesser extent. In 28.20% of the interview data related to this TL-behavior, leaders stressed they articulate the vision through formal and informal meetings with faculty members. Hardly indicators were identified that reflect the categories goal clarity (10.26%), task focus (5.13%), and positive energy in the followers (2.56%). We can conclude that in connection to this TL-behavior, the baseline in leaders – involved in this research - is less developed. This is particularly clear in the following quote:

“If a leader has an exposure then his vision will be broader too. He can set an inspiring vision for his department with the help of his extensive experience.”

Providing an appropriate role model, we look for four categories as identified in the literature. The majority of the leaders stated a leader has to *set the standards to treat people* (37.14%). A great amount of leader’s responses stressed a leader has to *set an example for others* (31.43%). The others two categories hardly reflected in the interviews, *set high standards for himself* (20%) and *set the standards to pursue the goals* (4%).

Five categories have been identified in the literature as to setting the **high-performance expectations**. Most leaders (31.70%) believe in *giving and taking feedback*. A significant amount of leaders *expects the best performance* (29.26%) from their colleagues. Responses from the leaders stressed (24.40%), before setting the high expectations for the colleagues a leader must provide them *clear directions* to achieve the set goals/objectives. As to the other two categories, we find the relevant responses to a lesser extent, *appreciation/encouragement* (2.44%) and *give them the confidence to achieve the goals* (12.20%). To sum up, leaders do not set standards as to the nature of this high performance. As to the feedback, they only center on student feedback.

Two categories have been identified as to **fostering the acceptance of group goals**, the majority of the leaders *promote collaboration* (60%) among their faculty members. Interview data shows that (40%) leaders develop *joint strategies to achieve the shared goals*. But this collaboration is limited to administrative tasks, where leaders constitute committees in view of dealing with assignments. On the other hand, they mainly involve volunteering staff members. One of the leaders said:

“They work together to some extent. Sometimes they have a difference of opinion and conflicts. I usually, tried to continue with those colleagues who fulfill their responsibilities.” (BZF2H3)

“If you ask about administrative tasks, I would say yes, they do. But in science disciplines you cannot put constraints on the faculty members to work together.” (BZF1H4)

Providing individualized support, we find responses in relation to three categories. Leaders emphasize in the interview (43.19%) they *provide socio/emotional support* to their colleagues. Many leaders also stressed to *open lines of communication* (36.36%) with their colleagues. Few responses from the leaders (20.45%) *foster a supportive relationship* with their colleagues. Overall they stress routines. They are not clear about how to offer support to the faculty members. One of the leaders said:

“I stay involved with them, but I talk to them individually because if I talk to them collectively they have conflicts, and that flare them up.”(BZF3H1)

Four categories have been identified as to the **intellectual stimulation behavior**, but these are reflected in the data in an unbalanced way. A substantial amount of leaders appreciate their faculty members (40.55%). Up to 21.63% of the statements are related to *reward/prize*. The leaders somewhat stressed to *invoke creativity* of their faculty members (16.21%). Interview data also hardly reflected responses as to providing a *conducive working environment* (5.40%). Overall, key elements of this TL-behavior are not well represented in leader’s input. They mostly talk about appreciation/encouragement/rewards despite knowing that intellectual stimulation is essential to raise creativity in the workplace.

Transformational leadership results after the training intervention

In the next section, we present the categories identified in relation to each TL-behavior after the training intervention.

Articulating a vision

Prior to the training, university leaders only emphasized on two categories. After the training, leaders show awareness about all five categories as identified in the literature. In addition, a larger number of statements can be found in relation to this behavior. We discuss them as structured in table 2.

Leaders stressed on *envisioning the future* (18.18%). They stated that a leader has to envision the future first and then he can set and articulate the vision of his faculty/department. A leader explains this idea:

“A leader should envision his vision based on the ground realities, e.g., available resources, manpower, capabilities of the colleagues, and then he should set his vision accordingly.” (BZF3H4)

Most inputs of leaders were in relation to articulation the vision to achieve the goals (33.77%), as explained by a leader:

“Articulation of the vision is important, not only informing them about the vision, but to develop strategies together to translate the vision into action.” (BZF3H4)

Many leaders stressed *goal clarity* (24.67%). A leader should be clear about the goals and objectives of the faculty/department. Then articulate those clear goals to his/her colleagues. One of the leaders said:

“A leader should clearly articulate the goals and objectives to his colleagues and then regular meetings are important to achieving those objectives.” (BZF1H3)

Several leaders emphasize *task focus* (16.88%). They believe that a leader has to challenge his faculty members time to time to keep them on the right track. One of the leaders said:

“I challenge my teachers from time to time, to keep them focus to achieve the vision. In doing so, teachers do not get lazy, and they do not forget the goals and objectives of the department. If you do not remind them about the targets, then they will forget. In the end, you will not achieve anything.” (BZF3H2)

Only one category in this TL-behavior was observed to a lesser extent: *positive energy in the followers* (6.50%).

It is important to note that all five categories are being put forward by the leaders. This suggests that the awareness level of leaders has increased after the training (N 77 as compared to 39).

Providing an appropriate role model

Prior to the training, leaders were not clear how they could be a role model for their faculty members. This picture has changed after the training. The majority of the leaders stressed

that the *leader set an example* (40%) for his colleagues. After the training, leaders were well aware how they can be a role model for their faculty members.

“If I expect teachers to be regular in their lectures and on the other hand, I am not doing so, then I cannot convince them to be regular. First, the leader, has to set an example for others.”
(BZF3H4)

Many leaders stressed *setting high standards for himself* (22%). They believe that leader’s efficiency and dedication are imperative being a role model.

“If I am up to the mark in the departmental matters, then they respect me.” (BZF3H1)

The responses from the leaders frequently reflected the next category: *set the standard to treat people* (28%).

“Your positive behavior matters a lot. If I am polite with my colleagues, and respond to them quickly, they will respect me. If any of the teachers is embarrassed or not performing well, do not insult him, and treat him with respect.” (BZUF2H2)

Only one category was expressed to a lesser extent: *set the standards to pursue goals* (10%).

In relation to this TL-behavior, we observed the definite change in their awareness level (N 100 as compared to 35). They are now well aware of the fact how a credible leader can close the gap between saying and doing. They also realize that action is more important than saying. They enriched their input by quoting multiple examples of being a role model.

High-performance expectations

In relation to high-performance expectations, the literature suggests that the leader *provides clear directions* (19.38%) to their colleagues to perform best in their respective domains.

“Providing clear directions to achieve the targets are imperative.” (BZF1H1)

Several leaders *expect the best from their colleagues* (27.55%). A leader explains:

“Without setting standards you cannot expect the best from your colleagues. If we do not set or follow the standards, we will lose our position/ranking.” (BZF1H3)

Few leaders also believe in *giving the confidence to achieve the goals* (12.25%).

“Standards are set by the university. We sit together and discuss how to achieve the set targets. So, colleagues come and share their ideas, we develop a policy together. In this way, they feel confident to meet the targets.” (BZF3H4)

Prior to the training intervention, the interview data reflected most input related to the category *“giving and taking feedback.”* Additionally, before the training, leaders also focused solely on feedback from students about teacher performance. After the training, leaders stressed especially giving and taking feedback. (34.70%). One of the leaders said:

“Feedback is essential, however, the right way of giving and taking feedback both from teachers and students. The leader should also provide feedback to their teachers on their performance formally and informally.” (BZF3H1)

As to the next category, *appreciation/encouragement*, few responses were identified in this category (6.12%).

The findings about high-performance expectations are interesting because – compared to prior to the training intervention - leaders have clearly evolved and present a larger (N 98 as compared to 41) and richer variety of awareness elements.

Fostering the acceptance of group goals

The picture in relation to this behavior has clearly changed. Leaders now emphasized on how a leader can *develop joint strategies to achieve the shared goals* (50.70%).

“We have been facing problems in exam supervisions. After attending the training, I realized the importance of shared work. We recently have exams in our department, and I constitute committees to work together and to help each other. Now, the exam system is more peaceful and efficient than before.” (BZF1H5)

Another leader said:

“My teachers are working together. However, after the training, I encourage them to work together and to share their expertise with each other in research projects.” (BZF1H2)

Next, leaders also stressed to *promote the collaboration* among faculty members (49.30%). After the training, they are clearer about promoting the collaboration with their faculty/department.

“I also encourage them to coordinate in activities, and if they require my help, I am always available to them.” (BZF1H3)

After the training intervention, interview data reflect an increase in awareness level about this behavior (N 71 as compared to 30). Prior to the training, leaders were imprecise about fostering the acceptance of group goals. After the intervention, we perceive that leaders present a broader picture.

Providing individualized support

A definite increase in the amount and nature of indicators for support related behavior could be observed. Leaders expressed a clear willingness to provide support and seemed to adopt a variety of ways to do this. For instance, a substantial amount of leaders' interview responses showed leaders adopt *open lines communication* (35.86%).

“I call them in my office. I also go and talk to them in their offices. I always encourage them to come to my desk if they require help or support.” (BAZ1H3)

Interview responses reflected leaders input related to *foster a supportive relationship* with their colleagues (25%).

“I share my experiences with my colleagues to motivate them. If they are reluctant to start their project or get stuck, I work with them first, to motivate them.” (BZF3H2)

The majority of the leaders stressed that they provide *socio/emotional support* to their colleagues (39.14%):

“I try to create an environment where my colleagues feel relaxed to say everything; even they can share their problems with me. I always try to help them. I create a friendly environment. I am ultimately involved with them in the work.” (BZF1H2)

To sum up, after the intervention, the training seemed to have developed more and new insights in relation to providing individualized support (N 92 as compared to 44). Leaders stressed a supportive relationship depended on an open door policy.

Intellectual stimulation

After the training intervention, results showed awareness of giving staff non-financial rewards to invoke intellectual stimulation. The majority of the leaders *appreciate* their teachers (24.47%), they also give them *reward/prize* in recognition to their efforts (41.50%). A leader said:

“I learned through training that there are many ways to motivate your team other than providing financial rewards, e.g., appreciate them, say well done, give a pat on their back and provide them a spacious office place in recognition for their efforts, etc.” (BZF1H1)

Many leaders reported to invoke creativity in faculty members (17.02%), as a leader stated:

“I provide them opportunities to interact with scholars and seniors related to their fields. In this way, they will learn new ideas that enhance their motivation towards work.” (BZF1H1)

Fewer leaders think motivation will enhance work performance of their colleagues (12.76%):

“It is in a human nature to be appreciated. People like to listen to good comments about themselves. So it is better to motivate them in relation to their performance.” (BZF2H4)

As to developing a *conducive working environment*, leaders hardly mention this category (4.25%).

Leaders stress to a much larger extent this type of behavior (N 94 as compared to 37). Leaders were now clear how to use non-financial rewards to invoke intellectual stimulation.

They expressed a deeper understanding of the nature of non-financial rewards. This was explicitly discussed during the training and much appreciated given the limitations in the central financial system that does not allow offering extra financial incentives.

Discussion & conclusion

There is a lack of leadership intervention studies in the context of higher education. To fill this gap, we developed a leadership training intervention based on transformational leadership conceptions, training approaches, and by involving academic leaders of a Pakistan University. Based on the literature we identified indicators of change in leader's awareness related to the six transformational leadership behaviors. After the training intervention, our results confirm a positive change in awareness about leaders' roles and practices. This increase in awareness through leadership training program is comparable to what was found in the study of De Vries et al. (2009) who organized a TL development program for executives. Also, the study of Day (2000) found the same results. His results are also incorporated – next to an impact on self-awareness – an increase in self-regulation. Academic leaders reflect the change in their awareness level in all the TL-behavior. This is also in line with what Kegan (1982) called perspective-taking capacity, Kegan and other constructivist theorists argue that a person's developmental level "influences what they notice or can become aware of, and therefore, what they can describe, reflect on, and change" (McCauley, Drath, Palus, O'Connor, & Baker, 2006). In addition, Hannum and Martineau (2008) stress that next to changes in awareness, they could observe positive changes in organizational culture, enhance and improved perceived quality, and efficiency of leaders. Barrett and Barrett (2007) found in their research, leadership development programs were being implemented and there was a belief by some at the 'centre' that there was a strong correlation between successful departments and the capabilities of heads.

The literature is particularly scarce when it comes to the impact of the training intervention on particular TL-behaviors after a leadership development intervention. No study explicitly focused on the six TL-behaviors as identified by Podsakoff et al., (1990). Thus, it is difficult to contrast our research findings with the results of comparable studies; especially in the higher education setting. Nevertheless, we build on comparable studies, set up in a corporate, military or a school setting. This helps to discuss the impact on four TL-behaviors. In relation

to two TL-behaviors no comparable studies were found: “providing individualized support” and “providing an appropriate role model.”

As to *articulating a vision*, De Vries et al. (2009) observed a significant increase in related awareness standards of leaders in his study set up in a business organization context. The focus of their study was ‘change in behavior’ and what transformational leadership transform in leaders, when studying TL-related behavior.

As to *fostering the acceptance of group goals*, our findings can be confirmed by looking at the types and amount of impact of leadership development training programs studied by (Hannum & Martineau, 2008). They reported that - after leadership training - better collaboration towards shared goals among team/group members was observed. In a comparable but observational study, Blackmore (2007); De Vries et al. (2009) reported a significant increase in leader awareness about group goals. Attaining this impact, seemed not a straightforward result.

Our positive impact on *intellectual stimulation* is comparable to the findings of (Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, & Hopkins, 2006). In their transformational leadership development program, they reported improvement in teacher motivation, capabilities, and performance. They conclude that a leadership development training can not only enhance leaders’ efficiency, but the latter will also be reflected in teachers' behavior.

Our study findings are also in line as to research reported about changes in *high-performance expectations*. Some studies reported an impact on leader expectations and a subsequent impact on faculty members (Leithwood et al., 2006). To meet the high expectations, feedback has been reported to be a critical training element. In their quasi-experimental study of senior managers in a company, De Vries et al. (2009); Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, and Kucine (2003) conclude managers – after training - believe in multisource feedback related to their performance. They solicit their subordinates to improve performance standards in the organization and also the other way around; they give feedback to the subordinates as to their performance.

Limitations

The results of this study show that already after six weeks, leaders reported a growing awareness in relation to six TL-behaviors. However, some limitations of the present study have to be acknowledged.

First, We only involved a small sample from one university in a focused six-week intervention. This methodological constraint calls for a larger sample, involving staff from different (private and public) universities in a longer lasting intervention. As to the latter, methodological requirements have to be balanced with the daily reality of university management. Involving a large number of university leaders over a longer period of time is often marred by the facts leaders are often not available, or leaders change, or internal and external policy developments impose strategic changes in choices, finances, priorities, that go beyond the authority of an individual leader (Conger, 1993). This implies that long-term interventions will automatically be thwarted by developments in an uncontrolled academic environment.

Second, we adopt a qualitative research methodology, building on interviews that could be enriched with data from observations. This could allow going beyond studying awareness as perceived by the leaders and to center on behavioral changes. In addition, a mixed method design could look for a confirmation of changes in related quantitative data, resulting from, e.g., surveys. Lastly, we did only involve leaders in our research methodology. The intervention impact could also be studied by interviewing or studying staff and by analyzing their perspective on changes in related TL-behaviors. Likewise, the impact of the training could also be studied at a later stage and not only right after the training.

As described, only nine out of the initial 15 leaders were involved in all weekly sessions. Although, the present study was set up with the full support of the vice-chancellor of the particular university, the importance of leadership training could have been considered as a stronger policy priority. The importance of leadership training is often “accepted,” but not prioritized. The latter could be enhanced by discussing leadership development at the macro level with, e.g., the Higher Education Commission, who could define this as a quality indicator of state-of-the-art universities. This could be linked to the definition of new standards for higher education. In this context, higher education could learn from the corporate sector

where investment in leadership training is accepted as a keystone in organizational development (Van der Voet, 2014).

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Appendix A:

Table 1. Training framework

Time: 2 Hours (Each session)

Behavior	Session framework
Articulating a vision	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concept of articulating a vision <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leader’s role in articulating the vision • Develop a clear, inspiring vision • Communicate an inspiring vision • Continuously challenging people to remain focused on the vision • Provide support to achieve your vision
Providing an appropriate role model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concept of appropriate role model • Clarify values • Find your voice <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affirmed shared values, Reflection and Action • Set the Example <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflection and Action: Setting the example
High-performance expectations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concept of high-performance expectations • Set high expectations • Feedback <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Constructive feedback • Destructive feedback
Fostering the acceptance of group goals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concept of fostering the acceptance of group goals • Create a climate of trust • Team cohesion <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Role of leader in team cohesion
Providing individualized support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concept of providing individualized support • Open door policy • Showing support <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing support for staff and volunteers
Intellectual stimulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concept of intellectual stimulation • To develop creativity • Work motivation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Categories of nonfinancial rewards

Appendix B:

Table 2. Summary of the study findings

Behavior	Pre-training		Post-training	
	Frequencies	Percentages	Frequencies	Percentages
Articulation a vision				
Envisioning the future	21	53.85	14	18.18
Goal clarity	4	10.26	19	24.67
Task focus	2	5.13	13	16.88
Positive energy in the followers	1	2.56	5	6.50
Articulation	11	28.20	26	33.77
	N=39	100	N=77	100
Providing an appropriate role model				
Leader set an example	11	31.43	40	40
Set high standard for himself	7	20	22	22
Set the standard to treat people	13	37.14	28	28
Set the standard to pursue goals	4	11.43	10	10
	N=35	100	N=100	100
High-performance expectations				
Expect the best from employees	12	29.26	27	27.55
Provide clear directions	10	24.40	19	19.38
Appreciation/Encouragement/Reward/Prize	1	2.44	6	6.12
Give them confidence to achieve goals	5	12.20	12	12.25
Give & take feedback	13	31.70	34	34.70
	N=41	100	N=98	100

Leadership development in higher education

Fostering the acceptance of group goals					
Promote collaboration	18	60	35	49.30	
Develop joint strategies to achieve shared goals	12	40	36	50.70	
	N=30	100	N=71	100	
Providing individualized support					
Open lines of communication	16	36.36	33	35.86	
Foster supportive relationship	9	20.45	23	25	
Provide socio/emotional support	19	43.19	36	39.14	
	N=44	100	N=92	100	
Intellectual stimulation					
Invoke creativity	6	16.21	16	17.02	
Appreciation	15	40.55	23	24.47	
Reward/Prize	8	21.63	39	41.50	
Enhance Performance	6	16.21	12	12.76	
Conducive work environment	2	5.40	4	4.25	
	N=37	100	N=94	100	

5 Evaluation of a leadership development intervention

This chapter is based on:

Zulfqar, A., Valcke, M., Devos, G., Quraishi, U., (2016). Developing academic leaders: evaluation of a leadership development intervention in higher education. Manuscript submitted for publication in *Human Resource Development Quarterly*.

Chapter 1: General introduction

RO 1

To determine the nature of leadership and decision-making in Pakistan public and private universities by adopting TL and PDM.

RO 2

To investigate the relationship between TL – PDM and teachers' SE beliefs, IM and JS in Pakistan public and private universities.

RO 3

To study the impact of a TL intervention on leaders in Pakistan universities.

Chapter 2

Leadership and decision-making practices in public versus private universities

Chapter 3

TL and PDM and related outcomes

Chapter 4
Leadership development in higher education

Chapter 5
Evaluation of a leadership development intervention

Chapter 6
Sustainable leadership development in higher education

Chapter 7: General discussion and conclusion

Chapter 5

Evaluation of a leadership development intervention

Abstract

There is a shortage in the literature when it comes to evidence-based leadership development in higher education, especially in a developing country context. This invoked the design, implementation, and evaluation of a leadership development intervention involving academic leaders of Pakistan public universities. Goal of the intervention study was to raise awareness among university leaders in view of adopting transformational leadership (TL) in their academic practices. An experimental research design was adopted to investigate the impact of a six-week leadership training and to analyze changes in six TL-leadership behaviors. Up to 37 deans and heads of department from two public universities were involved. Content analysis of interview data, collected before and after the intervention, helped identifying indicators at different levels of awareness according to Bloom's taxonomy. A significant increase in leadership awareness is found in all six behaviors of transformational leadership, with an important increase in reported application level. Next to a discussion of limitations, also implications, and directions for future research are presented.

Introduction

Higher education has a short history in developing its academic leaders (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014). The latter authors even stress that a status quo is observed when it comes to leadership development in universities. Academic leaders take leadership responsibilities often as an additional assignment or a full-time job, but they have hardly ever been prepared for this role. Managing a classroom versus a faculty/department requires different attributes (Morris, 2008) and trained leaders are nevertheless crucial for these leadership positions (Zulfqar, Valcke, Devos, Shah, & Shahzad, 2016). The story is not different in both developed and developing countries. Leadership development has never been a burning issue in higher education (Evans, Homer, & Rayner, 2013). But due to the fast changes in HE policies across the world there is a call for trained leaders who can run the universities in an efficient way, who can foresee the future, who can help out their faculty in difficult times, and who can handle the external/internal pressures (Mårtensson & Roxå, 2015; Zulfqar, Valcke, Devos, Tuytens, & Shahzad, 2016). To fill the research gap, an experimental research

design was set up to train leaders through an awareness raising program, involving leaders of particular faculties from public universities in Pakistan.

Theoretical background

Transformational leadership

Leadership literature has especially focused on transformational leadership when it comes to leadership in academic organizations (Dinh et al., 2014; Zulfqar, Valcke, Devos, Tuytens, et al., 2016). But, why “transformational” leadership? Transformational leaders are seen as an economic asset for organizations; leading to an interest in training and developing transformational leadership in these contexts (Abrell, Rowold, Weibler, & Moeninghoff, 2011). Mathews (2006) focused on studying leadership in university settings and observed a gradual move away from typical bureaucratic and vertical leadership styles to a “flat” leadership approach. The latter implied delegation of responsibilities to lower levels, the promotion of collective identity and loyalty to the institution. These are characteristics of a transformational style of leadership. Transformational leaders increase their followers’ awareness about what is right and important. They motivate followers to perform “beyond expectations” and encourage them to look beyond their own self-interests for the good of the group or organization (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Wolfram & Mohr, 2009). In this study we will focus on the six behaviors of transformational leadership as presented by (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990): articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, providing individualized support, high-performance expectations, and intellectual stimulation.

The growing attention paid to transformational leadership in academic settings fits the numerous changes imposed on academic organizations; such as new quality assurance requirements, implementation of (inter)national competency frameworks, implementation of innovative teaching and learning approaches, new staff management policies, and tenure track systems, etc. These innovations call for trained leaders that fit accountability, and help boosting organizational effectiveness (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009; Paulsen, Callan, Ayoko, & Saunders, 2013).

Leadership development in academic organizations

Research evidence supports the idea that leadership is a capacity that can be developed (Dugan & Komives, 2007). There is a growing insight that leadership is a specialist profession and it requires specific preparation. Strathe and Wilson (2006) stress in this context that academics have been trained to teach and to conduct research. The latter are key criteria to get promoted to leadership positions. But – due to a lack of leadership development – these individuals experience difficulties; such as an ongoing tension between research and teaching on one hand and leadership responsibilities (Morris, 2008; Strathe & Wilson, 2006).

They often feel overburdened by their responsibilities; underestimate the complexity of their assignments and neglect teaching and research responsibilities (Hill, 2005). Nevertheless, academic leaders can develop their leadership skills; individually or with the support of other leaders (Parrish, 2015; Strathe & Wilson, 2006).

However, universities are not regular in organizing leadership training programs. Academic leaders report not having time to get trained or develop awareness related to their leadership roles (Evans et al., 2013; Morris, 2008). This lack of awareness can be detrimental to tackling leadership problems. In addition, interventions are important because – as highlighted by McCauley (2008) - in best-practice organizations, leadership development is closely tied to the vision, values, and goals of the organization, and leadership development is at the core of an organizations' strategic planning. But as stated earlier, this is not a common practice in universities. An extensive review study of Dinh et al. (2014), who studied ten top-tier academic publications in the period 2000 to 2012, concluded that only 9% of the articles focused on concrete leadership development studies. This is in sharp contrast to the need for leadership development. Steinert, Naismith, and Mann (2012) indicated in their review of higher education leadership training approaches - set up in the medical education field - that from the initial 530 studies developed between 1985 and 2010, only 19 studies focused on 14 interventions with leadership as a primary focus.

The above literature is helpful to outline characteristics of potentially successful interventions: long duration and based on group instructional settings, mentoring, individual and small group work with a focus on experiential learning, structured practice opportunities, personal goal setting, planned team meetings, case-based learning, and role play (Richard & Flavell, 2011). Most trainings start from a 'needs assessment.' But, reviewers also stress that

the reported studies show flaws as to the research methodology; lack of validated instruments, lack of reporting effect sizes, and lack of actual outcome measurement as compared to ‘perceptions’ about impact (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2009). Collins and Holton III (2004) criticize the available research to a wider extent and point at the lack of systematic evaluation of the leadership training interventions (ibid, p.53). Studies hardly look how learning outcomes have been translated to the work setting and most evaluations remain very general and are only set up during and at the end of the intervention (Cromwell & Kolb, 2004). Lastly, researchers emphasize most programs fail to produce lasting or robust changes in trainees’ leadership development (Hannum & Martineau, 2008). The latter introduces questions about the expected changes when participating in leadership development programs.

Towards a better definition of leadership development program objectives

A key expected outcome of leadership intervention is the development ‘awareness’ of leaders about their leadership practices (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). This implies changes in knowledge and skills development (Hannum & Martineau, 2008). Gill (2011) stresses in this context that leadership development builds on different converging aspects: the cognitive aspect, an emotional aspect, and a behavioral aspect. Building on Bloom’s revised ‘Taxonomy of Learning Domains’ (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001), we can map this complex interplay of expected changes in a systematic way by building on the three founding levels of this taxonomy: remembering, understanding and applying. It has to be stressed that higher taxonomical levels imply the mastery at a lower level (Marzano & Kendall, 2007). Examples in the literature support the idea to develop a more transparent picture of expected training outcomes in the leadership domain on the base of Bloom’s taxonomy (Falk, Garrison Jr, Brown, Pintz, & Bocchino, 2015; Freeman, Chambers, & Newton, 2016).

A recurrent practice when building on Bloom’s taxonomy is to define ‘*action verbs*’ that represent the mastery at a specific taxonomical level. These verbs are considered being indicators of the intended learning outcomes at ‘*awareness*’ level. Recent leadership development research – though outside the academic domain - reflects the efficiency of this approach (Richter et al., 2016). In view of the study discussed below, we present the following indicators:

Remembering is defined as ‘retrieving relevant knowledge from long-term memory (Weisi & Zamani, 2015). Following the revised taxonomy, this is reflected in the following indicator verbs when assessing learned behavior after a leadership training, *articulate, define, and identify*.

Understanding is defined as constructing meaning from oral, written, and graphic communication (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). It can be reflected through the following actions, *discussion, describing, and exemplify*.

Applying is defined as, carrying out or using a procedure or process through executing or implementing (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). This level is defined as the ability to use learned material in new and concrete situations and includes applying rules, methods, concepts, principles, and theories. After a leadership training, we expect this is reflected through the following actions, *demonstrate, develop, and practice*.

All levels in Bloom’s taxonomy are intertwined. If participants reflect behavior at the level of ‘*remembering*,’ this paves the way for better ‘*understanding*’ and ‘*application*.’ The indicator verbs do not only help evaluating the outcomes of a leadership intervention. They also help – from the onset – choosing adequate didactical strategies to develop this behavior during training. Particular didactical strategies help reaching the particular outcomes at the expected levels of assessment (Richard & Flavell, 2011).

Building on the need for transformational leadership development in universities with a study has been set up to design, implement and evaluate a leadership training with a focus on learning objectives at the remembering, understanding, and application level of Bloom’s taxonomy.

Research design

Research question

The study aimed at increasing leadership awareness of academic leaders through a hands-on training program based on transformational leadership. We put forward the following research question: *Do leaders, who attended an experimental intervention, reflect to a significantly higher extent awareness of their leadership practices as compared to leaders in a control group?*

Procedure

To develop awareness about their transformational leadership roles, a training program was developed for university leaders. Deans/Heads were involved in the training program as the faculties/departments are the main operational units in the universities (Branson, Franken, & Penney, 2015). The intervention was set up in two public universities from Punjab, the largest province of Pakistan. An empirical study was set-up, studying awareness level before and after the intervention. Semi-structured interviews were organized to determine respondents awareness about the six behaviors distinguished within transformational leadership. All participants in the experimental group were interviewed before and after the intervention. The control group participants were only interviewed prior to the intervention. Considering their work schedule, it was not easy to interview these leaders a second time, outside a training context. Informed consent was obtained from all participants after an initial orientation session about the training program, the way data would be treated and the fact the interview was being audiotaped and analyzed anonymously.

Leadership training intervention

The training intervention consisted of six sessions – each one based on one of the six behaviors of transformational leadership – and implemented during a four to six weeks period of time, considering the working schedule of leaders. The training sessions took place in a spacious room of each university, with all audio-visual aids available to be used during the training program. The training sessions were set up by the first and the second author of this article.

Content of the training

Before developing the training program, a needs assessment was set up concerning leadership practices in Pakistan universities. Such needs analysis is critical to ensure the training is relevant and aligned with concrete needs (Flavell, Jones, Oliver, & Ladyshevsky, 2008). Therefore, the intervention took into account the findings of two earlier survey studies conducted in Pakistan universities, including the two universities involved in the present research (Zulfqar, Valcke, Devos, Tuytens, & Shahzad, 2016). The study results confirmed that leadership in Pakistan universities is to a certain extent transformational in nature, but some behaviors need further development e.g., articulation of the vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals, and high-performance expectations (Zulfqar, Valcke, Devos, Tuytens, & Shahzad, 2016). The actual content of the training sessions was defined by an in-depth

literature review of the six TL-behaviors. Each individual session focused on one particular TL-behavior.

As stated above, developing leadership awareness requires an adequate selection and implementation of fitting didactical strategies (Reigeluth, 1999). In the training process it is not only important to state *'what'* has to be learned, but also *'how'* this is to be learned. Therefore, didactical strategies were selected to attain objectives positioned at the three first behavioral levels in Bloom's taxonomy: remembering, understanding, and application (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001):

- *Lectures*: Trainer presented and illustrated basic concepts and ideas. Often, this *'explanation'* was linked to giving examples, listening to audio-clips of interviews with leaders and presenting cases.
- *Case studies*: Are based on a real *'problem'* that is mostly complex and linked to the training context reality. Case studies imply developing case solutions through discussions with participants (Clark & Blake, 1997; Savery & Duffy, 1996). Case studies allow learners to get easily involved in deep level discussions with their peers and/or the trainer. The highest impact is attained when learners bridge the distance between their actual work setting and the learning context. This fosters reflection on their personal practices, and helps sharing experiences with others (Bush, Glover, & Harris, 2007). As a result, next to developing a conceptual base through lectures, cases helped introducing the local university context of the participants. Cases could easily be selected by building on the research outcomes of earlier studies involving Pakistan university leaders.
- *Simulation/role-play*: Is an interesting method to foster active learning. They offer immediate practice opportunities and result in immediate feedback (Reigeluth, 1999). Particular type of simulations in the context of social sciences is role-play. We involved participants in such *'role-play'*. They were asked to play a role about certain situations. Other participants were asked to observe role behaviors. This resulted in group discussions and participants giving feedback to each other. It also invoked a high level of motivation for being involved in the training.
- *Collaborative learning*: Is a methodology based on tasks set by the trainer who invites group members to tackle this task and come to a group solution. It is an established method to attain cognitive and behavioral objectives (Schellens & Valcke, 2005). Author stress the

need for presenting scripts to participants in order to invoke productive task-oriented behavior. These scripts present guidelines, roles, and procedural steps, etc., (Kollar, Fischer, & Hesse, 2006). The complete training framework of activities can be found in Appendix A, (Table 1).

Basic format for the leadership training

Each sessions started on the base of the Metaplan technique (Metaplan, 2000). This implied that each participant-leader started individually by giving input about a problem, question, and case on a colored card. Next, these cards were put on a soft-board and discussed by the group through (1) prioritizing ideas or (2) structuring the ideas (clusters, order, and importance) or (3) adding examples. At the end of each session, a video-clip was presented – developed by the second author of this article – summarizing and recapitulating the key concepts related to the particular transformational leadership behavior central to this session. This was enriched with some examples and closed up by referring to former TL training sessions and the ones to come. This can be seen as a take-home message at the end of the training session to prompt leaders about particular learned TL-behavior.

Pilot version of the training program

Before the implementation of the intervention, the training program was tested involving a smaller sample. Pilot study results provided the ground to move on to the main intervention. The pilot version of the intervention resulted in few changes in the content of the training and activities set up during the sessions.

Sampling

In the context of a large scale project about leadership in Pakistan universities, a stratified sample was defined, building on a total of 34 private and 50 public universities situated in the Punjab, the largest province in Pakistan. From this total, five universities were selected randomly, three public and two private universities. In view of the present study, two public universities were invited to be involved in the intervention. These universities were chosen at random, and were involved in prior studies in which – on the base of surveys – the actual status as to transformational leadership was defined. No private universities were involved, considering this would increase the researcher workload to involve participants in both

control and experimental conditions and related interview administration; within a too narrow time frame.

In total 37 leaders (deans/heads) participated in this study. In the experimental group, 20 leaders from University 'A' and 15 leaders from University 'B' were invited to take part in the interventions. But, due to work and time constraints, only 16 leaders from University 'A' and 9 leaders from University 'B' attended all six sessions. The control group consisted of 12 leaders, six leaders from each university. These leaders were from three different faculties reflecting different science fields (arts and humanities, natural sciences, and social sciences).

The average age of the respondents was 30-60 years with 1 to 30 years of experience. Participants assumed a range of leadership roles and responsibilities at the faculty (Dean) and departmental level (head of the department). Names of participants and universities were re-coded to ensure anonymity.

Data collection

As stated above, a semi-structured interview was designed to gather input from the leaders in relation to the six TL-behaviors. An interview protocol was developed to guide a strict interview scenario, starting with an introduction to the research topic and information being handed over at the end of the interview, (Interview protocol is available in Appendix B). Experimental group participants were interviewed before and after the intervention. Since the control group received no such training, they were only interviewed prior to the intervention. On average, each interview lasted 20 to 45 minutes. All face-to-face interviews were audiotaped in view of the analysis.

Data analysis

All the interviews were transcribed verbatim. Nvivo was used to manage the data and coding process (QSR, 2015). As explained earlier, the main training objective was to develop awareness in leaders about their transformational leadership behaviors. Bloom's revised taxonomy of learning objectives was adopted as a framework for the analysis of leaders' awareness levels. A coding matrix was developed focusing on three main awareness categories: remembering, understanding, and application. Next, sub-categories were defined based on action verbs fitting each main category. These verbs – already discussed above –

were considered as indicators for each awareness level. The complete coding matrix can be found in Table 2 (Appendix C).

Responses to the six interview questions – one in relation to each TL behavior - were considered as holistic units of meaning. Each unit of meaning was screened to identify relevant indicators. This implies it was possible to track multiple indicators for different awareness levels within a single unit of meaning. The qualitative analysis was carried out for both the pre- and post-intervention interviews.

To determine the coding reliability, one independent coder (not familiar with the study) were hired to code ten interviews randomly selected from the pre and post-interviews, and from the different groups of leaders. The resulting inter-rater reliability was 83% which is in accordance to the standard of (Matthew et al., 1994).

The findings from a content analysis can be presented in a quantitative form. Following the analysis, coded data can be compared meaningfully using frequencies and proportions of codes (Curtis et al., 2001). Since different number of leaders were interviewed at each stage, a proportional number was calculated. The number of indicators found for each TL behavior and for each awareness level were divided by the number of interviewed leaders. In this way, awareness levels for each TL behavior could be compared between groups and before and after the intervention. Table 3 (Appendix D), presents a detailed overview of the results. Table 4, presents a summary of pre and post intervention results. In the analysis, we do not focus on differences between leaders from different universities since this is not the focus of the present study.

Results

Building on the results in table 3 and 4, we first develop a 'baseline' picture in view of the awareness levels for each TL behavior as observed prior to the intervention. Secondly, we describe changes in the awareness levels of leaders from the experimental condition after the intervention.

Pre-intervention results

Prior to the intervention, leaders (deans/heads) showed a – rather basic - awareness about all six TL-behaviors. To illustrate the quantitative data presented in table 4, we present interview quotes exemplifying these baseline results.

Articulating a vision, as to articulation of the vision, the identified indicators mainly reflect the awareness levels ‘remembering and understanding.’ The ‘application’ level is missing in both pre-experiment and control group participants. One of the leaders explained:

“He must be in a regular contact with his team members. He should select some focal persons for implementation.” (LU0205)

Another leader stated:

“Just by doing this, a leader should involve himself. He should not lock himself in his castle and expect all the time from others in his office. A leader should be a part of that team.” (BU0303)

These fragments show the extent of their understanding of this behavior. But leaders did not underpin their understanding with personal examples. Rather, they suggested strategies to adopt these practices.

Providing an appropriate role model, leaders from pre-experiment and control group especially mirrored their ‘understanding’ of this behavior. But, again the application level remained weak. It seems participants were unaware of how to apply this behavior in their academic setting. A leader explained this as follows:

“The action of the leader is necessary. When you do not model the behavior that you expect from others, people will not follow you.” (LU0302)

Providing individualized support, interview codes indicated leaders adopted this behavior rather well. Both at the level of remembering and understanding, the analysis resulted in relevant number of observations. But, indicators at the ‘application’ level were hardly observed. The following quotes illustrate their remembering and understanding level in relation to this TL behavior. A leader explained:

“I think, you have to have a certain amount of sympathy and empathy. You have to understand their problems.” (LU0206)

Fostering the acceptance of group goal, the interview data of all participants mainly reflected their awareness at 'remembering and understanding' level. But, again the practical part is extremely weak. A lower level of collaboration was identified but limited to administrative tasks only. A leader told the interviewer:

"Teamwork is important. If faculty members do not have collaboration, then things will not be in order, and nobody will take the responsibility." (BU0302)

High-Performance expectations, the picture is not different when it comes to high-performance expectations. A rather low level of awareness could be identified at each level 'remembering and understanding and application' both in the experimental and control group. A leader stated the following:

"If we grow we have to improve our standards, otherwise we will lose our identity." (LU0103)

Another leader explains:

"I think; feedback is important in setting standards. I use to take written feedback." (BU0303)

Intellectual Stimulation, this behavior was – compared to the other TL behaviors – observed to a much larger extent. Participants indicated their awareness at all three levels of Bloom's taxonomy. But, again the application level was observed to a lesser extent as compared to remembering and understanding. Most application examples were linked to leaders expressing their appreciation or giving monetary rewards. But, their comments remained rather abstract and concrete examples of 'how' they appreciate their staff and how they motivate them were lacking from the interviews. A leader stated:

"Financial incentives are only at the university level but being a head I can appreciate them, motivate them." (LU0208)

Overall, the baseline prior to the intervention reflected rather rudimentary awareness level for each TL behavior. Especially the application level was lacking in relation to all TL behaviors. This was the case in leaders of both the experimental and control group. This baseline illustrated the need to initiate a leadership development intervention.

Post-intervention results

Figure 1 summarizes in a quantitative way the changes in the three awareness levels for the six TL behaviors prior and after the leadership development intervention. Table 4 present more detail to this and shows how for each TL-behavior and at each awareness level, we observe a clear increase in the number of observed indicators. Below, we discuss these changes in relation to each particular TL behavior. Overall, the standardized number of indicators for all TL behaviors increased from 4.75 to 11.56 per leader.

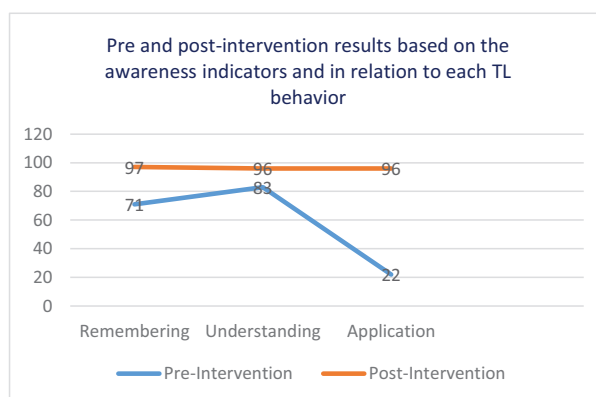


Figure 1. Pre and post-intervention results based on the awareness indicators and in relation to each TL behavior.

Evaluation of a leadership development intervention

Table 4. Pre and post-intervention results based on the number of awareness indicators divided by the number of interviewed leaders, in relation to each TL-Behavior

Groups	Awareness TL behaviors							Total
	Awareness levels	Articulating a vision	Providing an appropriate role model	Providing individualized support	Fostering the acceptance of group goals	High-performance expectations	Intellectual stimulation	
Pre-experiment and control group	Remembering	11 (0.30)	13 (0.35)	17 (0.45)	9 (0.24)	7 (0.18)	14 (0.37)	71 (1.91)
	Understanding	7 (0.18)	19 (0.51)	25 (0.67)	8 (0.21)	8 (0.21)	16 (0.43)	83 (2.24)
	Applying	0 (00)	2 (0.05)	9 (0.24)	3 (0.08)	3 (0.08)	5 (0.13)	22 (0.59)
	Total	18/37=(0.48)	34/37=(0.91)	51/37=(1.37)	20/37=(0.54)	18/37=(0.48)	35/37=(0.95)	176/37=(4.75)
Post-experiment groups	Remembering	36 (1.44)	12 (0.48)	15 (0.6)	7 (0.28)	17 (0.68)	10 (0.4)	97 (3.88)
	Understanding	12 (0.48)	17 (0.68)	24 (0.96)	12 (0.48)	17 (0.68)	14 (0.56)	96 (3.84)
	Applying	10 (0.4)	10 (0.4)	23 (0.92)	14 (0.56)	18 (0.72)	21 (0.84)	96 (3.84)
	Total	58/25=(2.32)	39/25=(1.56)	62/25=(2.48)	33/25=(1.32)	52/25=(2.08)	45/25=(1.8)	289/25=(11.56)

Articulating a vision, after the intervention, leaders expressed a stronger awareness level as setting and articulating their vision. As to the first awareness indicator ‘remembering’ we observed a significant increase in the post-intervention results (1.44 as compared to 0.30). Also in relation to the ‘understanding’ level, post-intervention results indicated a clear increase in observed indicators (from 0.18 to 0.48). An interesting change was observed as to the ‘application,’ level (from 0 to 0.4). Overall, in relation to this TL behavior, a consistent change was observed at all awareness levels (from 0.48 to 2.32). One of the leaders emphasized his application level as follows:

“First, they will be the part of my vision, second, I will assign the tasks through meetings and time to time I will appreciate them and motivate them so that they can stick to the work. Because a leader alone cannot achieve his vision.” (LU0302)

Providing an appropriate role model, prior to the intervention, leaders adopted a rather basic conception of this particular TL-behavior. How they actually could be a role model was lacking from their interview responses. This changed after the intervention. Post-intervention data point at an overall increase in the three awareness levels (from to 0.91 to 1.56). First, a slight increase observed at the level of ‘remembering’ (from 0.35 to 0.48). Next, leader responses reflected a slight increase in ‘understanding’ of this behavior (from 0.51 to 0.68). After the intervention, leaders seemed better able to present concrete examples of being a role model when we look at the changes in the number of indicators for the ‘application’ level (0.05 to 0.4). The following interview quotes give evidence of increased awareness levels.

A leader stated:

“The followers are looking at the leader for guidance and inspiration. If I do not have such abilities, I cannot be a role model. So I have to walk the talk then other will follow me.” (LU0205)

Providing individualized support, the picture in relation to this behavior is quite clear after the intervention. Post-intervention results reflected an increase in all awareness levels. As to the first level of awareness, 'remembering', we observe an increase when compared to the baseline results (from 0.45 to 0.6). In relation to the next level, we also observe positive difference in 'understanding' (from 0.67 to .96). The most important increase is observed in relation to the 'application' level (from 0.24 to 0.92). It is also important to stress how we observe an overall increase in indicators for this TL behavior (from 1.37 to 2.48) at each level of Bloom's taxonomy. This might exemplify the successful impact of the training intervention. One of the leaders explained this as follows:

"Trust building is crucial and you can develop a supportive relationship through sharing and communication, take their opinion and appreciate them, invite them in decision-making, then you will build the trust, and you can support them."
(LU0208)

Fostering the acceptance of group goals, after the intervention, a definite upturn was observed in the awareness level of leaders as to this TL behavior. A lot of discussions went on during the training session about how leaders can foster collaboration among faculty members. Leaders presented strategies to foster working towards the same goal. As to 'remembering,' content analysis reflected a stable picture when comparing pre- to the post-intervention interviews (from 0.24 to 0.28). At the 'understanding' level, post-intervention results reflect a clear increase in the proportion of indicators (from 0.21 to 0.48). But, after the intervention leaders were especially better aware how to foster active collaboration among faculty members. The increase in 'application' level is apparent (from 0.08 to 0.56). Overall, a critical increase in awareness was observed comparing pre and post-intervention results (from 0.54 to 1.32). One of the leaders explained:

"After attending the training program, I distribute work among my faculty, and I take regular feedback about their performance. If they are reluctant, then I would indulge myself with them to work together. If you assign them any task, continuously check their performance so that they feel motivated, and they share their problems with you." (LU0102)

High-performance expectations, unlike other behaviors of transformational leadership, the baseline in leaders' awareness of this TL behavior was not high before the intervention. After the intervention, the picture has completely changed (from 0.48 to 2.08). As to the first level 'remembering,' results show a clear increase (from 0.18 to 0.68). Next, at 'understanding' level, leaders reflected a robust increase compared to pre-intervention results (from 0.21 to 0.68). Most interestingly, especially the 'application' level in this TL behavior reflected a large increase (from 0.08 to 0.72). One of the leaders said:

"If I am expecting that my faculty has to produce a certain amount of publications every year. If they are not doing it, then I have to do something to juggle them up. If you do not take feedback, then you can never achieve your goals." (LU0206)

Intellectual stimulation, after the intervention, interviews reflected a significant increase in related awareness of the leaders (from 0.95 to 1.80). As to 'remembering,' interview coding reflected a stable proportion of indicators (from 0.37 to 0.4). Leader's responses remained also stable in terms of their 'understanding' awareness level (from 0.43 to 0.56). But, the strongest change is observed in indicators that reflect leaders' application level (from 0.13 to 0.84). A leader explained implementation of this TL behavior as follows:

"I motivate my teachers through appreciation, I appreciate them in meetings, e.g., XYZ you were excellent in that work. I was listening to students talking about you, and I was delighted to hear about your good performance." (LU0203)

Another leader reflected:

"I appreciate them on their achievements. A pat on the back also makes teachers motivated." (BU0303)

Discussion

The discussion focuses firstly on the overall positive impact of the intervention. Secondly, we corroborate the findings in relation to particular TL-behavior.

First, the overarching goal of the study was to develop awareness in leaders in two universities. Analysis of qualitative data collected before the intervention helped developing a baseline of leaders' awareness level along six TL behaviors. Analysis of post-intervention

data present evidence of a positive impact of the intervention. A clear shift in (1) overall level of awareness was observed; (2) next, the increase was observed in all TL behaviors, and (3) the increase is especially apparent in the proportion of application level indicators of leaders' awareness. This is in line with available research, stressing how leadership training has a positive impact on leaders in organizations (Avolio et al., 2009; Bolden et al., 2012; Bryman, 2007; DeRue & Myers, 2014; Gentry, Eckert, Munusamy, Stawiski, & Martin, 2014; Gmelch, 2013). But, our study contributes to the literature by revealing a comparable impact in an academic setting. Our findings support the conclusion that leadership interventions can have a positive impact across a broad array of interventions, organization types, leadership styles, theories, levels of quality of research, and outcomes (King & Nesbit, 2015). Our findings are as such in line with the positive study results of Flavell et al. (2008) they conducted a training program based on transformational leadership by involving coordinators in Australian higher education institutes. Also these authors focused on identifying increased awareness level.

Our finding that – overall – more than a double amount of indicators related to transformational leadership behaviors per leader could be found (from 4.75 to 11.56), is in line with the results of the study of Avolio et al. (2009). They reported a 66% chance in the adoption of new leadership behavior. The size of observed changes is also in line with the findings of Abrell et al. (2011).

The results can also be linked to the design of this particular training. Also Harris and Leberman (2010) reported positive leadership training results by stressing collaborative settings, fostering reflection on personal experiences, and by exploring differences between leaders. Also, the adoption of role modeling seemed to be successful in the intervention to attain comparable findings as Hargreaves and Fink (2006).

Secondly, we found clear changes in indicators related to the six different TL-behaviors. There is a gap in the literature when it comes to defining the concrete impact of interventions on particular TL-behaviors after a leadership development program. To the best of our knowledge, no study explicitly focused on all six TL-behaviors as identified by (Podsakoff et al., 1990). As such, it is hard to contrast our research findings with available studies; especially in a higher education setting. Nevertheless, we build on comparable studies, set up in a corporate, military or a school setting. This helps discussing the impact on all six TL behaviors.

As to articulation of a vision – a crucial topic in public universities – a clearly observable change was identified in leaders' awareness. Our findings suggest transformational leaders actively learn to involve their team members in setting and achieving the vision in their faculties/departments. These results can be corroborated with the findings of (Gmelch, 2013) who could show how leaders developed a vision that was better linked to the purpose of the organization and how they could better connect individual members to their organization. Our results are also in line with (Martin, McCormack, Fitzsimons, & Spirig, 2012) they evaluated a clinical leadership development program and could show improvements in the way leaders inspire a shared vision.

As stated above, to foster the adoption of an appropriate role model, Hargreaves and Fink (2006) suggested to incorporate role modeling as a training component. This aligns with our study design and related findings. The same is true when analyzing the study Dopson et al. (2013) involving hybrid medical-managers. They found that managerial mentors and role modeling were crucial to develop.

As to providing individualized support, we can build on the study of Parrish (2015) who observed positive changes in their leadership development program with a focus on emotional intelligence. In their successful program, three competencies stood out: showing empathy, being inspiring and guiding others, and being considerate and professional in interaction.

Considering, fostering the acceptance of group goals, our results are aligned with the findings of Hannum and Martineau (2008) who reported that - after leadership training – better and concrete collaboration towards shared goals among team/group members. In a comparable but observational study, Blackmore (2007); De Vries et al. (2009) reported a significant increase in leader awareness about working to achieve group goals. Also McRoy and Gibbs (2009); Schwartzman (2003); Sosik, Potosky, and Jung (2002) identified how the awareness of leaders improved when focusing on teamwork in their organizations.

Focusing on high-performance expectations, our findings confirm awareness is an important attribute in leaders' development to help setting high expectations. A significant change was observed after the intervention in relation to this TL-behavior; especially due to a strong focus on providing feedback as a critical training element. In their quasi-experimental study involving senior managers Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, and Kucine (2003) conclude

how managers – after training – believe to a stronger extent in multisource feedback related to their performance. They solicit their employees to improve performance standards in the organization and also the other way around. They share to larger extent feedback with subordinates about their performance. Also De Vries et al. (2009); Solansky (2010) focused on this component in leadership development and found how 360-degree feedback and mentoring were critical elements to attain their positive training outcomes.

In relation to intellectual stimulation, our results are comparable to the findings of (Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, & Hopkins, 2006). In their evaluation study of transformational leadership development programs, they reported higher levels of intellectual stimulation and how this was associated with increases in participants' motivation, capabilities, and performance.

Although we could present positive results of the leadership development intervention, the present study is not without limitations. First, the intervention was only set up in two universities. Next to involving leaders from more universities, our focus could widen and involve participants from both the public and private universities. Earlier research pointed at differences in TL behavior of leaders in the private and public universities (Zulfqar, Valcke, Devos, Tuytens, & Shahzad, 2016). Also, leaders from more faculties within a single university can be involved, considering potential leadership differences between disciplines.

Second, in the present study we built solely on interview data to identify pre and post intervention differences in awareness levels of leaders. Though challenging, future research could also build on observation of actual leadership behavior. Next, adopting a mixed method design could help developing a richer picture. Through data triangulation, quantitative data (e.g., from surveys) could enrich the qualitative studies. In the current research design, the impact was studied immediately after finishing the intervention. An additional but delayed measurement could help identifying the robustness of the changes related to the leadership intervention. The latter impact could also be studied by involving – next to the leaders - faculty members and analyzing their perspective on changes in their leaders.

Conclusion

Leadership development is not a priority in higher education especially in a developing country context like Pakistan. Our research results stress the potential of leadership training in an

academic setting. This suggests leadership development should be considered as a stronger policy priority by the university management, but also by Higher Education authorities to foster the organizational development of universities in the context of reforms and innovations.

Overall, in the present study we could report about the positive outcomes of a leadership intervention. Compared to a baseline, we observed clear changes in all six behaviors that reflect transformational leadership. Especially promising was the fact that we observe especially a strong change in the 'application' dimension of leaders' awareness.

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Appendix A:

Table 1. Framework for training activities

Time: 2h30 (Each session)

Activities	Time	Method
Recapitulation of the previous session	15 Minutes	Individual input
Case study	10 Minutes	Individual analysis/input (write on the color cards)
Case study	30 Minutes	Joint discussion (based on their input)
Lecture	30 Minutes	Present the concepts of the particular behavior, through power point slides, and relate the concept with case study problems.
Group activities	40	Problem-based activities to discuss with group members and find a solution with the help of particular behavior. (write their comments on the color cards)
Simulation	20	Assign roles to the participants and ask rest of the participants to note down their reflected behaviors. (write on the color cards)
Video recapitulation	5	A recorded video clip played to summarize the session.

Appendix B:

Interview outline

Interview questionnaire based on the six behaviors of transformational leadership

Sr#	Questions
1	<p>What are the characteristics of a person that make him/her a good leader?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - If you would appoint/elect a leader, what characteristic would be the most important? - In a crisis, what are the key characteristics of a leader?
2	<p>How a leader can set an inspiring vision for his/her organization?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What would be key words in your approach? - What are typical examples you can give? - How you will communicate an inspiring vision to your colleagues/faculty?
3	<p>When does your staff member respect you as a leader?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What would be key elements in such a respected leader? - What turns you down in a disrespectful leader? - How a leader can be a role model for others? - How a leader can set an example for his/her colleagues?
4	<p>How do you develop a supportive relationship with your faculty members?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What are typical examples you can give? - How do you communicate with your faculty members?
5	<p>What about your staff working together?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How team work is important in academics? - How a leader can foster collaboration in his team members? - What are the typical examples you can give?
6	<p>Who sets what standards as to the job performance of your staff?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Why high standards are important for leaders? - What motivate your teachers to achieve high standards? - What is the role of feedback in setting standards?
7	<p>What motivates your employees/staff to meet high quality work?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How a leader can motivate his faculty members? - What do you think why work motivation is important for faculty members? - What kind of reward you can give to your faculty members?

Appendix C:

Table 2. Coding scheme for the main and sub-categories of awareness indicators

Remembering	
They identify the ...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ I always had the situation that create self-motivation. ▪ We set some standards. ▪ Your intrinsic motivation stimulate you.
They recognize the...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ He should be clear about the vision and mission of the department. ▪ Concerned about the problems and issue of the faculty members. ▪ He should help his colleagues whenever they need his help.
They articulate...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ It is very important to give the picture of the future that you are the future of the department. ▪ Because through communication, you can resolve the issue. ▪ Sharing is very important.
Understanding	
They discuss this...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ When a leader constantly in touch with the team member and he is communicating and open to debate and argumentation.... ▪ She should do what she expects from others, in this way he can set an example for others. ▪ Put yourself in another person's shoes and then see the situation of other person.
They exemplify this...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ By leaving the doors open for communication for everyone, so that they can come to you and share with you whatever they want. ▪ The punctuality of a leader forced the faculty members to reach in time and should be last to leave the department. ▪ Personal contact, regular contact, formal and informal meetings and listen to them as much as you can.
They describe...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ To be a good role model, you have to practise what you preach. ▪ A leader has to be open to his colleagues and should adopt "WE" approach. ▪ A supportive relationship can only be developed if the leader has an intimacy with his colleagues.
Applying	
They demonstrate...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ I never show a bossy attitude. I try to be friendly with them. ▪ And if I assign them any task definitely I involve myself and try to show them a model. ▪ I convey my expectations to my colleagues that this is what higher authorities expecting from me.
They develop...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ I tried to foster collaboration among those members who are not working in teams. ▪ I am going to encourage them to develop their potential. ▪ So we need to tell them that how they have to teach because we have to maintain the quality teaching. We need to check their behaviors in the classrooms.
They practice...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ I motivate them to work, to publish work together, prepare project and give them relaxation in their work. ▪ I respect them in return I also receive respect. ▪ I assigned the task to all the faculty members so that they should remain involve in their department and it is the responsibility of a leader

Appendix D:
Table 3. Pre and post-intervention results based on the number of awareness indicators and in relation to each TL-Behavior

Awareness Indicators based on Bloom's Taxonomy		TL-Behaviors							Total
		Articulating a vision	Providing an appropriate role model	Providing an individualized support	Fostering the acceptance of group goals	High-performance expectations	Intellectual stimulation		
University A	Pre-experiment	Remembering	1	3	1	1	1	3	10
		Understanding	2	6	2	2	2	5	19
		Applying	0	0	0	0	0	3	3
		Total	3	9	3	3	3	11	32
Pre-control-group		Remembering	1	4	4	0	0	1	10
		Understanding	2	2	4	3	0	3	14
		Applying	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
		Total	3	6	9	4	0	4	26
Post-experiment		Remembering	11	1	2	1	5	2	22
		Understanding	3	9	9	5	8	8	42
		Applying	2	3	10	5	7	8	35
		Total	16	13	21	11	20	18	99
University B	Pre-experiment	Remembering	8	2	11	5	6	9	41
		Understanding	1	8	13	3	5	4	34
		Applying	0	2	6	1	3	2	14
		Total	9	12	30	9	14	15	89
Pre-Control-Group		Remembering	1	4	1	3	0	1	10
		Understanding	2	3	6	0	1	4	16
		Applying	0	0	2	1	0	0	3
		Total	3	7	9	4	1	5	29
Post-experiment		Remembering	25	11	13	6	12	8	75
		Understanding	9	8	15	7	9	6	54
		Applying	8	7	13	9	11	13	61
		Total	42	26	41	22	32	27	190

6 Sustainable leadership development in higher education

This chapter is based on:

Zulfqar, A., Valcke, M., Devos, G., (2016). Sustainable leadership development in higher education: Short and long-term impact of a leadership development program. Manuscript submitted for publication in *Journal of Management and Organization*.

Chapter 1: General introduction

RO 1

To determine the nature of leadership and decision-making in Pakistan public and private universities by adopting TL and PDM.

RO 2

To investigate the relationship between TL – PDM and teachers' SE beliefs, IM and JS in Pakistan public and private universities.

RO 3

To study the impact of a TL intervention on leaders in Pakistan universities.

Chapter 2

Leadership and decision-making practices in public versus private universities

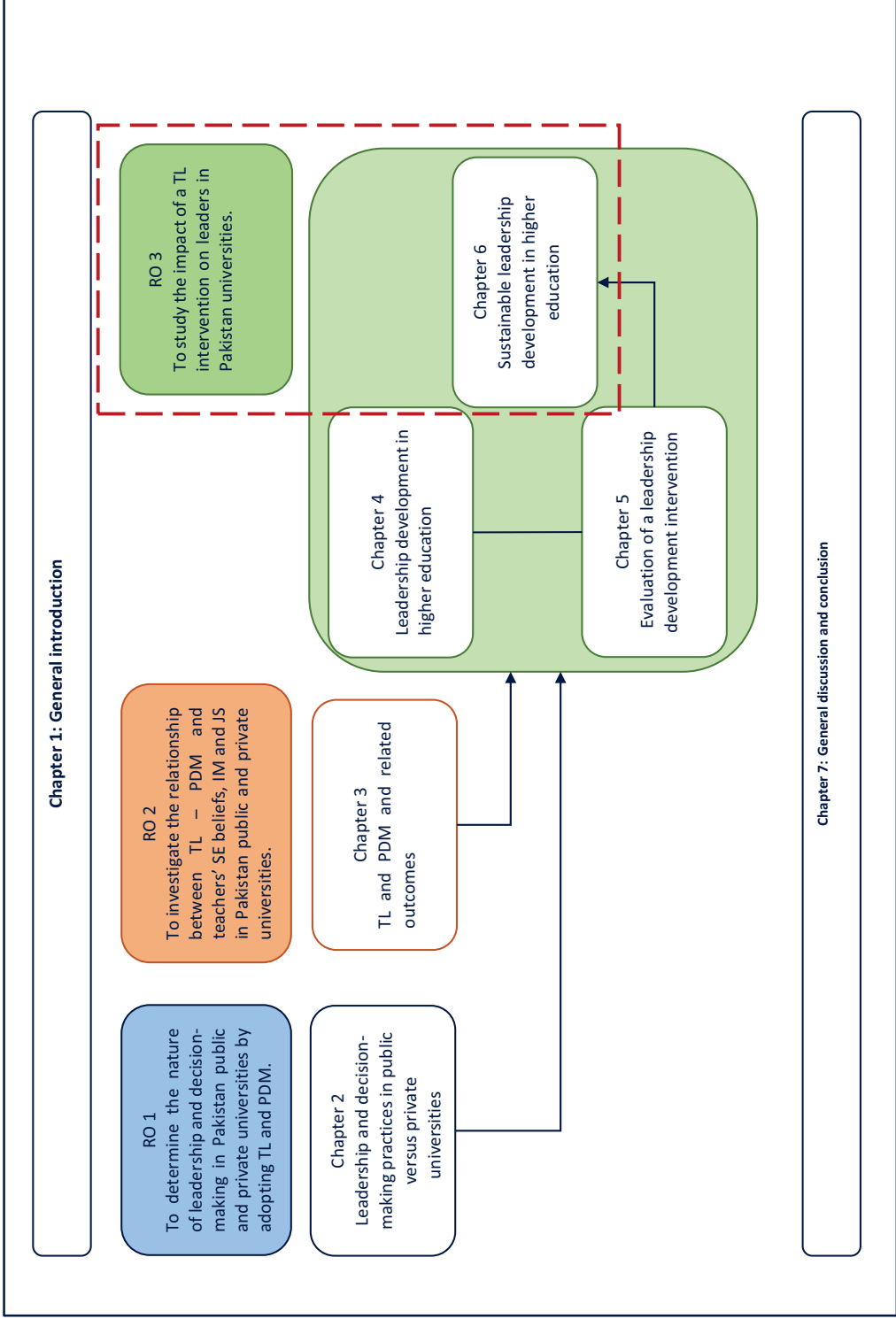
Chapter 3
TL and PDM and related outcomes

Chapter 4
Leadership development in higher education

Chapter 5
Evaluation of a leadership development intervention

Chapter 6
Sustainable leadership development in higher education

Chapter 7: General discussion and conclusion



Chapter 6

Sustainable leadership development in higher education

Abstract

Systematic evaluations of leadership development programs are critical, especially in higher education. Considering the need of systematic evaluation of such programs, a follow-up study was planned to evaluate the short and long-term impact of a leadership development intervention. Leaders from two public universities were involved in a six-week intervention, based on the six behaviors of transformational leadership. This intervention ended with a study of the immediate impact of the leadership development program. To investigate the short-term impact of this intervention, an additional evaluation was conducted three months after the initial intervention involving the leaders of University A. The next evaluation was conducted one year after the initial intervention involving leaders from University B, to study the long-term impact. Semi-structured interviews and a case study method were adopted for data collection. Content analysis was carried out to identify indicators pointing at awareness levels in leadership behavior. Compared to the immediate post-intervention evaluation results, awareness levels decreased, but were still sufficient robust results as compared to the baseline in awareness levels as measured in a control group. Implications and recommendations for future research are being discussed.

Introduction

Leadership development and more specifically leadership development evaluation have received increasing attention during recent years (Packard & Jones, 2013). Leadership development programs typically aim at raising awareness, behavioral change, personal reflection, and leadership development (King & Nesbit, 2015). Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, and Chan (2009) stress that evaluation is only possible through systematic evaluation approaches. According to the literature, many programs fail in the design of the program evaluation (Al-Musawi, 2008). Also, other research suggests that only well-designed approaches will help identifying long-term results (Leskiw & Singh, 2007). The need for program evaluation is also important to be able to fine-tune the leadership development intervention so it might reach its goals in a better way (Hannum & Martineau, 2008).

The present study builds on previous work in the field of leadership development in public universities. It addresses the aforementioned gaps in the literature by evaluating the short and long-term impact of a leadership intervention set up in two public universities, and by adopting multi-source methods for data collection. The main purpose of this study is to investigate the sustainability of the intervention through a short and long-term evaluation.

Theoretical background

Transformational leadership

A large amount of research substantiates the importance of shared and distributed leadership approaches in academic contexts (Brown & Moshavi, 2002). Academicians move increasingly towards transformational leadership (Woods & Gronn, 2009). The move towards transformational leadership can be linked to the challenges for leaders to tackle the challenges posed to higher education due to policy changes, changing society expectations, financial constraints, stronger accountability, growing emphasis on quality, quality assurance, and output measures, etc. (Abrell, Rowold, Weibler, & Moeninghoff, 2011).

Transformational leaders stimulate their followers to develop innovative research ideas, motivate them to pursue challenging research endeavors and promote their followers' academic success by coaching and being a role-model (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013). Transformational leaders raise their followers' aspirations and activate higher-order values such that followers identify with the leader and his vision, feel better in their work, and perform beyond expectations (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Conger & Kanungo, 1987). Despite the considerable volume of research examining transformational leadership theory, there are still questions regarding the conceptualization of the construct (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). In this regard, Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) conceptualized the six behaviors of transformational leadership derived from the research, *articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high-performance expectations, providing individualized support, and intellectual stimulation*.

Leadership in higher education

There is a need to develop leadership capability in general and the capacities of academic leaders in particular (Bush, 2010). However, universities are rather weak organizations when

it comes to leadership development because their leaders hardly have/take time to strengthen their leadership roles (Evans, Homer, & Rayner, 2013; Morris, 2008). This lack of awareness can be detrimental to new leadership problems. Gmelch (2013) estimates only 3% of US universities and colleges invest in developing their academic leaders – deans and department chairs.

Leskiw and Singh (2007); McCauley (2008) highlighted how in best-practice organizations, leadership development practices are closely tied to the vision, values, and goals of the organizations. They state how leadership development is also at the core of the organizational strategic planning. Therefore, Madsen (2012) stresses how, within higher education, leadership development programs often reach critical levels of importance. Leadership development programs could give leaders the leverage to explore and experience different roles and its demands. Since faculties and departments are the main operational units in universities, the leadership development of deans/heads becomes crucial (Gmelch, 2013). Fullan (2007) argued that academic deans/heads are pivotal to the success of the organization, no institute can grow without the efficient performance of their middle leaders.

The impact of leadership development interventions

Despite the growing literature, a comprehensive evaluation of leadership development programs is not common (Day, 2000; Russon & Reinelt, 2004). Burke and Day (1986) conducted a meta-analytic review of 70 studies carried out from 1952 to 1982 on managerial training effectiveness and found that training was moderately effective. In a later review of leadership studies, published between 1984 to 2001, Collins and Holton III (2004) found only 30% of the studies actually reported an evaluation of a leadership development training to map the impact at the organizational or individual level.

The study of Leskiw and Singh (2007) provided a valuable foundation for further understanding of effective leadership development. They considered six key factors to be vital for effective leadership development programs: (a) a thorough initial needs assessment, (b) the selection of a suitable audience, (c) the design of an appropriate infrastructure to support the initiative, (d) the design and implementation of an entire learning system, (e) corresponding actions to reward success and improve on deficiencies, and (f) an effective evaluation system.

In their book evaluating the impact of leadership development (Hannum & Martineau, 2008) suggested strategies to design a systematic evaluation of a leadership development program. They stress variables such as duration, time, procedure, and outcomes of studying the impact. Organizations expect a return on their investment. To investigate the impact of an initiative, one has to clearly state the goals and objectives of the impact. Is it sufficient things get better in general, or is a specific improvement or change desired? Clearing this out will help to strengthen the evaluation design (Hannum & Martineau, 2008).

Later, in their meta-analytical review, Avolio, Reichard, et al. (2009) examined an initial number of 500 leadership studies and ended up with a further analysis of 200 studies adopting a (quasi-)experimental design. The purpose of their meta-analytic study was two-fold. First, it helped to estimate the impact of leadership interventions. Second, their analysis helped at detecting potentially successful theoretical frameworks, methods, and dependent variables as a base for future leadership research, theory, and practice could build upon. In general, the researchers found how 66% of the studies had a probability of achieving a positive outcome, but much dependent on moderators, such as the type of leadership theory and the nature of the related dependent variable e.g., awareness level, behavioral change, impact on organization and followers etc. The authors found larger reported effects when looking at transformational scales (Avolio, Reichard, et al., 2009). In general, these authors remain cautious when comparing the often very different impact studies. They especially stress how the evaluation studies should focus on theoretically appropriate measures for the dependent variables that are a clear operationalization of the theoretical base.

The temporal impact of leadership development interventions

Avolio, Reichard, et al. (2009) also stress the need to study the temporal effects of programs, “we feel that it is important for future leadership research to better match temporal designs to theoretical frameworks, and to increase attention to using extended longitudinal studies and repeated measures” (ibid, p.781).

There is not much literature available when it comes to study the short-term impact of a leadership intervention (Abrell et al., 2011). The *short-term* impact of a leadership development program might focus on studying what participants think about the initiative and their experience with it immediately after completion. It might also include the development of new ideas or awareness based on their recent learning and experience

(McCauley, 2008; Riggio, 2008). In the majority of cases, transformational leadership development research detects changes after a minimum of six months of the intervention (Rosch & Caza, 2012). The change in behavior takes time before it can be recognized by the trained leadership (Abrell et al., 2011).

The *long-term* impact occurs nine months to a year (or more) after a training program ends. It might focus on performance improvement, the attainment of more complex skills, and changes at organizational level (Hannum & Martineau, 2008). Measuring change over time allows to detect trends in changes, to determine when a change occurs, and whether the change is sufficiently robust (Marsick & Watkins, 2001). This is central to experiential learning theories adopting a constructivist perspective on learning, proposing that development occurs as people reflect on their lived experiences and then generalize from those experiences to develop new models, skills, and knowledge that will improve performance in future experiences (Fenwick, 2003).

Nevertheless, there is a lack of systematic evaluations in the literature that center on the full temporal impact of a program (Avolio, Avey, & Quisenberry, 2010). Studying the impact of a leadership development program is quite complex and challenging (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). In addition, the literature states that related quasi-experimental studies are rather uncommon (Reinelt, Sullivan, & Foster, 2003). Because of this lack in empirical data, it remains unclear how long-lasting the effects of leadership development are (Frese, Beigel, & Schoenborn, 2003; Kelloway, Barling, & Helleur, 2000).

Studying the “impact” of leadership development programs

Models for the evaluation of leadership development programs mainly rely on methodologies centering on the observed impact of learning specific skills and behaviors. They focus less on how well participants cognitively adapt to uncertain and complex environments due to the training intervention (King & Nesbit, 2015). We return in this context to the critical observation of Avolio et al., (2009) who stress that the dependent measures in the evaluation research should be theoretically consistent with the theoretical framework of the training: “a determination of the outcome measures that are theoretically most appropriate to be impacted by changing the leader's style or behavior given the logic theorized in the theory under investigation” (p.780). Given our focus on transformational leadership and its conceptualization by Podsakoff et al. (1990), we opt for studying the impact of the related

leadership development program by focusing on the increase in leaders' awareness about the six behaviors of transformational leadership.

Bloom's taxonomy offers a guiding framework for breaking down training results into accessible chunks of behavior (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). Key to this taxonomy is that assessing the outcomes at the different taxonomical levels requires different assessment methods (Richard & Flavell, 2011). Assessment and instructional interventions should be aligned.

In the present study, we build on Bloom's taxonomy and focus on the three behavioral lower levels of the revised version of the taxonomy to specify levels of awareness achieved after the leadership development intervention. In other words, we center on the following behavioral levels: *remembering*, *understanding*, and *application*. Examples in the literature support the idea to define expected training outcomes in the leadership domain on the base of Bloom's taxonomy (Falk, Garrison Jr, Brown, Pintz, & Bocchino, 2015; Freeman, Chambers, & Newton, 2016).

A recurrent practice when building on Bloom's taxonomy is to define '*action verbs*' that represent mastery at a specific taxonomical level. These verbs are considered being indicators of the intended learning outcomes at each '*awareness*' level. Recent leadership development research – though outside the academic domain - reflects the efficiency of this approach (Richter et al., 2016). In view of the present study, we apply the following basic analysis structure:

- *Remembering* is defined as 'retrieving relevant knowledge from long-term memory' (Weisi & Zamani, 2015). This is reflected in the following indicator verbs when assessing behavior after a leadership intervention: articulate, define, and identify.
- *Understanding* is defined as constructing meaning from oral, written, and graphic communication. It is reflected in the following actions: discuss, describe, and exemplify.
- *Applying* is defined as carrying out or using a procedure or process. It is visible when executing or implementing rules, methods, concepts, principles, and theories. This level is often linked to using what was learned in new and concrete situations. It is reflected in the following actions: demonstrate, develop, and practice.

In the research design section, more information will be made available showing how this approach results in a rich indicator set to map the awareness levels in picking up the six transformational leadership behaviors.

Research design

Research question

The purpose of this study was two-fold. First, to what extent is the impact of a leadership intervention sustained in leaders three months after of the intervention. Second, to what extent is the impact of the leadership intervention still, sustained one year after of the intervention?

Sample

In the context of a larger research project about leadership in Pakistan universities, a stratified sample was defined, building on a total of 34 private and 50 public universities situated in the Punjab, the largest province in Pakistan. In a number of these universities state-of-the-art research was set up to map current leadership approaches and how this affected academic staff (Zulfqar, Valcke, Devos, Tuytens, & Shahzad, 2016). From this sample, two public universities were selected randomly to be involved in leadership development intervention studies and the follow-up studies.

In total, 16 leaders from University A and 9 leaders from University B attended the leadership development program. These leaders were from three different faculties, reflecting different scientific fields (arts and humanities, natural sciences and social sciences). The control group consisted of 12 leaders, six leaders from each university. The control group received no training. The average age of the respondents was 30-60 years with 1 to 30 years of experience. Participants assumed a range of leadership roles and responsibilities at the faculty (Dean) and departmental level (head of the department).

Procedure

As described elsewhere (AA, BB, CC, 2016), we developed a training intervention based on the six behaviors of transformational leadership to increase related awareness in university leaders. Two iterations of the same intervention were carried out involving leaders from two public universities. We also involved leaders from the same institutions, not participating in the intervention, as a control group. Each intervention was preceded and followed by the

same in-depth interviews. As reported elsewhere, we could consistently observe – immediately after the intervention - a significant increase in TL behaviors in the academic leaders. However, to investigate the further short and long-term impact, we planned follow-up studies to check the sustainability and robustness of the interventions. All the leaders who had been involved in the interventions were invited to take part in this follow-up evaluation.

The short-term impact study was conducted involving leaders of university A, three months after the intervention. The long-term impact was studied involving academic leaders of university B, one year after the intervention.

Figure 1 helps to understand the design of the follow-up study, building on the earlier leadership development program. Leaders from both the experimental and control group were interviewed prior to the intervention (t0). Leaders from both universities in the experimental group were interviewed immediately after the intervention (t1). The follow-up study followed two different time frames. Firstly, leaders from University A were invited for an interview and a case study, three months after the intervention (t2 short term impact). At the same time, an additional group of leaders (n=6), not involved in the training were interviewed to complete data for the comparison with control group data. Secondly, one year after the intervention, leaders from University B were contacted (t3 long term impact) to be involved in an interview and to react to the case study. Again, an additional control group was involved in the study (n= 6).

Informed consent was obtained from all participants. They were informed about the fact the interview was being audiotaped and the anonymous processing of the interview data. The purpose of the study was stated in a rather general way, without explicit reference to the concept of transformational leadership. All participants were guaranteed the confidentiality of the data; as such, the name of the universities and participants were recoded.

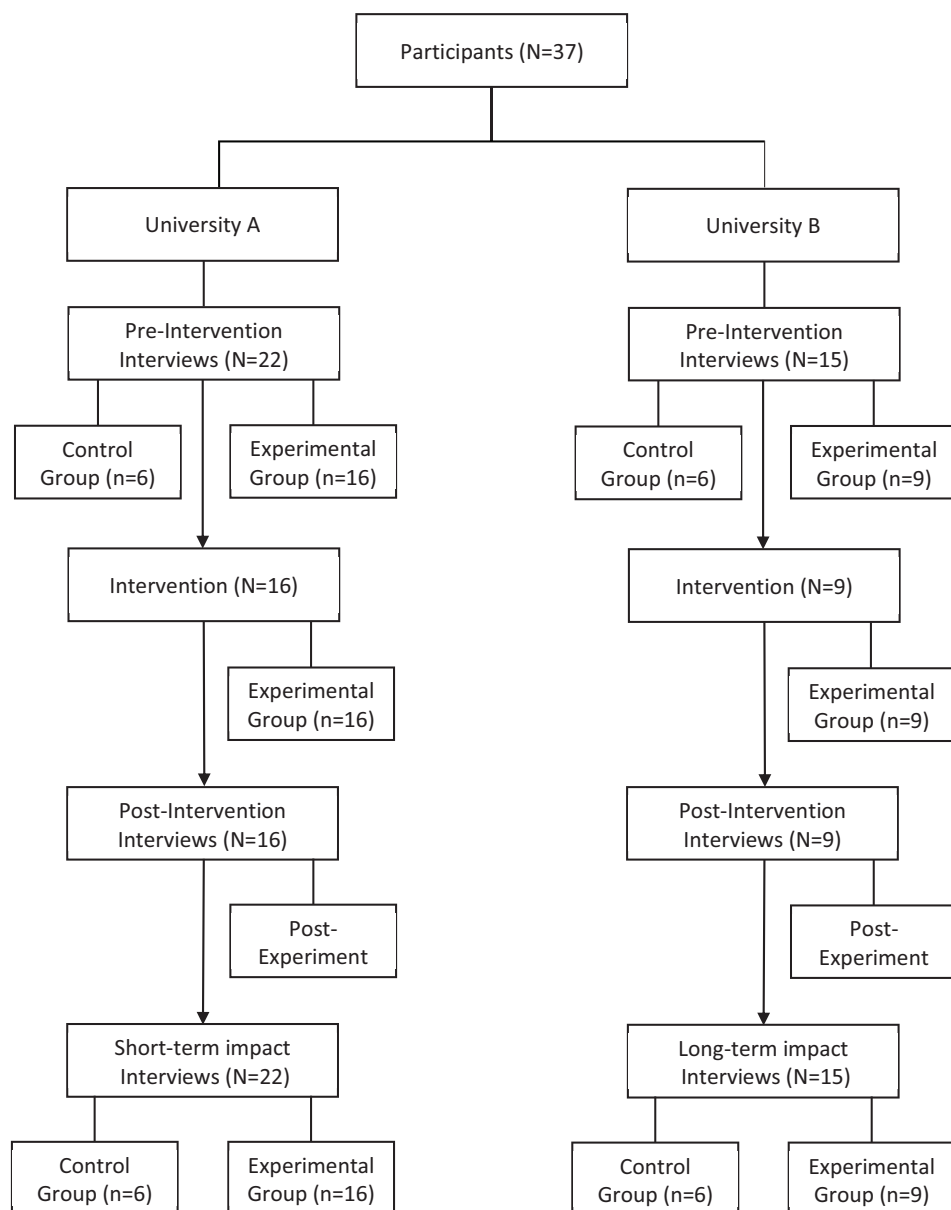


Figure 1. Overall procedure of the study and participants flow

Data collection

As discussed above there is a critical debate in the literature about the design of intervention evaluations. Considering this issue, our follow-up evaluation adopted two ways to develop a picture of the impact on leaders, as suggested by (Hannum & Martineau, 2008): a case study and an in-depth interview.

Prior to the in-depth interview, we presented leaders with a case study that – when being tackled - could invoke the adoption of the six behaviors of transformational leadership. The case study helped cross-checking the impact of the intervention on leaders' awareness. The case study presented leaders with a contextualized real-life situation. Leaders were asked to discuss the case study with the evaluator (first author of this article) by identifying problems and solutions. They were not explicitly prompted to use knowledge provided through the intervention. The case study was presented prior to the in-depth interview to prevent prompting the participants with the interview questions with keywords related to transformational leadership. The case study was only presented to leaders from the experimental group.

The in-depth interview was designed to collect input from leaders about each of the six transformational leadership behaviors. An interview protocol was developed to guide an interview scenario, starting with an introduction to the research topic and information handed over after the interview, (The case study and interview questionnaire are available in Appendix A). On average, each interview lasted 20 to 45 minutes; all face-to-face interviews were audiotaped in view of the analysis.

Data analysis

All the interviews were transcribed verbatim. Nvivo was used to manage the data and the coding process (QSR, 2015). Bloom's revised taxonomy of learning objectives was adopted as a framework to analyze leaders' awareness levels. A coding matrix was developed focusing on three main awareness categories: *remembering*, *understanding*, and *application*. Next, sub-categories were defined based on action verbs fitting each main category. These verbs were considered as indicators for each awareness level. The complete coding matrix can be found in Appendix B.

Responses to the six interview questions – one in relation to each TL behavior - were considered as a comprehensive unit of meaning. Each unit of meaning was screened to identify relevant indicators for each individual TL behavior. This implies multiple indicators for different awareness levels could be identified within the same unit of meaning. The qualitative analysis was applied to both the interview data and the responses to the case-study.

To determine coding reliability, an independent coder (not familiar with the study) was hired to code five interviews and two case studies, randomly selected from the research conditions and measurement moments. The resulting inter-rater reliability was 80% which is in accordance to the standard of Matthew et al. (1994). Since different number of leaders were interviewed at each stage, proportions were calculated.

The number of indicators found for each TL behavior and for each awareness level were divided by the number of interviewed leaders. In this way, awareness levels for each TL behavior and in view of each awareness level could be compared between groups, e.g., post-intervention, control group and follow-up. As explained above, we also involved leaders at the start and at different moments in the study as members of a control group. Appendix C, present the overview of awareness indicators in relation to each transformational leadership behavior in view of the analysis of interviews. We specify their awareness levels at each stage in the study for comparison purposes. Appendix D presents an overview of the case-study results. We attempted to maximize consistency by using a protocol, digital recording, and systematic data analysis.

Results

The intervention was based on the six behaviors of transformational leadership. Building on guidelines from the research literature, we framed our analysis of the leadership intervention impact on the same theoretical framework. This implied a focus on each of the six behaviors of transformational leadership. As explained above, Bloom's taxonomy was adopted to structure the impact on leaders' awareness at the level of remembering, understanding, and application.

Short-term impact

In this section, we report the findings linked to leaders from University A. We compare these follow-up interview analysis results with the immediate post-intervention findings and the control group findings. Table 1 gives a more detailed overview of the results.

Remembering

As to the first awareness level, “remembering,” the immediate post-intervention results reflected a basic increase in awareness indicators in the six behaviors of transformational leadership (Re=2.56 to Re=4.68). But, this picture changed three months after the intervention. Indicators for this awareness level declined from (Re=4.68 to Re=1.31). This seems hardly different from the awareness level in leaders of the control group (Rc=1.66).

As mentioned earlier, to double check leadership awareness, leaders were presented with a case study. The related analysis results as to the level “remembering” confirm the interview analysis results, (Re=0.93). Leaders state their level in remembering the TL leadership behaviors in the following way.

One of the leaders stated:

“We should work as a role model. We should believe in action because people believe in your actions.” (LU0301)

Another leader also explicitly referred to particular TL-behaviors:

“A leader has to consider their ideas and take feedback so that they can stick to that vision. You need to repeat your vision time to time. Then you can achieve your objectives.” (LU0208)

Understanding

As to the understanding level, the interview analysis results reflect robust differences between the immediate and short-term post-intervention results (increase from Ue=3.37 to Ue=4.31). The robust results suggest further leadership development after the training. Leaders reflect their level of understanding by discussing and presenting clear examples of the six behaviors of transformational leadership. Content analysis of leader’s data of the control group shows lower and more basic levels of understanding (Uc=2.66).

Case study results also provide evidence for this increase in “understanding” ($U_e=2.43$). Leaders explicitly revealed their understanding in view of dealing with the problems reflected in the case study.

A leader discussed:

“If any of your teachers could not work with someone, I will discuss with that person and inquire about the difficulties. I will counsel her, without letting know other teachers, without sharing her feedback. So that she can overcome her feeling of fear and threat, and low confidence, etc. There is always a window where I can get into that person where I can make that member jell with other team members. So, it is up to the leader how she handles the situation.” (LU0203)

Another leader stated:

“A leader has to talk to them and try to create an environment where everyone feels comfortable and share their problems. In this way, teachers can work together.” (LU0304)

Application

In the experimental group, there is a rather small decrease in the application level of transformational leadership behaviors ($A_e=3.81$ to $A_e=3.18$). On the other hand, leaders in the control group clearly reflect lower levels of awareness about TL behavior application ($A_c=0.5$). The case-study analysis results are not helpful to confirm these positive findings. The application level was completely missing in the case-study data. Participants mostly focus on providing suggestions to solve the academic problems. No concrete examples were identified to solve the case-study. From the interviews, the application of the TL behaviors could be identified in the following quotes:

A leader describes her TL practice:

“Being a chairperson, I appreciate them in front of other colleagues. If someone is not performing up to the mark, then I talk to that teacher and motivate them.” (LU0302)

Other leaders describe other TL behaviors:

“I am in my office pretty early and leave at the last. Because, if I want to make them regular, I have to model that behavior.” (LU0203)

“I do communicate feedback to the teachers. I wanted to know them that you are being watched. We know what you are doing. I also communicate positive feedback, and I also appreciate them.” (LU0205)

To conclude, the analysis results suggest the impact of the intervention is relatively robust and identifiable. Overall, when comparing the findings with the baseline in the control group leaders, differences in awareness indicators can be identified; either by remaining stable or by reflecting hardly. This suggests a short-term sustainability of the intervention.

Long-term impact

This section is based on the analysis results of data from university B, where the impact of the intervention was studied one year after the intervention. We compare these results with the immediate post-intervention results and awareness levels of leaders in the control group. Table 2 presents a detailed overview of the results.

Remembering

Data analysis shows robust results in relation to this category. There is a small decrease in the proportion of remembering indicators when comparing immediate post-intervention interviews data, and the long-term analysis results ($Re=2.44$ to $Re=1.78$). As to the control group, a slightly lower level of awareness is detected in the interview analysis results ($Rc=1.67$). The case-study results confirm the findings ($Re=1.44$). Leaders from University B clearly “remember” the TL behaviors when dealing with the problems reflected in the case-study. Their remembering is visible in the following quotes:

One of the leaders stated:

“A leader has to follow his sayings; he should practice what he preaches.” (BU0302)

Another leader said:

“It is the responsibility of the leader to take feedback from the students and communicate to the teachers either positive or negative.” (BU0101)

Understanding

As to this category, content analysis shows a decline in the awareness level of understanding ($U_e=4.67$ to $U_e=2.89$). But this remains still high as compared to pre-intervention level and compared to what can be observed in the control group leaders ($U_c=2.33$). The case-study analysis results confirm a comparable level of understanding related to the problems presented in the case-study ($U_e=2.44$). The following interview quotes exemplify these analysis results:

“I have learned this through training; vision is imperative. So, first of all, team members have to sit together to set a vision. To work on that we need to check our capacities first, and then work accordingly. In this way we can achieve our targets and then institute can grow.” (BU0302)

Another leader discussed:

“A leader should be a good listener; he should also develop some trust with the faculty members so that teachers can share their problems with you. He should give good advice to them in a particular situation. So, I think patient, listening and caring are the basic qualities which help you to build a good relationship.” (BU0201)

Table 1. Short-term impact of the intervention based on awareness indicators

Time	Phase	Remembering (R)		Understanding (U)		Application (A)		Total (A)	
		Experimental group (Re)	Control Group (Rc)	Experimental group (Ue)	Control Group (Uc)	Experimental group (Ae)	Control Group (Ac)	Experimental group (Te)	Control Group (Tc)
t0	Baseline	41 (2.56)	2 (0.33)	34 (2.12)	3 (0.5)	14 (0.87)	1 (0.16)	89 (5.56)	6 (1)
t1	Post-intervention	75 (4.68)	--	54 (3.37)	--	61 (3.81)	--	190 (11.87)	--
t2	Short-term impact	21 (1.31)	8 (1.33)	69 (4.31)	13 (2.16)	51 (3.18)	2 (0.33)	141(8.81)	23 (3.83)
	Case study	15 (0.93)	-	39 (2.43)	-	0	-	54 (3.37)	-
	Total		10 (1.66)		16 (2.66)		3 (0.5)		29 (4.83)

Experimental group participants, University A =16, control group=6

Table 2. Long-term impact of the intervention based on awareness indicators

Time	Phase	Remembering (R)		Understanding (U)		Application (A)		Total (A)	
		Experimental group (Re)	Control Group (Rc)	Experimental group (Ue)	Control Group (Uc)	Experimental group (Ae)	Control Group (Ac)	Experimental group (Te)	Control Group (Tc)
t0	Baseline	10 (1.11)	2 (0.33)	19 (2.11)	4 (0.66)	3 (1.5)	0 (0)	32 (3.56)	6 (1)
t1	Post-intervention	22 (2.44)	--	42 (4.67)	--	35 (3.88)	--	99 (11)	--
t3	Long-term impact	16 (1.78)	8 (1.33)	26 (2.89)	10 (1.66)	24 (2.66)	2 (0.33)	66 (7.33)	20 (3.33)
	Case study	13 (1.44)	-	22 (2.44)	-	-	-	35 (3.88)	-
	Total		10 (1.67)		14 (2.33)		2 (0.33)		26 (4.33)

Experimental group participants, University B =9, control group=6

Application

As to the highest level of awareness in view of applying the six behaviors of transformational leadership, a clear increase was observed in this behavior immediately after the intervention. We observe a decline in this awareness level ($A_e=3.88$ to $A_e=2.66$). But compared to the control group this remains considerably high ($A_c=0.33$). As mentioned earlier, the level of application was completely missing in the case-study analysis. So, we cannot confirm these results with the case-study data. Following interview quotes reflect the application level in TL behaviors in leaders' academic settings:

"I give them autonomy and facilitate them in working matters, occasionally, I take feedback about the assignments. In this way, you have an idea that what they are doing and which direction they are going. If I follow the rules, they will follow the rules. So, I try to be a role model for them." (BU0102)

Another leader mentioned:

"After the training, I tried to promote collaboration in our department. In resultant, they are not only collaborating within the department but they are also collaborating with other departments, nationally, and internationally as well. By doing so, we published 17 research papers last year." (BU0101)

Although, the impact of the intervention decreased to some extent at the short and at the long-term, but the impact is still observable. Compared to the control group analysis results, there is still a large difference in TL awareness underpinning the robustness and sustainability of the intervention.

Discussion

The central objective of this study was to investigate the impact of a leadership development intervention, involving leaders from two public universities. Both the short and long-term impact of the intervention was studied. Below, we compare our findings with available studies. Since there is a lack of leadership interventions, set up in the context of higher education, it is often difficult to contrast our findings with available studies. In these cases, we build on available research carried out in different sectors.

As to the short-term impact, we have to consider; it takes time to absorb leadership development content at a behavioral level it becomes observable in work settings. We studied the impact of the intervention three months after the initial intervention, and we could still identify a significant change in awareness level. Additionally, the case study analysis results also enriched the findings. These results are in accordance with the findings of (Rosch & Caza, 2012). They evaluated the impact three months after a leadership training program and found an increase in a leadership capacity; though without a further qualification of the nature of this increase. In their leadership skills development program, Suvedi and Langone (2007) studied the impact of their program and detected improved results in line with our findings. In contrast, Abrell et al. (2011) found no impact three months after their leadership training. They reiterate the results of Leskiw and Singh (2007) who state that leadership development is too complex and that more time is needed to expect an impact. Nevertheless, a short-term evaluation plan can help to evaluate what participants think about the initiative and their experience. It can help to further develop their awareness based on what they have learned from the experience (Hannum & Martineau, 2008).

As to the long-term impact, we could still detect a meaningful number of indicators in leaders' interview responses one year after the intervention. This impact was observed (see appendix C), in relation to all the six behaviors of transformational leadership. This seems comparable to the findings of Harris and Leberman (2010), who adopted a longitudinal study design, including multiple research instruments, such as surveys, phone interviews, and an independent evaluation to investigate the impact of the intervention. Their findings suggest the success of the program even after a period of five years. Though shorter, their findings help to frame out positive findings. The same applies when comparing our finding with the study results of Packard and Jones (2013). They conducted a leadership development program and evaluated its long-term impact by adopting different quantitative and qualitative evaluation methods. They detected a significant increase in participants' self-efficacy. Also, the findings of Abrell et al. (2011) are in line. Their study also built on transformational leadership and adopted multi-sources to investigate its short, mid, and long-term impact. Their results showed how leaders' transformational leadership behavior was still improved after six and more months of the training.

Studies in different sectors also confirm the positive impact of leadership development program six and twelve months after of the training program. (De Vries et al., 2009; Flavell, Jones, Oliver, & Ladyshevsky, 2008; Martin, McCormack, Fitzsimons, & Spirig, 2012; McAllan & MacRae, 2010; Zuber-Skerritt & Louw, 2014).

To explain our positive findings, we build on a methodological argumentation and program design features. From a methodological point of view, we explain part of the positive results by referring to our measurement framework being aligned with the theoretical transformational leadership approach and the fine-grained nature of looking for indicators along the three base levels of Bloom's taxonomy. Secondly, the nature of the leadership development program can be helpful to explain the results. Though hardly discussed in this article, our development program guaranteed a varied approach towards the intervention and stressed personal, collaborative, experiential and reflective learning experiences (AA, BB, CC, 2016).

Limitations

Despite the positive research outcomes, a number of limitations have to be addressed. We could only involve leaders in interventions from public universities, despite of negotiations with private universities. So first, we can criticize the sample size, and the fact the number of leaders in University B was lower as compared to A. Though the development tried to cater for individual leader's agenda, the planning of leadership development is often in conflict with the time demands of this target group. This affect the number and balanced nature of the number of leaders in each group. Given the number and size of universities in Pakistan, a replication of the present study is needed to corroborate the significant changes currently identified at the individual leader's level.

Second, literature suggests additional ways to evaluate the impact of leadership development programs. The training model of Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) suggested four evaluations approaches. The most comprehensive approach is to evaluate the link between individual leaders' changes in behavior and organizational performance. Future research could build on this direction and look at the impact of changes in leaders' behavior in responses from staff and in the achievement of organizational goals.

Next, leadership development in academic organizations is extremely complex. This is especially true in a developing country context. This suggests we need to adopt a mixed method approach to develop a richer picture of the changes in relation to all the six behaviors of transformational leadership. Although we enriched our approach by adopting an additional 'case study,' this should be further developed to apply a range of sufficiently sensitive measures to evaluate the impact of an intervention.

Fourth, a key shortcoming is the lack of studying the impact on actual leadership behavior. Next to the feasibility of such an approach, also ethical considerations have to be mentioned.

Fifth, since we focus on short and long-term effects, it is difficult to control the academic environment that might also influence leadership development in other ways. Changes in leadership behavior might result from encountering other leaders, informal exchanges between leaders, observing colleagues. This stressed the need to control the intervention by involving leaders in a control group (Hannum & Martineau, 2008). But, also leaders in a control group evolve in a potentially uncontrolled way, resulting in – whatever effort is made – somewhat biased results (see the differences in control group scores over time). In the present study, one can also criticize the fact that leaders from university A and B were not mixed in the experimental and the control groups. This could be considered in future research. But in the present context, this was not feasible considering the geographical differences between the universities, the timing and the lack of more researchers that are needed to implement such a study.

Lastly, and already suggested in the above paragraph, the short and long-term evaluation was set up in different universities. Next, to mixing leaders from universities in both evaluation studies, also mid-term impact of a leadership intervention could be implemented.

Implications and conclusion

Leadership development is a continuous process and involves time and investment. Best practices in terms of leadership development typically allocate a large amount of resources to such programs. However, this is dependent on organizational policies and management. This presents a serious implication of our study. Although university management appreciates leadership development initiatives, they hardly invest in such programs. The results of our study identified a positive impact in both participating universities, but training and evaluation

resources were not provided by these universities themselves. Leadership development should nevertheless be taken as a priority for academic organizations. Top management should restrain from routine assignment of leadership role to “academics” because this could affect the extent to which a university attain its goals and realize its vision.

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Appendix A:

Case Study

Mrs. Farrah is working as a chairperson in the Department of Education at Quaid-e-Azam University, Islamabad. She has been working as a head of the department since 2005. Mrs. Farrah is the author of many articles and book chapters. She is an enthusiastic person and wanted to stand out herself. Mrs. Farrah also goes abroad to attend conferences and symposiums. As to the teaching, she has prepared notes/handouts for students. Due to her administrative assignments, she could not manage to prepare her lectures on regular basis.

Mrs. Farrah has been upgrading the curriculum to meet the international standards and providing related facilities to the teachers. She always encourages her teachers to adopt innovative teaching methodologies in the classrooms in view of international standards.

As to the research, Mrs. Farrah always tries to get research grants from HEC and offer her teachers to get involve in those projects. But she prefers to work with a group of teachers who are close to her or those who voluntarily offer their support.

Recently, one of her teachers, Ms. Irum earned a research grant and was very excited about that project. She shared with Mrs. Farrah and requested her support to run that project successfully. Mrs. Farrah showed a positive gesture. But, despite many meetings with Mrs. Farrah, Ms. Irum could not get the approval to start the project.

Later, another group of teachers submitted their manuscript in a (ISI indexed) conference; they requested to seek permission to attend that conference but, at that time Mrs. Farrah was so busy, and she could not manage to see them. Thus, the deadline passed, and they could not attend the conference.

Later, Mrs. Farrah realized, teachers are not in a good mood with her, she call up a meeting and make new promises and resolutions. But, teachers did not find anything new in the meeting. So, teachers are depressed.

1. *What do you think about Mrs. Farrah?*
2. *What elements of the behavior can you identify in this leader?*

Interview outline

Interview outline based on the six behaviors of transformational leadership

Sr#	Questions
1	<p>What are the characteristics of a person that make him/her a good leader?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - If you would appoint/elect a leader, what characteristic would be the most important? - In a crisis, what are the key characteristics of a leader?
2	<p>How a leader can set an inspiring vision for his/her organization?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What would be key words in your approach? - What are typical examples you can give? - How you will communicate an inspiring vision to your colleagues/faculty?
3	<p>When does your staff member respect you as a leader?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What would be key elements in such a respected leader? - What turns you down in a disrespectful leader? - How a leader can be a role model for others? - How a leader can set an example for his/her colleagues?
4	<p>How do you develop a supportive relationship with your faculty members?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What are typical examples you can give? - How do you communicate with your faculty members?
5	<p>What about your staff working together?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How team work is important in academics? - How a leader can foster collaboration in his team members? - What are the typical examples you can give?
6	<p>Who sets what standards as to the job performance of your staff?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Why high standards are important for leaders? - What motivate your teachers to achieve high standards? - What is the role of feedback in setting standards?
7	<p>What motivates your employees/staff to meet high quality work?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How a leader can motivate his faculty members? - What do you think why work motivation is important for faculty members? - What kind of reward you can give to your faculty members?

Appendix B:

Coding indicators based on Bloom’s taxonomy

Awareness Categories	Indicators
Remembering	
They identify the ...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Leaving the doors open for communication for everyone ▪ A leader has to do what he expect from others
They recognize the...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ By performing the best of his abilities himself ▪ Ask my colleagues to share their ideas ▪ Ask form colleagues to set the vision ▪ Practice what you preach
They articulate...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Through frequent meetings ▪ Discuss through meetings ▪ Open door policy in our department
Understanding	
They discuss this...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Discuss his vision with them and takes their feedback ▪ If they do not collaborate, I will try to find out the reason ▪ You cannot plan any strategy and improvement in a program without feedback
They exemplify this...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The punctuality of a leader himself forced the faculty members to reach in time ▪ I am going to pair them with a person who has some potential in that particular task ▪ A leader should follow his own words
They describe...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ I always support my colleagues ▪ If they have frictions and clashes, I would try to change group members ▪ I try my best and ask my colleagues to help each other in difficult moments
Applying	
They demonstrate...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ I am very punctual and my staff try to follow me ▪ You can help your colleagues in their personal matters ▪ I use to work with them
They develop...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ I counsel them ▪ I use to organize one-week training for them to improve their teaching methodology ▪ Take feedback to keep them involve and active
They practice...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ They come to me, and I also go to them ▪ I call them in meetings and visit their offices as well ▪ I motivate through appreciation

Appendix C:
Awareness indicators in relation to each transformational leadership behavior in view of the analysis of interviews

Taxonomy		Articulating a Vision		Providing an appropriate Role Model		Providing an Individualized Support		Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals		High-Performance Expectations		Intellectual Stimulation		Total	
University	Baseline	Remembering	8	2	11	5	6	9	41						
		Understanding	1	8	13	3	5	4	34						
		Applying	0	2	6	1	3	2	14						
		Total	9	12	30	9	14	15	89						
	Control-Group	Remembering	1	4	1	3	0	1	10						
		Understanding	2	3	6	0	1	4	16						
		Applying	0	0	2	1	0	0	3						
		Total	3	7	9	4	1	5	29						
	Post-Experiment	Remembering	25	11	13	6	12	8	75						
		Understanding	9	8	15	7	9	6	54						
Applying		8	7	13	9	11	13	61							

Sustainable leadership development in higher education

Total	42	26	41	22	32	27	190
Short-term follow-up							
Remembering	10	5	3	1	1	1	21
Understanding	10	14	15	10	9	11	69
Applying	3	2	15	13	12	6	51
Total	23	21	33	24	22	18	141
University Baseline							
Remembering	1	3	1	1	1	3	10
Understanding	2	6	2	2	2	5	19
Applying	0	0	0	0	0	3	3
Total	3	9	3	3	3	11	32
Control-Group							
Remembering	1	4	4	0	0	1	10
Understanding	2	2	4	3	0	3	14
Applying	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
Total	3	6	9	4	0	4	26
Post-Experiment							
Remembering	11	1	2	1	5	2	22
Understanding	3	9	9	5	8	8	42
Applying	2	3	10	5	7	8	35
Total	16	13	21	11	20	18	99
Long-term Follow-up							
Remembering	3	2	2	3	4	2	16
Understanding	4	5	4	5	4	4	26
Applying	1	1	5	4	7	6	24
Total	8	8	11	12	15	12	66

Appendix D:

Awareness indicators in relation to each transformational leadership behavior in view of the analysis of case studies

Awareness Indicators based on Bloom's Taxonomy		TL-Behaviors							Total
		Articulating a vision	Providing appropriate role model	Providing individualized support	Fostering the acceptance of group goals	High-performance expectations	Intellectual stimulation		
University A	Short-term follow-up	Remembering	1	7	4	2	1	0	15
		Understanding	1	11	13	11	3	0	39
		Applying	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		Total	2	18	17	13	4	0	54
University B	Long-term follow-up	Remembering	2	3	2	4	0	2	13
		Understanding	0	6	6	5	1	4	22
		Applying	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		Total	2	9	8	9	1	6	35

7

General discussion and conclusion

Chapter 1: General introduction

RO 1

To determine the nature of leadership and decision-making in Pakistan public and private universities by adopting TL and PDM.

RO 2

To investigate the relationship between TL – PDM and teachers' SE beliefs, IM and JS in Pakistan public and private universities.

RO 3

To study the impact of a TL intervention on leaders in Pakistan universities.

Chapter 2

Leadership and decision-making practices in public versus private universities

Chapter 3

TL and PDM and related outcomes

Chapter 4

Leadership development in higher education

Chapter 5

Evaluation of a leadership development intervention

Chapter 6

Sustainable leadership development in higher education

Chapter 7: General discussion and conclusion

Chapter 7

General discussion and conclusion

Abstract

The general aim of the dissertation was to gain the insight about the leadership and decision-making practices in Pakistan universities and to implement a leadership development program for university leaders to raise awareness about their leadership practices. To pursue the aim of the dissertation, five different studies were conducted. This concluding chapter gives an overview of the main findings of the various studies, considering the three research objectives. Findings in relation to each research objectives are presented, followed by a comprehensive discussion of the results focusing on four different themes. These themes link aspects of leadership and decision-making to our key findings. Furthermore, limitations of the dissertation research program and possible directions for future research are presented. A new move towards comprehensive leadership development in higher education Pakistan is discussed in view of one of the key directions for future research. The chapter concludes with implications for theory, practice, and policy.

Introduction

Institutions of higher education play an imperative role in the economic development of a country (Ministry of Education, 2015). Worldwide, higher education is under pressure and faces a number of challenges related to access, funding, and governance (Bolden, Jones, Davis, & Gentle, 2015). The latter is fundamental to overcome all the challenges. Pakistan higher education is not unlike other developed and developing countries in view of these problems. To tackle these issues, higher education has been through significant reforms during the last decades but, still a lot is to be addressed.

Universities across the globe – depending on their particular context – have to meet the demands for efficiency or legitimacy. Other contextual factors play an even larger role when it comes to higher education governance in developing countries. As stated in our introductory chapter, in Pakistan we observe a lot of internal and external pressure on university leaders that directly or indirectly influence their decisions. As such, leadership positions in higher education are critical. Universities in Pakistan are autonomous bodies, and the academic

structure is collegial in nature, e.g., senate, syndicate, selection boards, and committees. But, how far they are autonomous and collegial in practices are substantive questions to study.

Literature strongly stresses it is becoming more and more difficult for individuals to – possess all skills and abilities required to lead an organization (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Conger & Lawler III, 2009; Freedman, 2009). In the Pakistan context, where questions about academic freedom and the collegial nature of universities can be raised, this is further complicated by the selection procedure of leaders (such as vice-chancellors) is carried.

The present dissertation addresses in part these issues by combining insights about leadership and decision-making and next centers on a leadership development program to implement transformational leadership. The related research program reflects three key research strands: (1) the nature of leadership and decision-making practices, (2) how leadership and decision-making influence university teachers, and (3) what is the impact of a leadership development intervention. This can be linked to three specific research objectives, directing the set-up of the different studies in this dissertation:

Research Objectives

Research objective 1: To determine the nature of leadership and decision-making in Pakistan public and private universities by adopting transformational leadership and participative decision-making and to determine the extent to which public and private universities are different in adopting these approaches.

Research objective 2: To investigate the relationship between transformational leadership – participative decision-making and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction in Pakistan public and private universities.

Research objective 3: To study the impact of a leadership intervention - based on transformational leadership - on leaders in Pakistan public universities.

These research objectives were addressed in the empirical studies that were described in Chapters 2 to 6. Studies were set up, applying both quantitative and qualitative approaches, with a strong influence of a qualitative research methodology.

The first research objective was dealt with in Chapter 2 by using in-depth interviews and involving public and private university leaders. The qualitative study design was also adopted

to investigate the leadership and decision-making differences in public and private universities.

The second research objective was put forward to examine the influence of leadership and decision-making on public and private university teachers. Next to leadership and decision – making variables, also teachers’ related variables were added to the theoretical and research model: self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction. A quantitative study was implemented, involving teachers from public and private universities. This research objective was discussed in chapter 3.

The third research objective was addressed in chapter 4, 5, and 6. The specific focus was on leadership development through an intervention based on transformational leadership. Only leaders from public universities were involved. Chapter 4 reported the results of a pilot version of the leadership intervention, involving one public university. Chapter 5 addressed the main intervention study, leadership development involving two public universities and following a pretest-posttest design. Chapter 6 reported the short and long-term impact of the leadership development intervention. All these three studies build on a qualitative research design.

Main results

In the following sections, the main findings of the different studies reported in chapter 2 to 6, are discussed in relation to each research objective. In addition, we outline the limitations of the studies and present directions for future studies. Finally, we conclude with the implications for theory, policy, and practice.

Research objective 1: Leadership and decision-making practices in public and private universities

In order to meet the first research objective, a study was set up to investigate the leadership and decision-making practices in four public and private universities of Pakistan. We, additionally explored differences between the public and private sector in adopting transformational leadership and participative decision-making. As described in detail in Chapter 2, 46 leaders (deans and heads) were involved in this study. A semi-structured interview was constructed to collect the data. A cross-case analysis was carried out to compare data from public and private universities.

The findings of this study show that the nature of leadership and decision-making can be described in terms of available models e.g., transformational leadership and participative decision-making. Though these models are derived from developed countries, available research shows how these models can have a rather universal value. For instance, Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, and Dorfman, (1999) and Mintzberg (2010) tested different attributes associated with charismatic/transformational leadership across 62 cultures as part of the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) Research Program. Their results support the hypothesis that aspects of charismatic/transformational leadership are universal and valid across cultures. This underpins the findings which is in line with our results.

As to transformational leadership (TL), we found interesting similarities and differences between public and private universities in Pakistan. The following three transformational leadership behaviors were found to be crucial when comparing public and private universities: *(1) articulating a vision, (2) fostering the acceptance of group goals, and (3) high-performance expectations*. These differences are important, in view of the challenges currently encountered by public and private universities in Pakistan. As to participative decision-making, deans and heads seem adopting collaborative approaches in universities. This is in accordance with the collegial/shared culture of academia (Ayoubi & Khalifa, 2015; McCann, 2011; Shah et al., 2014). But overall, the collaboration is limited to certain areas e.g., teachers and students, which could be a serious consideration for higher education Pakistan in view of the growing development in the field of higher education.

Research objective 2: The relationship between transformational leadership, participative decision-making with teachers' related variables

A large amount of literature supports the notion that leaders who adopt a transformational leadership style encourage their followers to work together, create a shared culture, and give them partial autonomy (Hickman, 1997; Pearce, 2004). This was discussed in Chapter 1 and reiterated in chapter 3, where we focused on research objective 2, about the relationship between transformational leadership – participative decision-making and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction in Pakistan public and private universities. In this study, teachers (N=218) from four public and private universities participated in a quantitative study design. Considering the nested design of data, we initially

tested multi-level statistics. But, due to the limited number of values at the levels, this proved less relevant. Therefore, multiple regression analysis was applied to test the hypotheses.

The results from chapter 3 confirm the positive link between transformational leadership and participative decision-making with job satisfaction of university teachers in both public and private universities. A large amount of literature supports the finding that leaders who adopt a transformational leadership style and involve their teachers in decision-making, will result in teachers being satisfied with their job (Amin, Shah, & Talah, 2013; Pacheco & Webber, 2016). These type of leaders create a collegial climate (Rice, 2006), which is paramount in transformational leadership and decision-making processes (Meyers & Johnson, 2008). Followers feel elevated when they are invited to take part in making decisions. In terms of participative decision-making, the literature emphasizes leaders should give team members a chance to voice their opinions (Bergman, Rentsch, Davenport, & Bergman, 2012), thus increasing their satisfaction (Chen, Yang, Shiau, & Wang, 2006). As to the intrinsic motivation, only a weak relationship was detected in public universities. This is not in line with earlier studies who report higher levels of motivation (Joo, Jeung, & Yoon, 2010). Bryman (2007), on the base of a qualitative study, found how a leadership climate pushed staff autonomy, a key indicator of higher levels of intrinsic motivation. As will be explained below, these results can be explained by the rather basic level of autonomy in Pakistan decision-making. Though leadership looks transformational in nature, the decision-making autonomy component looks restricted to certain domains.

We found surprising results as to the self-efficacy beliefs of university teachers. It seems, leaders who adopt a transformational leadership style and participative decision-making approaches influence teachers' belief to a lesser extent. Thus, we could not identify this link, neither in public nor in private universities. The result in relation to self-efficacy is not in line with available research (Klassen & Usher, 2010; Lu, Jiang, Yua, & Li, 2014). Next to methodological questions, this raises questions about leadership and decision-making in the Pakistan higher education context. It might indicate higher education leadership and decision-making is yet not very stable in Pakistan. It might also call for leadership development in this field.

Research objective 3: Leadership development in public universities of Pakistan

Research objective 1 and 2, helped preparing the ground for a leadership development intervention. Research objective 3, formulated to study the impact of a leadership intervention on leaders in public universities of Pakistan, was further broken down into two objectives. First, what is the impact of a leadership intervention on university leaders? Second, what is the short and long-term impact of the leadership intervention on university leaders? A leadership intervention - based on the transformational leadership model - was designed for university leaders. Six training sessions were designed and implemented reflecting the six behaviors of transformational leadership. The intervention was first tested in a pilot study, involving a smaller sample of leaders from one public university. The main purpose of the intervention was to develop awareness in leaders about their leadership practices; and this in view of transformational leadership. A semi-structured interview focused on each of the six behaviors of transformational leadership. Participants were interviewed before and after the intervention. Content analysis of the interview data was carried out. Comparing interview data of before and after the intervention, showed significant increases in relation to each behavior of transformational leadership. This first intervention study was described in chapter 4.

Chapter 5 is based on the main intervention study. An experimental study design was adopted by involving leaders from two public universities, studying their transformational leadership awareness level before and after the intervention. Semi-structured interviews were again conducted to determine respondents' awareness about the six behaviors of transformational leadership. All the participants, involved in the training, were interviewed before and after the intervention. Control group leaders were only interviewed prior to the intervention. Content analysis of interview data, collected before and after the intervention, helped identifying significant changes in indicators at the three levels of awareness according to Bloom's taxonomy. A clear increase in leadership awareness was observed in relation to all six behaviors of transformational leadership, with a remarkable increase in the reported application level. Although there is a lack of leadership interventions in higher education, we could compare our findings with available studies conducted in different contexts. Our results are also in line with the findings of these earlier leadership development studies.

Lastly, focusing on research objective 3, we investigated the temporal nature of the impact of a leadership intervention on university leaders in two public universities. We studied the

short and long-term impact of the intervention as compared to the immediate impact reported in the former chapters. Participants, involved in the earlier studies were interviewed again three months (short-term impact) and one year (long-term impact) after their involvement in the intervention. Content analysis of the interview data was carried out to investigate the impact of the intervention and again we focused on the three awareness levels in Bloom's taxonomy. Comparison with the pre-intervention data and the immediate impact results, we could detect a slight decrease in TL behaviors next to somewhat stable results. But compared to the behaviors in the control group, the findings show the robust nature of the results.

General discussion

In this section, the main results from the different studies are framed by developing four main themes. Hence, the strengths of the dissertation are discussed and the findings are assessed within a broader framework. The broad themes specifically focus on the (a) nature of transformational leadership and participative decision-making, (b) transformational leadership – participative decision-making and teachers' related variables, (c) leadership development, and (d) the sustainability of leadership development programs.

Transformational leadership in higher education

Our earlier research in view of transformational leadership in higher education has already point out that the nature of leadership in Pakistan universities is largely transformational. Some differences were observed between public and private universities (Zulfqar, Valcke, Devos, Tuytens, & Shahzad, 2016). This was discussed in Chapter 2.

There is a huge debate in the literature about adopting leadership styles; partly because leadership styles seem determined by the culture of the organization and the broad cultural context (Bush, 2007). Leadership is by nature a multiple-level phenomenon (Chun, Yammarino, Dionne, Sosik, & Moon, 2009), and new leadership approaches are being adopted considering the differences in the contextual setting of e.g., schools, colleges and universities (Bush, 2007). In the next paragraphs we develop the nature of the relationship between leadership models and practices in academic context.

Higher education in Pakistan has witnessed a rapid and unprecedented change so it is vital to identify the nature of leadership in Pakistan universities. But the former also necessitates being careful as to the changing needs in adopting leadership styles.

Universities in Pakistan try coping with the international standards of higher education. Academic institutes seem increasingly moving towards a shared and collegial culture. Transformational leadership is one of the approaches based on such collegial culture in organizations (Day & Antonakis, 2012). Leaders encourage staff to work together to counter real challenges and avail opportunities (Ruben, 2004). But this raises important questions, whether implementing a foreign leadership model into Pakistan universities does fit the cultural context. Dickson, Den Hartog, and Mitchelson (2003); and House, Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, and DeLuque (2014) stressed strongly that leadership is affected by the broader organizational and societal cultural values in which organizations are embedded (Dickson et al., 2003; House et al., 2014). Others add to this that social customs and practices vary from country to country (Aycan, 2002). In such conditions of complexity and ambiguity, as Fullan and Scott (2009) argue, leadership styles are needed which focus on long-term sustainable improvement. This was later endorsed by (Leithwood, 1992) when focusing on academic settings.

Nevertheless, the universality of leadership styles is a recurrent topic in the literature (see discussion in relation to study 1). The landscape and context of the institution also define the major factors in defining leadership style. Mintzberg (2010) concludes that transformational leadership is effective across organizations and countries because it confronts or challenges traditional ethics of leaders, and provides a balance of power and “due process” especially in a democratic society. This is in line with our study results. Also in the Pakistan context, academic organizations seem to be - by large - transformational in nature, but some aspects still need to be developed or contextual factors might hinder its full adoption (Zulfqar et al., 2016).

As mentioned in the first chapter of this dissertation, there is a large and ongoing debate about the definition and behaviors of transformational leadership. In fact all leadership theories have pros and cons; whether they are charismatic, instructional, transactional, or transformational. Focusing on transformational leadership, authors such as Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, (2013) criticize transformational leadership from four different perspectives:

First, they state a clear conceptual definition of charismatic–transformational leadership is lacking. Second, they state that transformational leadership theories fail to specify sufficiently the causality processes in the model. They indicate how the TL approach does not clearly indicate how each dimension has a distinct influence on mediating processes and outcomes and how this is contingent on moderating influences. Third, the conceptualization and operationalization of TL seem to confound its characteristics with expected effects/outcomes. Fourth, frequently used measurement tools could be invalid since available research fails to reproduce the dimensional structure specified by theory and fails to confirm TL is distinct from other aspects of leadership. This raises many questions about the theoretical construct of TL. Other authors, such as Stam et al., (2010) suggest to re-analyze the elements of transformational leadership or to move towards more well-established approaches (Van Kalshoven et al., 2011; Ellen et al., 2013). Nevertheless, we consider the TL leadership approach relevant and valid for the context of this dissertation. First, the approach proved helpful to map TL behaviors, the instruments proved to be reliable and the TL approach helped to develop a structured intervention. Next, the TL approach does fit our “context”, as discussed in the next paragraphs.

We have to stress that context is important to choose a leadership approach. This was also stressed by Bush (2010) who states context is critical for any leadership study. The significance of the context within which leadership is practiced has been recognized at an early stage (Glatter, 1989; Goldring, 1997), and has been stressed by analysts from widely different traditions (Glatter & Kydd, 2003). For example, in the Pakistan cultural context higher education experiences a lot of internal and external pressures. Therefore, leaders face difficulties to create a shared and collaborative culture (Nadeem, Imran, Shah, & Sarwar, 2008). Since higher education is under constant reforms, the creation of a thorough collegial culture that involves staff at all levels of higher education organizations will take time.

As developing countries often face “power and politics” issues, the practice of shared/collegial culture and to bring everyone on the same page is challenging. Particularly in Pakistan, apart from internal pressures in higher education (e.g., teachers union, students unions), we also observe a variety of external pressure (e.g., politicians, ideologies, generational differences) (Subhani, Akif, Osman, & Fouzia, 2012). This challenges the extent to which leaders can create a collaborative culture. According to the higher education

literature from developed countries, authors – such as Bolden et al. (2012) – stress that academic leadership can only flourish in settings where there is a relative academic freedom. Collegial leadership, with mutual support from staff, consensus decision-making, and debate and discussions with peers seem only possible in a context where one can avoid a bureaucratic and strictly controlled environment (Davis & Jones, 2014; Jones, 2013).

This relationship between the nature of leadership and the context becomes very clear when we focus on the similarities and differences in Pakistan public and private universities. We identified for instances differences in leadership practices when it comes to setting and working together towards a shared vision (Zulfqar et al., 2016). Private universities experience different push and pull factors that affect leadership styles. Though the literature stresses how academia are moving towards the adoption of horizontal leadership approaches and new concepts are being introduced, such as teamwork and team cohesion, (Bolden et al., 2012; Gosling, Bolden, & Petrov, 2009) the question can be raised whether this fits all universities. We identified for instance differences in the extent to which leaders in private universities adopt a collegial culture in the organizations. (In this section the focus is on the nature of leadership in universities. The identified differences have been discussed in chapter 2).

The data analysis shows how leaders/teachers are less likely to work together (e.g., article writing, sharing teaching materials). What we observe in the Pakistan context is therefore – not surprisingly - different from what has been observed by Hicklin, Meier, and O’Toole (2009) who stress how both public and private universities need to create a more collaborative and shared environment within and between universities. This kind of transformational leaders are often thought to have their greatest effect by changing how work groups (rather than individuals) function (Lord & Dinh, 2011).

Decision-making in higher education

Our research findings showed leaders in Pakistan public and private universities adopt collaborative approaches when it comes to decision-making. But critical is the fact that this collaboration remains limited to certain topics and contexts; e.g., administrative tasks and students related issues. This is in line as to the available literature in view of adopting this approach, e.g., many institutions have a structure which is collegial/collaborative in theory (syndicate, senate, boards, and committees) but in practice does not function collegially (Bacon, 2014). Our finding raises questions: Why is participation of teachers limited in their

decision-making? As higher education has to meet challenging demands, we need a more participatory and shared culture (Nadeem et al., 2008). If the structure of the organization is horizontal then this seems largely dependent on the leaders in the organizations. In this way, the leadership discussion enters into the decision-making discussion. Pakistan is not an exception as compared to other developing countries where people are ambitious to hold leadership positions and refrain from sharing related power (Aycan, 2002; Mintzberg, 2010; Shah et al., 2014). The story seems the same in the private sector as well. However, in Western settings – the educational reality – the culture in academia seems more horizontal in nature, e.g., the dean of the faculty or a head of the department cannot work alone without the support of his colleagues (Fletcher & Kaeufer, 2003; Bolden et al., 2015; Jones, 2013). In the Pakistan context, they can issue orders but the system becomes easily dysfunctional. We could observe this in different interviews when participation is accepted in issues where deans/head have no other choice, or hardly can decide by themselves, e.g., allocation of courses, conducting exams and setting up timetables. When asked the question about collaboration, a number of leaders took a pause and said “not really” or “not in research”, referring to patches of decision-making that is shared.

As stated earlier, the kind of decision-making culture turns attention to top leadership in Pakistan universities. Though the academic structure seems ‘horizontal’ in nature, but in reality, the shared power and decision culture is not yet a characteristic of Pakistan universities. This becomes clear when looking at the composition of different committees in universities, e.g., senate or syndicate. Though there is an election system for the selection of committee members, questions are asked as to the fairness of those elections. What about internal and external pressures? What about gender balance? And how far do these bodies function in an autonomous way? When it comes to committees in the universities, do they reflect the voice of all members? This also applies to e.g., selection boards for the appointment of teachers and other staff, committees to decide about research, committees to plan the future of the universities, committees to handle student issues. Listening to the voice of leaders in the interviews, the answer to the former questions seems “fifty – fifty”. Leaders often involve faculty and ask their opinion, but largely seem to decide by themselves especially in “policy matters.”

A hammering factor in view of adopting a shared decision-making culture in Pakistan higher education, is related to the selection and appointment of vice-chancellors (Subhani, Akif, Osman, & Fouzia, 2012). The top leaders of universities seem to behave very differently from the deans and heads of departments. This is partly explained by the way they are being selected and appointed. Academia can put forward a list of candidates and external forces decide on the final ranking. But when a vice-chancellor is not selected on the base of merit (the selection criteria) how can he/she cultivate an autonomous and shared culture in the universities? When collegial culture is not a priority for top leadership, can we expect this at the level of deans and heads of departments? Research confirms the former is a common phenomenon for developing countries. Leaders often are less willing to share power (Mintzberg, 2010; UNESCO, 2000).

On the other hand, developing countries are ambitious to upgrade their organizational structures and to adapt leadership and decision-making models from developed countries. Shared and collegial models are becoming accepted and established in developing countries. As Bligh, Pearce, and Kohles (2006) pointed out, “as organizations have steadily progressed into the knowledge economy we can no longer rely on simple notions of top-down, command-and-control leadership, based on the idea that workers are merely interchangeable drones” (ibid, p. 355). Further, Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber (2009) stressed that shared leadership is gaining prominence in organizations as team-based structures have replaced hierarchical structures. Higher education is speedily moving towards a shared and collegial culture; not for the sake of “democracy” as such, but especially to be able to meet the demands of society and the challenges of today’s world (Bolden et al., 2015; Jones, 2013).

But, staff participation in decision-making process might also introduce critical aspects due to its multi-dimensional nature. For instance, involvement of staff in decision-making sometimes causes delays in the decisions especially when decisions need to be made in crisis situations (Weddle, 2013). Next, in multifaceted organizations like universities, there is a propensity for decision-making to be centralized (Naylor, 1999). This situation leads to limited employee participation or no participation at all. Leaders may, if inclined, present ideas and invite input from employees (Ibara, 2010). Moreover, leaders hold team meetings and as such solicit for input from the team, listen to the team’s ideas and consequently use this

information in view of making a decision. This can be labeled as “consultative participation” but the final decision depends entirely on leaders (Weddle, 2013).

The former stresses again how the discussion about decision-making leads us back to the discussion about leadership. Building on the former discussion theme, we could conclude that Pakistan academic leadership is largely transformational in nature. Is this not in conflict with this more ambiguous finding about decision-making?

Part of the explanation for the seeming conflict is related to the more complex nature of transformational leadership as compared to participative decision-making. The latter is related to one key behavior of transformational leaders. Our discussion about transformational leadership was more general as compared to a very closely related transformational leadership sub-behavior.

The impact of leadership and decision-making on university teachers

One of the objectives of this dissertation was to investigate the impact of leadership and decision-making on university teacher variables. We found somewhat different results when comparing our findings with available research. In general, our findings showed that leaders’ transformational and participative decision-making behavior positively influence teachers’ job satisfaction. But, only a weak link was identified with intrinsic motivation (only in public universities) and no link was found with self-efficacy.

We already compared these results with key authors in the literature. In this section we take steps back to check the nature of this relationship in the particular context. In this context, Aktas, Gelfand, and Hanges (2015) analyzed the extent to which cultural tightness-looseness affects the level of collectivism and power distance. Building on these concepts, we can state Pakistan universities still reflect tight cultural conceptions that go together with stronger collectivism and stronger power distances. Leaders – both in public and private universities – therefore adopt “limited” or “so-called” participative decision-making. They only involve their colleagues in certain matters. Other studies in the Pakistan context come to the same conclusion (Nadeem et al., 2008; Shah et al., 2014). For example, research show how Pakistan deans tend to ignore recommendations of lecturers (Shah et al., 2014); thus affecting a key dimension of participative behavior of leaders, resulting lower involvement of staff in decisions. Pakistan culture still emphasizes the traditional power position of leaders and inter-

relational “boundaries.” This reflect a tighter focus on social norms, resulting in weaker participative decision-making (Eisenbeiss, Van Knippenberg, & Boerner, 2008).

It remains surprising that leadership affects teachers’ jobs satisfaction, but has seemingly no relationship with teacher self-efficacy and hardly a relationship with teacher motivation. It raises questions about a potential large teacher pressure because of leadership and decision-making practices in universities? Are teachers overburdened? As explained in the introduction and elsewhere in this dissertation, Pakistan higher education is challenged because of changing policies and growing governance interference (Rasheed, Aslam, & Sarwar, 2010). This might ultimately affect teacher performance. Universities are increasingly engaged in launching new programs, e.g., evening programs, distance learning programs, and weekend programs. At some point, this looks like a motivator for teachers to earn more, but it keeps them continuously occupied and stresses the quantitative dimension of teaching and research instead of its quality. Higher engagement, better pay, and conducive working environment might help explaining higher levels in job satisfaction (Rehman, Gujjar, Khan, & Iqbal, 2009; Amin, Shah, & Talah, 2013). But, the growing workload limits teacher’s engagement in research activities. Research is a core area for universities and the government imposes increasingly more demanding performance indicators related to research on Pakistan higher education (Iqbal & Iqbal, 2011). Whereas in the past, quality indicators accepted publications in national level journals in the context of performance evaluation and promotion; new standards are being introduced by the Higher Education Commission. This results in stricter research quality criteria that are more difficult to meet by teachers; this might be a reason affecting teacher self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation.

In addition, the Higher Education Commission Pakistan is investing in teachers’ professional development to adopt innovative instructional strategies. These initiatives include, national and international scholarships, teacher professional development, competitive salary packages, and revising teaching compensation programs. A recent initiative to promote research is to award cash prizes when publishing in national and international journals (National Standards for Accreditation of Teacher Education Programs, 2009). Rewards matter a lot to increase motivation (Nazir, Saif-Ur-Rehman., Khan, Shah, & Zaman, 2013). No doubt these initiatives can invoke motivation of teachers, but the job expectations should be in balance with teacher qualifications and capabilities. Otherwise, they might negatively affect

motivation (through lower competence feelings), lower self-efficacy (not being able to meet the expectations) and eventually lower job satisfaction. Although the above initiatives are not immediately related to leadership and participative decision-making, their implementation will require leaders that support teachers to adapt to this changing environment. If leadership is sufficiently collegial and the academic environment is of a shared nature, it might help teachers to grow in academia, ultimately contributing to organizational growth (Zuber-Skerritt & Louw, 2014).

Leadership development in higher education

Leadership development is the crux of this dissertation. Moreover, the findings of our leadership development intervention clearly show the potential impact on leaders. Clear positive changes in view of awareness levels were observed before and after the intervention. As discussed elsewhere, our findings in view of leadership development are in line with Bolden et al. (2015); Bryman (2007), Gmelch (2013), and many other authors. A large body of research is available focusing on the positive impact of leadership development in higher education, but comparable studies set up in developing countries are rather scarce (Mintzberg, 2010). As explained earlier, the leadership development is crucial in higher education within developing countries (Aycan, 2002). Research reflects many concerns about leadership development programs. Especially when planning leadership development, a range of related questions appear: (1) Why do we need leadership development? (2) What will be the methodology of the training program? (3) What will be the duration of the training program? And most importantly (4) What will result from a leadership development program? These are critical questions to be answered before starting a leadership development intervention. We will discuss these questions in detail, considering our findings and the particular intervention design.

Why leadership development?

There is considerable debate in the literature about preparing academic leaders (Gmelch, 2013). Often academicians think they do not need training in view of leadership roles. Leadership development is not a priority in academia; leaders are passionate for the position, but they are never readied for these positions (Dopson et al., 2016). Deans and department chairs typically come to the position without leadership preparation, sometimes without prior executive experience, without a clear understanding of the ambiguity and complexity of their

roles, and without recognition of the metamorphic changes that occur as they transform from an academic to a leader (Gmelch, 2013). Focusing on this, Morris (2008) emphasized how managing a classroom requires different attributes as compared to managing a faculty/department. To answer the above questions, we need to acknowledge the changing world of academia. There is a need for leaders who can handle new society demands (see accountability, quality, and innovation, etc.). But, the question can be asked whether leadership development is solely the responsibility of the individual leader?

The former discussion introduces the institutional perspective towards leadership development. Evans, Homer, and Rayner (2013) stress how educational leadership and management has become a recognized field of research, but the perspective of the organization is often overlooked and neglected. In this context, McCauley (2008) shows in top organizations, leadership development is closely tied to the vision, values, and goals of the organizations, and is, therefore, a core part of the organizational strategic planning processes. Research suggests that private universities are more clear and concerned about their vision, but nevertheless little attention is being paid to investments in leadership development.

Methodology of the leadership development program?

What techniques should be adopted to train leaders? What strategies help making learning interesting and more useful? Leaders in Pakistan universities were quite concerned about the methodology of the leadership development intervention. Leadership development programs are expected to go beyond the constraints of conventional training programs (Leskiw & Singh, 2007). Taking into account the available literature, next to the lectures the leadership development program in this dissertation did build on case studies, simulations, collaborative learning and contextualized problems. This methodology is in accordance with recommendations from the literature. As explained in the chapters, the design not only reflected adult learning principles, constructivist ideas, etc., but also built strongly on cases, problems, and examples collected in the particular research context. Next to instructional design decisions, the literature also stresses a number of research design decisions. DeRue and Myers (2014) suggest in this context focusing on different measurement occasions and observations to study changes over time. Next, Bryman (2007) also stressed the adoption of (quasi-) experimental designs involving a control group and decisions to study the impact of the intervention over time.

Duration of the leadership training program

As to the duration of the intervention, university leaders pose particular problems to fit a training program in their agendas. This shows again how leadership development initiatives are often not a priority in higher education. Other authors also observed this difficulty (Conger, 1993; Evans et al., 2013). In his seminal paper, Conger (1993); and McCall (2004) criticize current training approaches: haphazard, occasional skills-building exercises, focusing on concepts, focus on top leaders only, and outdoor training. But the resulting request of leaders to be involved in short duration programs is in conflict with recommendations in the literature (see, e.g., McCall, 2004). Nevertheless, also short programs can be effective if carefully crafted (see above) and implemented in close connection with the target audience.

Expected outcomes of a leadership development program?

Pakistan university leaders – in preliminary discussions – explicitly raised questions about what they would get out of the training. This clearly stresses how expected outcomes have to be related to participants' needs. A large amount of literature is available about needs analysis and the effectiveness of leadership development programs. But authors continue questioning the nature of the available evaluation studies. Leadership development programs are – considering the required resources - expensive and require a long-term investment because behavioral changes take time. Sustaining long-lasting programs is a challenge, especially considering the fact not all academics successfully make a transition to successful leadership (Gmelch, 2013). Even in developed countries, we observe a concern about the sustainability of leadership development programs (Dopson et al., 2016). For example, Burgoyne et al. (2009) suggest - in their research of UK higher education institutions - that while 78% of the institutions believe an investment in leadership development is value for money, many are uncertain if this investment has had impact. Leadership development of deans and departmental heads is a process that should extend over many years (Gmelch, 2013). This questions to what extent changes should be aimed at. In the present dissertation, we aimed at an increase in awareness levels of leaders about their leadership roles and practices. Considering the rather short nature of the present intervention program, we could nevertheless report successful changes in these awareness levels. Considering the recurrent emphasis in academia on time and resource constraints, the outcomes of the present intervention sounds very interesting. But it has to be acknowledged our results reflect only

an impact at “awareness level”. Following Bloom’s taxonomy, this is yet not an impact at the behavioral level. As such, our intervention evaluation can still be criticized. For instance, Collins and Holton III (2004) criticize the available research and point at the lack of systematic evaluation of leadership interventions (ibid, p.53). In the context of this discussion chapter, they particularly emphasize how studies hardly look how learning outcomes are getting translated to the work setting. This also due to the fact most evaluations remain very general and are only set up during and at the end of the intervention (Cromwell & Kolb, 2004).

The latter introduces a further discussion about the evaluation time frame to be adopted for leadership development program. Firstly, it introduces a focus on the timing of related evaluations. As stressed earlier, we focused on the immediate impact of the intervention, next to a focus on a short-term and long-term impact. This is crucial in view of determining the sustainability of the intervention and the related return-on-investment. As explained earlier, we found robust changes in leaders’ level of awareness that are comparable with findings in available research (Abrell, Rowold, Weibler, & Moenninghoff, 2011; Harris & Leberman, 2010). Next, a focus on the impact of intervention also reflects an “actor” perspective. We now studied the impact in leaders who have participated in this leadership development intervention. The impact of the leadership development could be studied from a wider stakeholder perspective, e.g., the perspective of students, teachers and the organization as a whole (Grove, Kibel, & Haas, 2007; Martineau & Patterson, 2010).

Limitations and directions for future research

The studies in this dissertation provide a broader insight in university leadership and decision-making practices in Pakistan higher education. We also studied a leadership development program for university leaders. In discussing the above themes, we touched on strengths of our studies, but also introduced critical comments. These are repeated here within a broader framework that discusses these limitations in view of offering perspectives for future research and development. The limitations are clustered following issues related to (1) sample, (2) research design, and (3) nature of the research context.

Sample

- The sample is of great importance in this dissertation. Two key samples were involved in the studies: leaders (deans and heads) and teachers. We have to stress sample sizes were

relatively limited in both cases. First, we involved teachers from four public and private universities. Comparing the total number of universities in Pakistan in general and in the province in particular, this number of universities is small. Moreover, sample sizes were not always equal, with samples from private universities being smaller. This affects the generalizability of the results. This also affected the applicability of more advanced statistical techniques such as multilevel analysis that could have helped studying the nature of the variance explained at a university, faculty, or department level. This could have affected the extent to which we could detect valid interrelations between the research variables. Future studies should involve more universities, faculties and large numbers of staff/leaders.

- Next, in the main intervention study, we did only involve 15 leaders, and this only from one public university. We negotiated participation with other public and private universities but getting universities involved in this endeavor proved difficult. As a consequence, data from the pilot and the main study were merged for further analysis purpose in chapter 5. This again affects the generalizability of the results, especially when we consider private sector universities. But, leadership research is often characterized by rather small sample sizes, given the nature of the target group. This could be solved by involving consecutive cohorts of leaders in studies.

Research design

- The research instruments adopted in this dissertation were originally designed for developed countries. We can question the fit of their adoption in the educational Pakistan context. The available research instruments might have been designed with a focus on very different contexts as reflected in e.g., organizational structures, other academic innovations, focusing on other types of participants, etc. This could be an additional reason why we were less successful in finding particular relationships between the research variables. This calls for developing context-specific research instruments geared to the Pakistan university context.
- This dissertation was mainly based on qualitative studies. This prevented the involvement of very large groups of respondents in parts of the research program. Mixed method studies, emphasizing quantitative studies to be able to involve large samples, offers stronger possibilities to present more far-stretching results.

- Since the same interview instrument was used throughout in the intervention study, this might have affected our results. Presenting a research instrument – even when following a strict protocol – might induce a learning effect about the impact of the variables being studied. Other instruments (e.g., observational) could help to triangulate the current findings with the in-depth interviews. But, this might also create difficulties; in the fifth study, we added a case study to check changes in levels of awareness. This additional instrument seemed insufficiently sensitive to map changes in the application level of TL behaviors.
- We did only study the impact of the intervention on the leaders involved in the intervention; because of the limited time and resources. But the impact of the program could additionally be explored by involving university staff and by adopting an organizational perspective. Martineau and Patterson (2010) suggest adopting - in the evaluation of leadership interventions - a focus on both the individual, the group/team, and the organization.
- Another limitation that influenced our results, is our particular focus on transformational leadership next to the focus on participative decision-making. At a theoretical level, both concepts are related and the interaction was clearly observed when discussing our findings. This also explains why we focused explicitly only on transformational leadership in the intervention study. Transformational leaders are expected to develop autonomy in their followers when making organizational decisions (Bass, 1985). In addition, our focus on transformational leadership can also be questioned. Especially in the context of developing countries, competing conceptions could be studied and compared.
- Our particular focus on transformational leadership can also be criticized. Though we argue that this type of leadership fits the Pakistan context because of the large pressure on academia to adopt innovations, new policies, and practices.

Context

We stressed, throughout this dissertation, that leadership development is crucial for developing countries. Although our leadership intervention could open new prospects for developing leadership in Pakistan higher education, some questions remain unanswered. First, leaders from different public and private universities were not interested to invest in leadership development. This was not different in public or private universities. This can partly

be explained by a limitation in the context. We observe how retired professors from public universities start holding leadership positions in private universities. With changing policies and innovative trends in higher education, these leaders might be less equipped with the adequate competencies to deal with this challenging context. These top leaders do as such not reflect role modeling as a critical feature of transformational leadership.

Next, although leaders gained new insights through the leadership development program, and how this affected their work in their faculties and departments, top leadership of the universities was never affected. The focus on this middle-management group of leaders – though critical – neglects the central driving force of top management leaders when it comes to push changes in leadership roles and positions and resulting changes in decision-making.

Future research should tackle this limitation. This could potentially be done with the help of the Higher Education Commission or the Higher Education Department at the provincial level. Negotiations with this policy channel might help involving top management in such programs. But, in addition, the nature of the development program will have to be adapted, building on a new needs analysis involving vice-chancellors and other top management actors.

A move towards a more comprehensive leadership development in Pakistan higher education

Considering the above discussion of the theoretical and conceptual base of this dissertation and considering our research results, we can also move beyond the current studies and move beyond the specific focus on the PhD related research questions. In doing this, we can discuss future directions for Pakistan higher education. Though, building on our research findings, we can claim that higher education Pakistan is not unlike HE in other countries as, there are particular challenges that require specific measures.

First, we observe how many initiatives are being taken to meet new challenges in higher education. These challenges are related to new systems of quality control, educational innovation, new research requirements, new hiring policies, new staff evaluation and promotion systems etc. The current reforms in Pakistan higher education do not originate from the local context. The new approaches, requirements for teachers' professional development, the tenure-track system, the new semester systems, the establishment of quality enhancement cells, etc., are derived from foreign examples and transferred to/transformed into the local context. This puts pressure on the top level of universities, but

also puts pressure on academic staff in general. Effective management requires effective leaders that can catch up with these new requirements and leaders that can “move” their staff to meet the new goals. But, the current situation shows how not all leaders seem ready to adopt expected roles and responsibilities. As exemplified earlier, in the interviews, some university leaders stressed “it is a foreign model and does not fit in our context.” Though a discussion about “goodness-of-fit” could be set up, this situation especially calls for leadership development. Since academics are the future leaders of the universities, there is a need to prepare these professors for leadership positions. Next to their intellectual roles in teaching and research, university leaders have to develop and polish their leadership skills.

This brings us to the position of leadership development in the broader setting of the academic organization. Leskiw and Singh (2007); McCauley (2008) DeRue and Myers (2014) emphasized that leadership development should be part of the organizational strategy. Moreover, the leadership development practices should be aligned with the vision, values, and goals of the organizational strategy and should consider the local planning processes. Next, sufficient amount of funds should be allocated for these programs at the national and at the university level. This leads to consultation processes between university management and national and provincial Higher Education Commission in Pakistan. Currently, there is a re-organization of these agencies and a rethinking of funding schemes. It is time policy and educational authorities also invest in this part of university development, next to investment in infrastructure, research programs and teaching capacity promotion.

But, the above also throws the ball in the camp of universities themselves. Western countries - thinking about developing leadership capacities – consider explicit investment in this activity (Joyce and O’Boyle, 2013). Also Gmelch (2013) stresses in his work how US universities and colleges invest in developing, next to top management, their deans and department chairs. In the UK, there is the Leadership Foundation. The same trends can be observed in Australia and Asian countries, even new supportive agencies were established that support the local universities (Malaysia (AKEPT); Australia (LH Martin Institute). The Leadership Foundation and (AKEPT) study the competencies and skills required of institutional leaders. In Australia, the Australian Learning and Teaching Council (ALTC) was established in 2005 to fund projects researching effective leadership in higher education by considering institutional and disciplinary leadership projects.

The Pakistan Higher Education Commission has already taken some measures to meet the above demands. For instance, in collaboration with the British Council, in the UK a development program was set up for university vice-chancellors: the International Strategic Partnerships in Research & Education (INSPIRE), this is a first stepping-stone. The aim of this program – started in 2010 – is to enhance internationalization of the institutions, leadership capacity building and to help building efficient and sustainable HE impact. Leadership capacity building is a clear component of this program. Though started in 2010, an impact on the concrete campuses of Pakistan universities is yet to become visible. Though limited, the initiative shows at least that national policy organizations accept and pursue leadership development as a priority goal.

But, a more drastic change in national, provincial and institutional policies is needed. A focus on vice-chancellors is “a drop in the water”. Multiple stakeholders should be considered in leadership development; starting with a strong emphasis on middle management, as exemplified in the current dissertation.

Leadership development requires specific actions. The question is how these actions can be incorporated into the organizational DNA of a university. Practices show first of all the leadership development is an individual responsibility. But in a “collegial” setting, this requires that academic institutions develop such a collegial environment. But, this remains critical and dependent on individual initiatives. We therefore push the idea of establishing leadership development centres. First, at the level of the Higher Education Commission Pakistan, such leadership development cell can prepare the road by carrying out needs analyses, developing blueprints for leadership development programs, developing or supporting the development of leadership development programs. In addition, this center or cell can promote leadership development in universities by – among others - programming motivational lectures for leaders, strategic training to handle financial issues, seminars for creating a shared/collegial culture in universities. To adopt this plan, the Higher Education Commission can build on the Pakistan Civil Services Academy.

The Civil Services Academy (CSA) in Lahore city is a premier training institution of Pakistan for pre-service training of Civil Servants recruited by Federal Public Service Commission. It is one of the constituent units of the National School of Public Policy. Both the CSA and NSPB could help establishing the center and help developing its strategic program.

Nevertheless, the Higher Education Commission, Pakistan and the newly established center/cell could benefit from the involvement from international agencies to develop its strategies and practices. The provision of such technical support and related consultation activities is an established practice in the HEC see, e.g., the British Council initiative (British Council UK, n.d.). These agencies can function as independent actors providing regular feedback and being involved in monitoring activities to make the cell/center initiatives more effective and efficient.

Implications

From the findings of this dissertation different implication can be derived. These implications are related to theory, policy, and practice.

Theoretical implications

- This dissertation was primarily guided by the concept of transformational leadership. Thus, the six key behaviors, suggested by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Bommer, (1996) are at the core of this dissertation. The amount of literature about these particular six behaviors is not abundant. As such, this dissertation helped shedding light on the actual nature of these behaviors and how these can be seen “in action.” This helps developing the related theoretical base and how it plays a role at a more operational level. Given the fact transformational leadership is a dominant theory in the education sector, developing the theory, also pushes related future research.
- Next, we designed and implemented a leadership development program for university leaders based on the conceptual base of transformational leadership. Six training sessions focused each on a particular transformational leadership behavior. This was done by designing a series of training formats, e.g., simulation, case studies, discussions and collaborative learning, etc. This again shows how the theoretical concept has a clear relationship with academic leadership capacities.
- Next, we developed a new self-efficacy scale for university teachers – reflecting the three key domains in the university, teaching, research, and administrative responsibilities. This scale is an operationalization of a theoretical construct and pushes as such future the theory-driven studies.

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- Empirical research is lacking about the nature of Pakistan higher education. The current dissertation introduced specific theories and conceptual frameworks and shows as such how these theories seem to fit a developing country context.

Implications for practice

- Often, authors observe a disconnection between theory and practice when it comes to leadership development (Avolio, Avey, & Quisenberry, 2010). Evidence-based leadership practices are rarely observed in the higher education context. With the current dissertation, this practice-related gap was tackled; though the startup of the project was challenging; due to initial reluctance being involved in this type of practices and related research program. The key value is the involvement of both public and private universities in our research. This is of importance for practices in both types of universities, since part of our research results point at critical differences, next to similarities in leadership approaches.
- Our leadership development intervention was based on individual and group activities, building on the idea that personal development should be set up in a collegial learning environment. This fosters discussion within and between faculties and departments and the exchange of approaches and solutions between colleagues. This is – at the same time – a foundation for a shared and collegial culture in the academic community.
- Systematic evaluation of leadership programs is challenging. Since higher education is not really ready for such initiatives, the current doctoral dissertation offers a starting base for supporting practices in other universities: a development model, good practices, evaluation instruments, etc. Other attempts to establish leadership development activities can benefit from the available materials and experiences.

Implications for policy makers

- The findings from two survey studies clearly call for leadership development in higher education. This can be considered a wake-up call for policy makers in the Pakistan Higher Education Commission at federal level, provincial level, and also for university vice-chancellors since this is a neglected area.
- Leadership development should be included in university level policy documents, and critical funding and resources should be allocated at this level to guarantee that leadership skills of academic leaders are being developed.

- Next to investing in top and middle-level leaders, universities can also invest in teachers to prepare them as future leaders. This can be turned into a policy in universities; whereas most universities set up research and teaching focused training, a new type of development opportunities could be offered in the Pakistan higher education setting: leadership development.

Final conclusion

The present dissertation aimed at mapping leadership and decision-making practices in Pakistan higher education from the leaders' and teachers' point of view. The results from the survey studies are helpful to give direction to develop leadership. Next, we focused on the immediate, short-term and long-term impact of a leadership intervention. Overall, the following conclusions can be drawn from our dissertation:

- The nature of leadership and decision-making in Pakistan universities is - to some extent - transformational and collaborative in nature. A few but remarkable differences were identified between public and private universities in view of adopting transformational leadership.
- Leaders' transformational leadership and participative decision-making style has an impact on teachers' job satisfaction, to some extent on intrinsic motivation both in public and private universities. As to self-efficacy of university teachers no link with transformational leadership and participative decision-making could be identified.
- As to leadership development in public universities, qualitative data analysis identified a significant increase in the awareness level of academic leaders about their leadership behaviors.
- A rather robust impact of the leadership intervention was identified when focusing on short-term and a long-term evaluation of the intervention.

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Summary

Summary

Institutions of higher learning play an imperative role in the economic development of a country. Worldwide, higher education is under pressure and faces a number of challenges related to access, funding, and governance (Bolden, Jones, Davis, & Gentle, 2015). The latter is fundamental to overcome all the challenges. Pakistan higher education is not unlike other developed and developing countries in view of these problems. This explains, why higher education underwent significant reforms during the last two decades in response to changes in governmental policies, growth in demand for higher educational quality, rapid economic developments, demands for increased access to higher education, internationalization, and globalization (Abbas, Yousafzai, & Khattak, 2015; Malik, 2014).

The recent evolution in Pakistan higher education has resulted in the establishment of new higher education institutes in both the public and the private sector (Midterm development framework, 2010). Though private universities are independent of governmental policies, they are also bound to follow the quality standards set by Higher Education Commission (HEC) in terms of teaching research, and administration. Private universities might also be partially funded by HEC in view of their research, faculty development programs, library, and infrastructure by fulfilling the specific terms and conditions. However, there are differences between public and private universities in terms of – among others – faculty hiring, student evaluation, and administration.

This expansion in public and private sector universities creates a challenging situation (Subhani, Akif, Osman, & Fouzia, 2012). Among others, authors highlight the resulting critical problems in the Pakistan higher education sector (Subhani, Akif, Osman, & Fouzia, 2012; Nadeem, Imran, Shah, & Sarwar, 2008; Haider, 2008):

- There are questions as to the benchmarking of tertiary education, considering internationally recognized standards (Nadeem, Imran, Shah, & Sarwar, 2008). To deal with such problems, a series of measures has been taken by the Higher Education Commission (HEC). But the problem persists because the standards have been adapted from developed countries; questioning the fit with the Pakistan context.
- The new context challenges the nature and quality of the academic staff. A program was launched to equip faculty with better qualification, introducing scholarship programs, and developing linkages with international universities. Also, a Tenure Track System was

introduced, with a strong emphasis on academic research (Haider, 2008). Despite these initiatives, there are a lot of loopholes and gaps in the implementation of these programs (Nawab & Bhatti, 2011; Sial, Jilani, Imran, & Zaheer, 2011).

- To develop the recognition and international ranking of universities, a lot of investment has been made to upgrade infrastructure and labs of the universities. But, when it comes to teaching and research related standards, the HEC puts forward rather soft criteria.
- Last but not the least, the higher education challenges require the engagement of key stakeholders. As such, leadership and decision-making processes are of utmost importance. Authors refer to inefficient governance, excessive powers in the hands of individual vice-chancellors and registrars, internal and external pressures, and this in a context of political and economic instability (Subhani et al., 2012).

Building on the above, we observe how Pakistan higher education is pushed by multiple factors. But, we focus in the present doctoral dissertation on the key factors leadership and decision-making. Especially in the context of changing society demands, changing quality criteria, changing academic standards, the role of academic leaders is imperative in steering the universities into the right direction. With the growing challenges and demands in higher education, universities start adopting collegial models. Recently, Bacon (2014) and also Taylor (2013) found in their study the time is ripe for a paradigm shift towards a more collegial approach appropriately updated to 21st century.

Moreover, Bolden et al. (2012) stress how the current situation repositions universities as a community of scholars, implementing a highly democratic and decentralized process of decision-making, representing leadership as a shared responsibility. This shift can be linked to the research findings of Ramsden (1998), Cowan and Heywood (2001), and more recently Jones (2013), who put forward that leadership should be shared and distributed rather than being based on a hierarchy. In this context of “change”, the literature emphasizes the notion of transformational leadership to be the most adequate model for understanding and developing general principles for leaders in the higher education sector (Bryman, 2007).

Transformational leadership is a multidimensional concept (Bass & Riggio, 2008; Burns, 1978). In the present doctoral dissertation, we focus on the following six behaviors of transformational leadership as presented by Podsakoff et al. (1990): articulating a vision,

providing an appropriate role model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high-performance expectations, providing individualized support, and intellectual stimulation.

Transformational leadership has been associated with a range of outcomes in leaders and in followers (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Eisenbeiss, Van Knippenberg, & Boerner, 2008). In the context of the present dissertation, we build on this list and center on related outcomes variables in university teachers that have been stressed in recent studies: self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction.

At the core of leadership, is sound decision-making (Nadeem et al., 2008). Leaders need to make decisions to implement policies. Thus, universities need to develop a strategic context for leadership and decision-making in these times of rapid change (Subhani et al., 2012).

A variety of decision models and theories is available. They also have evolved over time (Scott & Bruce, 1995). Classical theorists relied heavily on hierarchy one-way command structure, and top-down decision-making (Fayol, 1996; Taylor, 1996; Weber, 1968). In later years, in response to the changing and complex needs of contemporary society, collaboration for achieving organizational goals was getting valued (Friend & Cook, 1996). This explains the shift towards participative decision-making (Vroom & Jago, 1990).

Participative decision-making (PDM) is the extent to which leaders allow or encourage followers to participate in organizational decision-making (Probst, 2005). Academic settings are well-known for including staff in decision-making processes (Sukirno & Siengthai, 2011). Academic leaders often deploy strategies to involve their employees via committees, a senate and task forces (DeNardis, 2001). Participative decision-making influences leaders and followers in a number of ways. A significant body of PDM related research is available documenting empirical studies about its outcomes (Scott-Ladd, Travaglione, & Marshall, 2006). The outcome variables discussed in connection to transformational leadership, resurface in the context of participative decision-making: self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation.

Above, we gave a brief summary of research context and conceptual framework of the dissertation that has been extensively explained in the first six chapters of this dissertation. In the next paragraphs we further discuss the research objectives of the doctoral dissertation and how the research studies are linked to the research objectives.

Research objectives

Research objective 1: To determine the nature of leadership and decision-making in Pakistan public and private universities by adopting transformational leadership (TL) and participative decision-making (PDM) and to determine the extent to which public and private universities are different in adopting TL and PDM.

Research objective 2: To investigate the relationship between transformational leadership – participative decision-making and teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction in Pakistan public and private universities.

Research objective 3: To study the impact of a leadership intervention - based on transformational leadership - on leaders in Pakistan public universities.

Overview of the chapters presented in this dissertation

Chapter 2: Leadership and decision-making practices in public versus private universities

This first study aims at investigating the leadership and decision-making practices and how leaders in Pakistan public and private universities are different in their adoption of transformational leadership and participative decision-making. A semi-structured interview – focusing on transformational leadership and participative decision-making - was set up involving 46 deans and heads of different faculties and departments from two public and two private universities. Significant differences were observed between public and private universities in view of their leadership and decision-making practices. As to the transformational leadership, we find differences in all six TL behaviors but the following three behaviors seem crucial in both public and private universities: (1) articulating a vision, (2) fostering the acceptance of group goals, and (3) high-performance expectations. As to participative decision-making, deans and heads seem to adopt a basic shared approach. However, participative decision-making approach remains limited in both sector universities and remains limited to specific decision topics. Overall, our results identified that the leadership and decision-making practices in Pakistan universities are transformational and participative in nature.

Chapter 3: Transformational leadership and participative decision-making and its outcomes

This study examines how transformational leadership and participative- decision-making are related to self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation in 218 faculty members from

four public and private universities. Since the data in this study are nested (teachers in departments, faculties, and universities), various data analysis techniques were adopted to cater for the particular nature of the data. Multi-level modeling seemed inadequate. But path analysis and multiple regression techniques helped analyzing the data in view of finding answers to the research questions. The results show how transformational leadership and participative decision-making are significantly related to job satisfaction in both public and private universities. The relationship with intrinsic motivation is weak, and no significant link with self-efficacy could be identified. These critical results are not in line with available research in the literature, and question established assumptions about leadership and decision-making practices in this Pakistan academic context. In the discussion, we focus on explanations that mainly build on the particular current status of Pakistan higher education.

Chapter 4: Leadership development in higher education

In the literature, there is a gap between the number of studies about the nature of leadership practices and studies reporting about the impact of leadership development programs in academic contexts. The aim of this empirical study was to study the impact of a leadership intervention. The intervention aimed at raising academic leaders' awareness of transformational leadership behaviors. Leaders from a public university were involved in a six-week training program. Content analysis of interviews data, collected before and after the intervention, helped checking the related impact. Compared to the "before" intervention situation, we identified clear differences and higher awareness level of leaders, reflecting a positive impact of the intervention related to all transformational leadership behaviors. Next to limitations of the study, the article focuses on the design of a future large-scale intervention study.

Chapter 5: Evaluation of a leadership development intervention

Higher education is becoming crucial due to the rapid changes in society and policy demands. This introduces complex problems and requires skilled leaders to tackle a growing number of higher education challenges. The literature is scarce when it comes to evidence-based leadership development interventions, especially in an academic and in a developing country context. This invoked the call for a leadership development intervention involving academic leaders from Pakistan public universities. The study aimed at raising awareness in university leaders about transformational leadership behaviors in their academic practices. An

experimental research design was adopted to explore the impact of a six-week leadership development program. Academic leaders from two public universities were involved in the intervention. Content analysis of interview data collected before and after the intervention helped answering the research questions. Bloom's taxonomy was adopted as a framework for the content analysis of interviews. A significant increase in leadership awareness in view of all six behaviors of transformational leadership was observed in both conditions, but to a far larger extent in the experimental setting. Next to a discussion of limitations, implications and directions for future research are presented.

Chapter 6: Sustainable leadership development in higher education

Systematic evaluations of leadership development programs are crucial in higher education. Considering the need for systematic evaluation of such programs with a focus on a long-term impact of such interventions, a follow-up study was set up to evaluate the short and long-term impact of the leadership development intervention discussed in chapter 5. To investigate the short-term impact of the intervention, interview data collected three months after the intervention were analyzed. The long-term impact was determined by collecting data from another group one year after the intervention. The data from the semi-structured interviews and data, resulting from a case study, were analyzed on the base of a content analysis to determine changes in awareness levels as to TL behaviors. Compared to the significant short-term changes in awareness for all TL behaviors in the experimental group, the long-term impact showed a decrease in awareness levels. Nevertheless, these changes were still robust as compared to the awareness levels identified in the control group participants. Implications and recommendations for future research are being discussed.

General discussion and conclusion

In this section, the main findings from the different studies are framed by developing four main themes and the findings are considered from the perspective of a broader framework. The themes specifically focus on the (a) nature of transformational leadership and participative decision-making, (b) transformational leadership – participative decision-making and teachers' related outcomes, (c) leadership development, and (d) the sustainability of leadership development programs.

Transformational leadership in higher education

The initial studies about transformational leadership in higher education has already point out that the nature of leadership in Pakistan universities is largely transformational. Some differences were observed between public and private universities (Zulfqar, Valcke, Devos, Tuytens, & Shahzad, 2016). This was discussed in Chapter 2.

In the next paragraphs we develop the nature of the relationship between leadership models and practices in academic context.

Literature on academic leadership is dominated by shared, collaborative, distributed, instructional, transactional and transformational leadership theories (Bolden et al., 2015; Jones, Lefoe, Harvey, & Ryland, 2012). But, setting up a collegial culture in developing countries is challenging and often faces “power and politics” issues. Thus, the practice of shared/collegial culture and to bring everyone on the same page is not always easy to attain. Particularly in Pakistan, we observe next to internal pressures in higher education, also a variety of external pressures (Subhani, Akif, Osman, & Fouzia, 2012). This questions the extent to which leaders can create a collaborative culture. In the Pakistan cultural context higher education experiences a lot of internal and external pressures. Therefore, leaders face difficulties to create a shared and collaborative culture (Nadeem, Imran, Shah, & Sarwar, 2008).

Decision-making in higher education

Our research findings showed leaders in Pakistan public and private universities adopt collaborative approaches when it comes to decision-making. But critical is the fact that this collaboration remains limited to certain topics and contexts; e.g., administrative tasks and students related issues. As stated earlier, the ambiguous decision-making culture turns attention to top leadership in Pakistan universities. Though the academic structure seems "horizontal" in nature, in reality, the shared power and decision culture is not yet a characteristic of Pakistan universities. This is in line according to the available literature in view of adopting this approach, e.g., many institutions adopt a “structure” which looks collegial/collaborative in theory (syndicate, senate, boards, and committees) but in practice does not function in a collegial way (Bacon, 2014). Research confirms the former is a common phenomenon for developing countries. Leaders often are less willing to share power (Mintzberg, 2010; UNESCO, 2000).

The impact of leadership and decision-making on university staff

One of the objectives of this dissertation was to investigate the impact of leadership and decision-making on university teacher variables. We found somewhat different results when comparing our findings with available research. In general, our findings showed that leaders' transformational and participative decision-making behavior positively influence teachers' job satisfaction. But, only a weak link was identified with intrinsic motivation (only in public universities) and no link was found with self-efficacy.

In this section we take steps back to check the nature of this relationship in the particular context. In this context, Aktas, Gelfand, and Hanges (2015) analyzed the extent to which cultural tightness-looseness affects the level of collectivism and power distance. Building on these concepts, we can state Pakistan universities still reflect tight cultural conceptions that go together with stronger collectivism and stronger power distances. Leaders – both in public and private universities – therefore adopt “limited” or “so-called” participative decision-making (Bacon, 2014).

It remains surprising that leadership affects teachers' jobs satisfaction, but has seemingly no relationship with teacher self-efficacy and hardly a relationship with teacher motivation. It raises questions about a potential large teacher pressure because of leadership and decision-making practices in universities.

Leadership development in higher education

Leadership development is the crux of this dissertation. Moreover, the findings of our leadership development intervention clearly show the potential impact on leaders. Clear positive changes in view of awareness levels were observed before and after the intervention. As discussed elsewhere, our findings in view of leadership development are in line what Bolden et al. (2015); Bryman (2007), Gmelch (2013), and many other authors in the literature.

As explained earlier, the leadership development is crucial in higher education within developing countries (Aycan, 2002). Research reflects many concerns about leadership development programs. Especially when planning leadership development, a range of related questions can be put forward:

- Why leadership development?

There is considerable debate in the literature about preparing academic leaders (Gmelch, 2013). Often academics think they do not need training in view of leadership roles. Leadership development is not a priority in academia; leaders are passionate for the position, but they are never readied for these positions (Dopson et al., 2016). In this context, McCauley (2008) shows in top organizations, leadership development is closely tied to the vision, values, and goals of the organizations, and is, therefore, a core part of the organizational strategic planning processes. Research suggests that private universities are more clear and concerned about their vision, but nevertheless little attention is being paid to investments in leadership development.

- Methodology of the leadership development program?

Leadership development programs are expected to go beyond the constraints of conventional training programs (Leskiw & Singh, 2007). Taking into account the available literature, next to the lectures, the leadership development program in this dissertation did build on case studies, simulations, collaborative learning, and contextualized problems. This methodology is in accordance with recommendations from the literature (DeRue and Myers, 2014).

- Duration of the leadership training program?

As to the duration of the intervention, university leaders pose particular problems to fit a training program in their agendas. This shows again how leadership development initiatives are often not a priority in higher education. Also, other authors observed this difficulty (Conger, 1993; Evans et al., 2013).

- Expected outcomes of a leadership development program?

Pakistan university leaders – in preliminary discussions – clearly raised questions about what they would get out of the training. This clearly stresses how expected outcomes have to be related to participants' needs. A large amount of literature is available about needs analysis and the effectiveness of leadership development programs. But authors continue questioning the nature of the available evaluation studies. Sustaining long-lasting program is a challenge, especially considering the fact not all academics successfully make a transition to successful leadership (Gmelch, 2013). As stressed earlier, we focused on the immediate impact of the intervention, next to a focus on a short-term and long-term impact. This is crucial in view of

determining the sustainability of the intervention and the related return-on-investment. As explained earlier, we found robust changes in leaders' level of awareness that are comparable with findings in available research (Abrell, Rowold, Weibler, & Moenninghoff, 2011; Harris & Leberman, 2010). Next, a focus on the impact of intervention also reflects an "actor" perspective.

In discussing the above themes, we touched on strengths of our studies, but also introduced critical comments. These are discussed within a broader framework in view of offering perspectives for future research and development. The limitations are clustered following issues related to (1) the sample, (2) the research design, and (3) the nature of the research context.

In view of directions for future research, we move beyond the current studies and beyond the specific focus on the PhD related research questions. We discuss initiatives being taken in Western countries in view of developing leadership capacities in universities. But, we especially push the idea of establishing leadership development centers. First, at the level of the Higher Education Commission Pakistan, a leadership development center can prepare the road by carrying out needs analyses, developing blueprints for leadership development programs, developing or supporting the development of leadership development programs. In addition, this center or cell can promote leadership development in universities by – among others - programming motivational lectures for leaders, strategic training to handle financial issues, seminars for creating a shared/collegial culture in universities. To adopt this plan, the Higher Education Commission can also build on the Pakistan Civil Services Academy.

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Nederlandstalige Samenvatting

(Summary in Dutch)

Nederlandstalige Samenvatting

Instellingen voor hoger onderwijs spelen een belangrijke rol in de economische ontwikkeling van een land. Wereldwijd, staat het hoger onderwijs onder druk en wordt het geconfronteerd met uitdagingen rond toegang tot het hoger onderwijs, de financiering en het management (Bolden, Jones, Davis, & Zacht, 2015). Dit laatste is essentieel om de uitdagingen doelgericht aan te pakken. Het hoger onderwijs in Pakistan verschilt hierin niet van andere ontwikkelde landen en ontwikkelingslanden wanneer we kijken naar deze problemen. Dit verklaart waarom het Pakistaanse hoger onderwijs voor de uitdagingen staat om heel wat belangrijke hervormingen te implementeren als reactie op veranderingen in het overheidsbeleid; zie bv. de vraag naar een hogere kwaliteit van het onderwijs, het kunnen opvolgen van de snelle economische ontwikkeling, de vraag naar een betere toegang tot het hoger onderwijs, internationalisering en globalisering (Abbas, Yousafzai, & Khattak, 2015; Malik, 2014). In het Pakistaanse hoger onderwijs heeft het vorige geleid tot de oprichting van heel wat nieuwe instellingen voor hoger onderwijs en dit zowel in de publieke als de private sector (Midterm Development Framework, 2010). Private universiteiten staan relatief onafhankelijk tegenover de overheid. Maar toch zijn ze ook gebonden aan de kwaliteitsnormen van de Higher Education Commission (HEC). Private universiteiten worden overigens ook gedeeltelijk gefinancierd door de HEC voor hun onderzoek, professional development, bibliotheek, en infrastructuur. Deze ondersteuning is afhankelijk van specifieke voorwaarden. Er zijn echter verschillen tussen de publieke en private universiteiten in termen van - onder andere - aanstellen/ontslaan personeel, studentenevaluatie en centrale administratie. De felle uitbreiding van het universiteitslandschap via zowel de publieke als de private sector zorgt voor uitdagingen (Subhani, Akif, Osman, & Fouzia, 2012). Auteurs benadrukken o.a. de volgend kritische problemen in het Pakistaanse hoger onderwijs (Subhani, Akif, Osman, & Fouzia, 2012; Nadeem, Imran, Shah, & Sarwar, 2008; Haider, 2008):

- Er zijn vragen over de benchmarking van het tertiair onderwijs, rekening houdend met internationaal erkende normen (Nadeem, Imran, Shah, & Sarwar, 2008). In functie hiervan heeft de Higher Education Commission (HEC) recent maatregelen genomen. Maar het probleem blijft bestaan, omdat de normen zijn overgenomen uit ontwikkelde landen; dit roept vraagtekens op wat betreft de fit met de Pakistaanse context.

- De nieuwe context stelt ook vragen naar de aard en de kwaliteit van de wetenschappelijke onderwijs- en onderzoeksstaf. Een programma werd gelanceerd voor de professionele ontwikkeling van personeel, de invoering van beurzenprogramma's, het versterken van de directe samenwerking met internationale universiteiten. Ook werd een Tenure Track systeem geïntroduceerd, met een sterke nadruk op wetenschappelijk onderzoek (Haider, 2008). Ondanks deze initiatieven, blijven er heel wat lacunes en hiaten bestaan in de uitvoering van deze programma's en de er uit voortvloeiende resultaten (Nawab & Bhatti, 2011; Sial, Jilani, Imran, en Zaheer, 2011).
- Om de internationale ranking van Pakistaanse universiteiten te versterken, werden heel wat investeringen uitgevoerd aan de infrastructuur en de laboratoria van universiteiten. Maar, wanneer we kijken naar de eisen m.b.t. het feitelijke onderwijs en onderzoek en de benchmarks die naar voren worden geschoven, dan voert de HEC blijkbaar een zacht beleid.
- Last but not least, vragen de uitdagingen in het Pakistaanse hoger onderwijs een grotere betrokkenheid van de stakeholders. Vooral academisch leiderschap en besluitvorming zijn daarbij van belang. Auteurs verwijzen overigens – in de huidige situatie - naar inefficiënt bestuur, buitensporige bevoegdheden van individuele vice-rectoren en registrars, een impliciete/expliciete interne en externe druk op het beleid, en dit in een context van politieke en economische instabiliteit (Subhani et al., 2012).

Voortbouwend op het bovenstaande, zien we hoe het Pakistaanse hoger onderwijs in heel wat opzichten onder druk staat en dat veel factoren aan de orde zijn. In het voorliggende proefschrift wordt vooral gekeken naar twee centrale factoren: academisch leiderschap en besluitvorming. Door de veranderende samenleving, andere kwaliteitscriteria, en de verschuivingen in academische standaarden, wordt de rol van de academische leiders heel belangrijk opdat universiteiten in de juiste richting evolueren. In deze context lezen we in de literatuur een beweging naar het oppikken van collegiale modellen. Bacon (2014) en Taylor (2013) vinden de tijd rijp voor een paradigma-verschuiving naar een dergelijke collegiale aanpak zodat men de uitdagingen van de 21^{ste} eeuw kan aanpakken. Bovendien benadrukken Bolden et al. (2012) hoe de huidige situatie universiteiten herpositioneert als een gemeenschap van wetenschappers, waarin de implementatie van een democratisch en gedecentraliseerde proces van besluitvorming aan de orde is en leiderschap

een gedeelde verantwoordelijkheid wordt. Deze verschuiving kan ook worden gekoppeld aan de onderzoeksresultaten van Ramsden (1998), Cowan en Heywood (2001), en meer recent Jones (2013), die benadrukken dat leiderschap een gedeelde verantwoordelijkheid wordt in plaats van gebaseerd op een hiërarchie. In deze context van "change", benadrukken heel wat auteurs transformationeel leiderschap. Dit zou het meest geschikte model zijn voor de sector van het hoger onderwijs (Bryman, 2007).

Transformationeel leiderschap is een multidimensionaal concept (Bass & Riggio, 2008; Burns, 1978). In het huidige proefschrift, bouwen we verder op de volgende zes dimensies van transformationeel leiderschap (Podsakoff et al., 1990): articuleren van een visie, het functioneren als een geschikt rolmodel, groepen helpen om groepsdoelen te aanvaarden, hoge performance verwachtingen instellen, individuele ondersteuning geven, en intellectuele stimulansen geven. Transformationeel leiderschap zou effecten hebben op zowel de leiders als de medewerkers (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Eisenbeiss, Van Knippenberg, en Boerner, 2008). In het kader van dit proefschrift, kijken we daarbij vooral naar de invloed van TL op: self-efficacy, intrinsieke motivatie en job satisfaction. Deze drie variabelen worden benadrukt in de meest recente literatuur. De kern van goed leiderschap heeft te maken met een goede besluitvorming (Nadeem et al., 2008). Leiders leggen best hun beleid voort aan hun medewerkers in functie van besluitvorming. Universiteiten zijn op die manier een context waarin leiderschap en besluitvorming een strategische rol spelen (Subhani et al., 2012) te ontwikkelen. Er bestaan heel wat leiderschapsmodellen in de literatuur. Deze modellen zijn ook duidelijk geëvolueerd doorheen de tijd (Scott & Bruce, 1995).

In de meer klassieke literatuur ligt de nadruk op hiërarchie, een one-way commandostructuur, en een top-down besluitvorming (Fayol, 1996; Taylor, 1996; Weber, 1968). In latere jaren – als reactie op de veranderende en complexe behoeften van de hedendaagse samenleving – staat eerder samenwerking bij het bereiken van organisatiedoelen voorop (Friend & Cook, 1996). Dit verklaart de verschuiving naar meer participatieve vormen van besluitvorming (Vroom & Jago, 1990). Participatieve besluitvorming is de mate waarin de leiders medewerkers aanmoedigen om deel te nemen aan organisatorische besluitvorming (Probst, 2005). Universiteiten blijken hun personeel sterk te betrekken in besluitvormingsprocessen (Sukirno & Siengthai, 2011). Academische leiders zullen daarom vaak strategieën kiezen om medewerkers te laten deelnemen aan commissies,

een senaat en werkgroepen (DeNardis, 2001). Participatieve besluitvorming heeft een effect op leiders en medewerkers. Heel wat PDM-onderzoek gaat overigens in op de effecten van participatieve besluitvorming (Scott-Ladd, Travaglione, & Marshall, 2006). Vergelijkbaar met transformationeel leiderschap, blijken dezelfde variabelen te worden benadrukt: self-efficacy, jobtevredenheid en intrinsieke motivatie.

In het voorgaande werd beknopt de context en het conceptuele kader van het proefschrift, geschetst dat verder uitvoerig is beschreven in de eerste zes hoofdstukken. In de volgende paragrafen bespreken we de onderzoeksdoelstellingen van het proefschrift en schetsen we de afzonderlijke studies gekoppeld zijn aan deze onderzoeksdoelstellingen.

Onderzoeksdoelstellingen

Onderzoeksdoel 1: Het bepalen van de mate van adoptie van Transformationeel Leiderschap (TL) en Participatieve Besluitvorming (PDM) in Pakistaanse publieke en private universiteiten en de mate waarin publieke en private universiteiten hierin verschillen.

Onderzoeksdoel 2: Onderzoek van het verband tussen participatieve besluitvorming en transformationeel leiderschap bij de leiders enerzijds en de self-efficacy, intrinsieke motivatie en job tevredenheid van medewerkers in Pakistaanse publieke en private universiteiten.

Onderzoeksdoel 3: Onderzoek naar de impact van een interventiestudie gericht op het ontwikkelen van transformationeel leiderschap bij leiders van Pakistaanse publieke universiteiten.

Overzicht van de hoofdstukken in het proefschrift

Hoofdstuk 2: Leiderschap en besluitvorming publieke versus private universiteiten

Deze eerste studie helpt een state-of-the-art te schetsen van de aard van leiderschap en de besluitvormingspraktijken bij decanen en vakgroepvoorzitters in Pakistan publieke en private universiteiten. Daarbij wordt gekeken naar de mate waarin deze kenmerken reflecteren van transformationeel leiderschap en een participatieve besluitvorming. Een semi-gestructureerde interview - gericht op transformationeel leiderschap en participatieve besluitvorming – werd opgezet bij 46 hoofden van verschillende faculteiten en departementen in twee publieke en twee private universiteiten. Significante verschillen worden vastgesteld tussen de publieke en private universiteiten. Wat betreft transformationeel leiderschap, zijn verschillen terug te vinden in alle zes de TL

gedragsdimensies, maar de volgende drie dimensies lijken cruciaal in zowel publieke als private universiteiten: (1) het articuleren van een visie, (2) het bevorderen van de acceptatie van groepsdoelen, en (3) de hoge prestatieverwachtingen. Wat betreft de participatieve besluitvorming, blijkt over het algemeen een basale participatieve aanpak gevolgd te worden. Maar, de participatieve aanpak blijft beperkt - in beide sectoren - tot een beperkt aantal beslissingsdomeinen. Over het algemeen duiden de resultaten er op dat in de bestudeerde Pakistaanse universiteiten een transformationeel leiderschap wordt gevolgd en de besluitvorming participatief is.

Hoofdstuk 3: Transformationeel leiderschap en participatieve besluitvorming in Pakistaanse universiteiten en het efficacy op self-efficacy, jobtevredenheid en intrinsieke motivatie van medewerkers

Deze studie onderzoekt hoe transformationeel leiderschap en participatieve besluitvorming gerelateerd zijn aan self-efficacy, jobtevredenheid en intrinsieke motivatie bij 218 docenten van vier publieke en private universiteiten. De onderzoeksdata genest (docenten in departementen, in faculteiten en in universiteiten), en daarom werd aanvankelijk een multi-niveau aanpak gevolgd. Maar door beperkingen in het sample, werden een pad-analyse en multiple-regressie technieken toegepast. De resultaten tonen hoe transformationeel leiderschap en participatieve besluitvorming significant gerelateerd zijn aan jobtevredenheid, in zowel de publieke als de private universiteiten. Maar, de relatie met intrinsieke motivatie is zwak, en er wordt geen significant verband met self-efficacy vastgesteld. Deze kritische resultaten zijn niet in overeenstemming met beschikbaar onderzoek in de literatuur, en stelt vragen naar de gevestigde aannames over leiderschap en besluitvorming zoals die in de Pakistaanse academische context naar voren komen. In de discussie worden hiervoor verklaringen gezocht die vooral kijken naar specifieke kenmerken van het Pakistaanse hoger onderwijs.

Hoofdstuk 4: Het ontwikkelen van transformationeel leiderschap in het hoger onderwijs

In de literatuur is er een kloof tussen het aantal studies over de aard van leiderschap versus onderzoek dat rapporteert over de impact van interventies om leiderschap te ontwikkelen; zeker wanneer we kijken naar academische contexten. Deze empirische studie onderzoekt de impact van een pilot-versie van een interventiestudie. Doel van de interventie was het verhogen van de awareness" in leiders wat betreft hun transformationele

leiderschapsaanpakken. Leaders van één publieke universiteit namen deel aan een zes weken durende trainingsprogramma. Op basis van een inhoudsanalyse van interviews - verzameld voor en na de interventie – werd onderzocht of er een evolutie kon worden vastgesteld. Vergeleken met initiële situatie voor de interventie situatie, worden enerzijds méér, maar anderzijds ook in een groter aantal van de zes TL gedragingen indicatoren terug gevonden die wijzen op een sterker bewustwording van de leiders over de aard van hun transformationeel leiderschap. Naast beperkingen van het onderzoek, worden ook ideeën naar voren geschoven voor een meer grootschalige interventiestudie.

Hoofdstuk 5: Evaluatie van een interventie voor het ontwikkelen van transformationeel leiderschap

Hoger onderwijs staat onder druk om de snelle maatschappelijke veranderingen te kunnen volgen. Ook het onderwijsbeleid stelt steeds grotere eisen aan het hoger onderwijs. Dit stelt vragen naar de kwaliteit van de leiders in het hoger onderwijs. Het roept ook de vraag op naar het ontwikkelen van leiders die deze nieuwe uitdagingen aankunnen. In de literatuur zijn weinig evidence-based aanpakken terug te vinden voor het ontwikkelen van leiderschap, in het bijzonder in een academische context of de setting van een ontwikkelingsland.

Studie in dit hoofdstuk evalueert de impact van een interventie gericht op het ontwikkelen van transformationeel leiderschap in academische leiders van twee Pakistaanse publieke universiteiten. De interventie mikt op het verhogen van het bewustzijn van de leiders over transformationeel leiderschap en gerelateerd gedrag in hun academische context. Een quasi-experimenteel onderzoeksdesign werd gevolgd met een controle- en een experimentele groep. De interventie duurde zes weken. Voor en na de interventie werden interviews – gefocust op de zes gedragsdimensies van transformationeel leiderschap, op gezet. De inhoudsanalyse van de interviewdata werd gebaseerd op indicatoren die werden afgeleid van Bloom's taxonomie. Er wordt een significante toename vastgesteld in het aantal en de breedte van de indicatoren voor elke gedragsdimensie in TL. Dit wordt bovendien in veel sterkere mate vastgesteld bij leiders in de interventiesetting. Naast een bespreking van beperkingen, en mogelijke implicaties, sluit het artikel af met mogelijke richtingen voor vervolgonderzoek.

Hoofdstuk 6: Hoe duurzaam is de ontwikkeling van transformationeel leiderschap in Pakistaanse universiteiten na een interventie?

Een systematische evaluatie van leiderschap-ontwikkelprogramma's is cruciaal in het hoger onderwijs. Maar veel onderzoek richt zich enkel op directe effecten van een interventie. Daarom wordt in dit artikel een onderzoek besproken waarbij ook een evaluatie op korte en lange termijn effecten van een leiderschapsinterventie is opgezet. Om de korte termijn effecten vast te stellen werd een interview afgenomen bij een eerste groep leiders, drie maanden na de interventie. De gevolgen op lange termijn werden bepaald door het opzetten van interviews bij een tweede groep leiders, één jaar na de interventie. De gegevens van de semi-gestructureerde interviews werden opnieuw geanalyseerd op basis van een inhoudelijke analyse om te zoeken naar evoluties in het bewustzijn van de leiders m.b.t. de zes verschillende gedragsdimensies in transformationeel leiderschap.

Er werden op korte termijn nog steeds een groot verschil in indicatoren m.b.t. TL bewustzijn vastgesteld bij de leiders die de interventie volgden, vergeleken met een baseline bij leiders in een controlegroep. Maar ook, op lange termijn – één jaar na de interventie – blijken leiders in een experimentele conditie nog steeds in sterkere mate in staat te zijn indicatoren voor TI naar voren te schuiven voor de zes kritische gedragingen. Het artikel eindigt met een bespreking van de onderzoeksimplicaties en aanbevelingen voor vervolgonderzoek.

Algemene discussie en conclusies

In de volgende paragrafen worden de belangrijkste bevindingen uit de verschillende studies samengebracht rond vier hoofdthema's. Deze vier thema's belichten de (a) de aard van transformationeel leiderschap en participatieve besluitvorming, (b) de effecten van transformationeel leiderschap en participatieve besluitvorming, (c) de ontwikkeling van leiderschap, en (d) de duurzaamheid van de ontwikkeling in leiderschap.

De aard van transformationeel leiderschap in het hoger onderwijs

De studies over transformationeel leiderschap in het Pakistaanse hoger onderwijs tonen aan dat het leiderschap in Pakistaanse universiteiten grotendeels transformationeel van aard is. Er worden verschillen waargenomen tussen publieke en private universiteiten (Zulfqar, Valcke, Devos, Tuytens & Shahzad, 2016).

De literatuur over academisch leiderschap wordt gedomineerd door visies gericht op een gedeeld, collaboratief, gedistribueerd, transactioneel en transformationeel leiderschap

(Bolden et al, 2015; Jones, Lefoe, Harvey, & Ryland, 2012). Maar, het opzetten van een dergelijke collegiale cultuur is uitdagend. In ontwikkelingscontexten is er vaak een confrontatie factoren rond "macht en politiek". Daarom is – in de praktijk – een collegiale cultuur niet altijd gemakkelijk te bereiken. Met name in Pakistan, zien we naast de interne druk in het hoger onderwijs, ook de invloed van een externe druk door politici (Subhani, Akif, Osman, & Fouzia, 2012). Dit beïnvloedt de mate waarin de leiders een samenwerkingscultuur kunnen realiseren. In de Pakistaanse culturele context ervaren universitaire leiders namelijk veel dergelijke interne en externe druk. Het ligt dan ook voor de hand dat deze leiders geconfronteerd met moeilijkheden om een gedeelde en participatieve cultuur te realiseren (Nadeem, Imran, Shah, & Sarwar, 2008).

De aard van besluitvorming in het hoger onderwijs

De onderzoeksresultaten illustreren ook hoe leiders in Pakistaanse publieke en private universiteiten – basaal - een participatieve besluitvorming volgen. Maar belangrijker is de vaststelling dat deze besluitvorming zich beperkt tot bepaalde domeinen; bijvoorbeeld administratieve taken en student-gerelateerde onderwerpen. Dit suggereert ambiguïteit in de besluitvormingscultuur van Pakistaanse universiteiten. Hoewel de academische beslissingsstructuur 'horizontaal' lijkt, is ze in werkelijkheid "verticaal". Dit ligt in lijn met de visie in de literatuur. Veel hoger onderwijsinstellingen schuiven een "structuur" naar voren die collegiaal / collaboratief is in theorie (commissies, senaat, boards), maar in de praktijk is de besluitvorming alles behalve collegiaal (Bacon, 2014). Onderzoek bevestigt dat dit dikwijls het geval is in veel ontwikkelingslanden. Leiders zijn vaak minder bereid om te delen dan gesuggereerd (Mintzberg, 2010; UNESCO, 2000).

De impact van transformationeel leiderschap en participatieve besluitvorming op docenten

Een van de doelstellingen van dit proefschrift was om de impact van leiderschap en besluitvorming op kritische variabelen in docenten te onderzoeken: self-efficacy, job tevredenheid en intrinsieke motivatie. Onze resultaten blijken te verschillen van bevindingen in beschikbaar onderzoek. Wel stellen we vast dat transformationeel leiderschap en participatieve besluitvorming significant en positief samenhangen met de jobtevredenheid van docenten. Maar, er werd slechts een zwakke samenhang vastgesteld met intrinsieke motivatie (bv; enkel bij docenten in publieke universiteiten) en helemaal geen verband met self-efficacy.

In de discussie wordt vooral gekeken naar mogelijke verklaringen die liggen in de bijzondere context van het Pakistaanse hoger onderwijs en de culturele context. In dit verband hebben Aktas, Gelfand en Hanges (2015) onderzocht in hoeverre culturele dichtheid-losheid een invloed heeft op collectivisme en machtsafstand. Voortbouwend op deze concepten, kunnen we stellen dat Pakistaanse universiteiten nog steeds culturele opvattingen weerspiegelen die een sterker collectivisme en een sterke machtsafstand benadrukken. Leiders - zowel in de publieke en private universiteiten - adopteren daarom maar "beperkte" of "zogenaamde" participatieve besluitvorming (Bacon, 2014). Maar toch blijft het moeilijk om het ontbreken van een samenhang met self-efficacy te verklaren. Dit roept vragen op over een mogelijke grote druk op docenten door de leiders en bij de besluitvorming in universiteiten.

Leiderschapsontwikkeling in het hoger onderwijs

Leiderschapsontwikkeling is de kern van de laatste drie hoofdstukken in het proefschrift. De onderzoeksresultaten tonen een positieve impact van een experimentele interventie op de leiderschapsontwikkeling in de richting van transformatieel leiderschap. Duidelijke positieve veranderingen konden worden vastgesteld in indicatoren die wijzen op een verhoging van bewustzijn wanneer we de situatie voor en na de interventie vergelijken. Deze resultaten liggen in met eerder onderzoek van e.o. Bolden et al. (2015); Bryman (2007), Gmelch (2013), en vele andere auteurs in de literatuur. Zoals reeds benadrukt, is de ontwikkeling van leiderschap cruciaal in het hoger onderwijs in ontwikkelingslanden (Aycan, 2002). Er is in deze contexten veel bezorgdheid over de aard van het leiderschap. Bij de onderzoeksresultaten kunnen wel een aantal vragen gesteld worden: *- Is de ontwikkeling van transformatieel leiderschap wel nodig?*

Er is veel discussie in de literatuur over het ontwikkelen van leiderschap in academische leiders (Gmelch, 2013). Vaak twijfelen betrokken leiders aan het nut van een training met het oog op leidinggevende functies. Ontwikkeling van leiderschap blijkt geen prioriteit te zijn in de academische wereld. Academische leiders nemen deze functies op zich, zonder garanties dat ze klaar zijn voor deze posities (Dopson et al., 2016). McCauley (2008) benadrukt dat – aan de top van organisaties - ontwikkeling van leiderschap zeer expliciet aan bod zou moeten komen en onderdeel zou moeten zijn van de visie, waarden en doelstellingen van de organisatie. Het zou een belangrijk onderdeel moeten zijn van de strategische planning in een organisatie. Uit

onderzoek blijkt dat private universiteiten meer aandacht besteden aan een visie in dit verband, maar dat toch weinig aandacht wordt besteed aan investeringen in de feitelijke ontwikkeling van leiderschap.

- *Methodologie van het ontwikkelingsprogramma? Het ontwerpen en implementeren van een leiderschapsontwikkelingsprogramma's* zullen naar verwachting sterk verschillen van de aanpak bij conventionele opleidingen (Leskiw & Singh, 2007). Op basis van een analyse van de literatuur, schuiven auteurs aan variatie aan designcomponenten naar voren: lezingen, case studies, simulaties, samenwerkend leren en het aanpakken van context-specifieke probleemsituaties (DeRue en Myers, 2014). Toch kan verder onderzoek de specifieke aard van opleidingen ook meenemen in discussies over de differentiële impact ervan.

- *Duur van de opleiding?*

De duur van een opleidingsinterventie gericht op universiteitsleiders is altijd een probleem. Zowel de doorlooptijd, de intensiteit en het passen in de individuele agenda zijn een probleem. Combineren we dit met de eerdere vaststelling dat de ontwikkeling van leiderschap vaak geen prioriteit is in het hoger onderwijs, dan staan opleidingen nog meer onder druk. Ook andere auteurs stellen dit vast (Conger, 1993; Evans et al, 2013).

- *Welke resultaten kunnen we verwachten van een Leadership Development Program?*

De Pakistaanse leiders in dit onderzoek stelden expliciet de vraag naar de mogelijke impact van de trainingen. Verwachte uitkomsten worden gerelateerd aan behoeften van de deelnemers. Er is heel wat literatuur dat de analyse van de individuele behoeften koppelt aan de effectiviteit van leiderschapsontwikkelprogramma's. Maar auteurs blijven vaag wanneer het gaat over de feitelijke evaluatie van de programma's. Vooral de duurzaamheid van de verwachtte effecten blijkt een uitdaging, zeker gezien het feit dat niet alle onderzoekers positieve effecten van programma's rapporteren (Gmelch, 2013).

In het voorliggende proefschrift werd, naast een focus op de onmiddellijke impact van de interventie, ook gefocust op effecten op korte termijn en op lange termijn. Dit is van cruciaal belang met het oog op de duurzaamheid van de interventies, maar ook met het oog op het bepalen van de return-on-investment. Zoals eerder uitgelegd, konden we een positieve impact vaststellen. Ons onderzoek sluit dus aan op een gelijkaardige stroom aan onderzoeksartikels (Abrell, Rowold, Weibler & Moenninghoff, 2011; Harris & Leberman, 2010). Maar toch zijn verdere reflecties nodig waarbij vooral een 'actor' perspectief van belang

is. Wat stellen bv. de docenten, medewerkers vast? Bij het bespreken van de bovenstaande thema's, werden enkele sterke punten van het eigen onderzoek benadrukt, maar werden her en der ook kritische kanttekeningen geplaatst. In het afrondende hoofdstuk van het proefschrift worden deze kanttekeningen in een breder geplaatst met het oog op het uitwerken van vervolgonderzoek. De beperkingen werden geclusterd: (1) beperkingen m.b.t. de onderzoeksamples, (2) de onderzoeksopzetten en -designs, en (3) de aard van de onderzoekscontext.

Bij een verder discussie over mogelijke pistes voor vervolgonderzoek, werden ideeën aangereikt die verder gaan dan de resultaten bij de aangepakte onderzoeksvragen. Op basis van een bespreking van nieuwe initiatieven in ontwikkelde landen, wordt voor de Pakistaanse context het idee voor de oprichting van leiderschapscentra naar voren geschoven. Deze centra kunnen via de Higher Education Commission (HEC) opgezet worden. In eerste instantie kunnen deze centra behoeftanalyses uitvoeren, blauwdrukken ontwerpen voor leiderschapsontwikkelprogramma's en de feitelijke ontwikkeling en implementatie van dergelijke programma's ondersteunen. Ten tweede kunnen deze centra het strategische denken over leiderschap en leiderschapsontwikkeling bevorderen in de Pakistaanse universiteiten; bv. door motiverende lezingen voor leiders, strategische training van rectoren, het opzetten van seminars over een collegiale cultuur in universiteiten; Daarbij kan de Higher Education Commission (HEC) samenwerken met de Pakistaanse Civil Services Academy.

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Journal (A1)

- Zulfqar, A., Valcke, M., Devos, G., Tuytens, M., & Shahzad, A. (2016). Leadership practices in public versus private universities in Pakistan. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 17, 147-159. Doi: 10.1007/s12564-016-9414-0
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- Zulfqar, A., Valcke, M., Devos, G., & Shahzad, A., (2016). Transformational leadership and participative decision-making in profit vs non-profit universities. Manuscript submitted.
- Zulfqar, A., Valcke, M., Devos, G., Quraishi, U., (2016). Developing academic leaders: evaluation of a leadership development intervention in higher education. Manuscript submitted.
- Zulfqar, A., Valcke, M., Devos, G., (2016). Sustainable leadership development in higher education: Short and long-term impact of a leadership development program. Manuscript submitted.

Conference contribution

- Zulfqar, A., Valcke, M. & Devos, G., (2016). The makeover: *A leadership development training intervention in higher education*. Paper Presented at the International Conference on Education & Educational Psychology, Rhodes, Greece, October 11-15 2016.
- Zulfqar, A., Devos, G., Shahzad, A. H., & Valcke, M. (2015). *Transformational leadership, participative decision-making versus self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction in Pakistan higher education*. Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Illinois, USA, April 16-20 2015.
- Zulfqar, A., & Valcke, M. (2014). *What about university leadership in a developing country context? Unraveling the nature of transformational leadership and participative decision-making*. Paper Presented at the International Conference on Education & Research Innovation, Seville, Spain, November 17-19, 2014.

Zulfqar, A., Devos, G., & Valcke, M. (2014). *Academic leadership rhetoric and reality: Unraveling the nature of transformational leadership and participative decision-making in Pakistan universities*. Paper Presented at the 2nd Asia-Pacific Social Science Conference, Kuala Lumpur, November 7-9, 2014.

Data storage fact sheets

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2. Information about the datasets to which this sheet applies

=====

* Reference of the publication in which the datasets are reported:
Zulfqar, A., Valcke, M., Devos, G., Shah, F. A., & Shahzad, A. (2016). Leadership development, a rough road to travel: Evaluation of an academic leadership training intervention program. PONTE, 72, 2-17. doi:10.21506/j.ponte.2016.4.13.

* Which datasets in that publication does this sheet apply to?
Datasets included in the study reported in Chapter 4 of the dissertation.

3. Information about the files that have been stored

=====
3a. Raw data

* Have the raw data been stored by the main researcher? YES / NO

If NO, please justify:

* On which platform are the raw data stored?

- researcher PC
- research group file server
- other (specify): ...

* Who has direct access to the raw data (i.e., without intervention of another person)?

- main researcher
- responsible ZAP
- all members of the research group
- all members of UGent
- other (specify): ...

3b. Other files

* Which other files have been stored?

- file(s) describing the transition from raw data to reported results. Specify: The coding scheme adopted to analyze the data from interviews.
- file(s) containing processed data. Specify: ...Interviews from deans/heads was processed and added in WeftQDA software aggregated for analysis. All interviews were transcribed and stored in Microsoft word files.
- file (s) containing analyses. Specify: ...All WeftQDA output was saved in Microsoft word.
- files(s) containing information about informed consent
- a file specifying legal and ethical provisions

- file(s) that describe the content of the stored files and how this content should be interpreted. Specify: ...

- other files. Specify: ...

* On which platform are these other files stored?

- individual PC

- research group file server

- other: ...

* Who has direct access to these other files (i.e., without intervention of another person)?

- main researcher

- responsible ZAP

- all members of the research group

- all members of UGent

- other (specify): ...

4. Reproduction

=====

* Have the results been reproduced independently?: YES / NO

* If yes, by whom (add if multiple):

- name:

- address:

- affiliation:

- e-mail:

% Data Storage Fact Sheet

% Name/Chapter 5

% Author: Asia Zulfqar

% Date: 28-09-2016

1. Contact details

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2. Information about the datasets to which this sheet applies

=====

* Reference of the publication in which the datasets are reported:

Zulfqar, A., Valcke, M., Devos, G., Quraishi, U., (2016). Developing academic leaders: evaluation of a leadership development intervention in higher education. Manuscript submitted for publication.

* Which datasets in that publication does this sheet apply to?

Datasets included in the study reported in Chapter 5 of the dissertation.

3. Information about the files that have been stored

 =====
 3a. Raw data

* Have the raw data been stored by the main researcher? YES / NO

If NO, please justify:

* On which platform are the raw data stored?

- researcher PC
- research group file server
- other (specify): ...

* Who has direct access to the raw data (i.e., without intervention of another person)?

- main researcher
- responsible ZAP
- all members of the research group
- all members of UGent
- other (specify): ...

 3b. Other files

* Which other files have been stored?

- file(s) describing the transition from raw data to reported results. Specify: The coding scheme adopted to analyze the data from interviews.
- file(s) containing processed data. Specify: ...Interviews from deans/heads was processed and added in Nvivo software aggregated for analysis. All interviews were transcribed and stored in Microsoft word files.
- file (s) containing analyses. Specify: ...All Nvivo output was saved in Microsoft word.
- files(s) containing information about informed consent
- a file specifying legal and ethical provisions

- file(s) that describe the content of the stored files and how this content should be interpreted. Specify: ...

- other files. Specify: ...

* On which platform are these other files stored?

- individual PC

- research group file server

- other: ...

* Who has direct access to these other files (i.e., without intervention of another person)?

- main researcher

- responsible ZAP

- all members of the research group

- all members of UGent

- other (specify): ...

4. Reproduction

=====

* Have the results been reproduced independently?: YES / NO

* If yes, by whom (add if multiple):

- name:

- address:

- affiliation:

- e-mail:

% Data Storage Fact Sheet

% Name/Chapter 6

% Author: Asia Zulfqar

% Date: 28-09-2016

1. Contact details

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2. Information about the datasets to which this sheet applies

=====

* Reference of the publication in which the datasets are reported:

Zulfqar, A., Valcke, M., Devos, G., (2016). Sustainable leadership development in higher education: Short and long-term impact of a leadership development program. Manuscript submitted for publication.

* Which datasets in that publication does this sheet apply to?

Datasets included in the study reported in Chapter 6 of the dissertation.

3. Information about the files that have been stored

=====
3a. Raw data

* Have the raw data been stored by the main researcher? YES / NO

If NO, please justify:

* On which platform are the raw data stored?

- researcher PC
- research group file server
- other (specify): ...

* Who has direct access to the raw data (i.e., without intervention of another person)?

- main researcher
- responsible ZAP
- all members of the research group
- all members of UGent
- other (specify): ...

3b. Other files

* Which other files have been stored?

- file(s) describing the transition from raw data to reported results. Specify: The coding scheme adopted to analyze the data from interviews.
- file(s) containing processed data. Specify: ...Interviews from deans/heads was processed and added in Nvivo software aggregated for analysis. All interviews were transcribed and stored in Microsoft word files.
- file (s) containing analyses. Specify: ...All Nvivo output was saved in Microsoft word.
- files(s) containing information about informed consent
- a file specifying legal and ethical provisions

- file(s) that describe the content of the stored files and how this content should be interpreted. Specify: ...

- other files. Specify: ...

* On which platform are these other files stored?

- individual PC

- research group file server

- other: ...

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- main researcher

- responsible ZAP

- all members of the research group

- all members of UGent

- other (specify): ...

4. Reproduction

=====

* Have the results been reproduced independently?: YES / NO

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