

**EVALUATING THE PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF THE LEADERSHIP
STYLES OF DEANS IN ETHIOPIAN GOVERNMENTAL TECHNICAL AND
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING (TVET) COLLEGES**

by

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DECLARATION

DECLARATION

Student number: 45434328

I declare that:

“Evaluating the perceived effectiveness of the leadership styles of deans in Ethiopian governmental technical and vocational education and training (TVET) colleges” is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

June 2017

Signature (MESFIN MOLLA DEMISSIE)



DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my brothers, Mogese Molla Demissie and Abebe Molla Demiss

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank GOD, the merciful and the passionate one, for making it possible for me to enter into the world of academia and research and for giving me this opportunity to complete this thesis.

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ABSTRACT

The study evaluates the perceived effectiveness of the leadership styles of deans in Ethiopian governmental Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) colleges. The study was contextualised within the domain of relevant leadership theory in chapter 2 (with specific emphasis on the Full Range Leadership model developed by Bass and Avolio), and within the field of Technical and Vocational Education and Training in chapter 3. A mixed method research methodology was employed in the empirical research. The quantitative part received the most emphasis, while a qualitative part was added to attempt to corroborate findings. Quantitative data were collected from teachers (219), student council members (65) and deans (10) in ten TVET colleges using the MLQ 5x short-form questionnaire, which is a standardised questionnaire of high repute. The quantitatively collected data were analysed and presented using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The qualitative part consisted of semi-structured interviews conducted with the ten deans and one TVET Bureau Head.

Quantitative findings indicated that the transformational and transactional leadership styles were observed far more frequently than the laissez-faire style. Perceptions regarding the effectiveness of deans, teachers' job satisfaction and teachers' willingness to make an extra effort were positively and statistically significantly influenced by the presence of both the transformational and the transactional leadership styles and to a slight extent, influenced negatively by the interaction effect of the two styles. Qualitative findings mostly corroborated the quantitative findings.

Recommendations emanating from the research *inter alia* include: Leadership training opportunities for TVET deans should be scheduled to enhance the appropriate leadership style practice of deans (especially the transformational style); resources (human, financial and materials) should be made available to TVET colleges to develop desired types of leadership in colleges; as part of the selection process when appointing new TVET deans, the leadership style/s that applicants use at that stage should be assessed; a staff-dean-team-approach will be productive if the dean practises a transformational-orientated style of leadership.

KEY CONCEPTS

Technical and Vocational Education and Training, MLQ 5x-short form, full range leadership, transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style, *laissez-faire* leadership style, effectiveness, job satisfaction, extra effort.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AU: African Union

COC: Centre of Competence

CSA: Central Statistics Authority

ECBP: Engineering Capacity Building Programme

ESA: Ethiopian Science Academy

ESDP: Education sector development

FDRE: Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia

FRL: Full range leadership

FRLM: Full range leadership model

GTP: Growth and transformation plan

HRD: Human resource development

ILO: International Labour Organisation

LMX: Leader Member Exchange Theory

LPC: Least preferred co-worker

MDGs: Millennium Development Goals

MOE: Ministry of Education

MOFED: Ministry of Finance and Economic Development

MLQ: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

NICHE: Netherlands Initiative for Capacity Development in Higher Education

SDCs: Skill Development Centres

SNNPR: Southern Nations, Nationalities, People's Region

SNNPREB: Southern Nations, Nationalities, People's Region Education Bureau

TGE: Transitional Government of Ethiopia

TVET: Technical and Vocational Education and Training

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UN: United Nations

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION, ORIENTATION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Leadership has been a central issue discussed by a number of scholars. The term leadership has been defined differently by various researchers (Leskiw & Singh, 2007:449; Bass, 2008:11; Stogdill, 1974:259). Since so many different perspectives have existed regarding organisational leadership, Daft (2005:7) points out it appears that “there are many opposing ideas that exist” side-by-side connected with this concept. Hannum (2004:16) points out that different organisations have conducted scholastic studies on leadership. However, not enough research was carried out on leadership in educational institutions before the nineties in the previous century (Marcy & Mumford, 2010:3).

In a highly computerised world in which technological advancements have driven the development of dynamic work environments, there is a need for dynamic and visionary leaders who possess leadership skills and are capable of meeting the challenges and opportunities that exist in the modern workplace that is intent on promoting the change necessary for developing and maintaining the competitive edge (Burke, Stagl, Klein, Goodwin, Salas, Halpin & Winer, 2006: 302). If this is true for leadership in general, then it is even more critical that leaders of the highest calibre are identified, developed, and sharpened within educational institutions. Therefore, a corp of leaders need to be prepared for work in the field of education in general and Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) colleges in particular. To meet this challenge, Cascio (1995: 930; Barnes, Christensen & Stillman, 2013:1567) suggests that “more often today’s interacted, interdependent, culturally diverse organization requires Full Range Leadership - FRL.” This need for outstanding leadership has been further reinforced by Avolio and Bass (1991:16) who in their research identified three leadership styles, namely: transformational, transactional, and *laissez-faire*. They state that these three leadership styles can be used to identify the predictive roles of this range of leader attributes as well as the three outcomes of leadership, namely: extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction. The FRL is regarded as a contemporary model that has the potential to explain leadership and its multidimensional nature and to measure behaviours empirically that can be used to predict leadership outcomes (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003:261; Avolio, 2010:50).

According to Dew (1995:52) and Northouse (2012:181), leaders make an attempt to lift up motivation and morale when a transformational leadership style is put into effect. Similarly, Curtin (2004:75) and Conger and Kanungo (1990:478) propose that organisations require leadership that stimulates leaders and followers as a result of which observable change can come to the fore. Additionally, Bass and Avolio (1997:131) assert that the concept of ‘transformational leadership’ includes five key factors which are the following: “idealised attribute, idealised behaviour, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration.” The suggestions of transformational leadership have been tried and tested by many empirical studies within various institutional conditions (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Ahearne & Bommer, 1995:463; Yammarino & Bass, 1990:168; Dulin, 2008:47).

For Avolio (2010:49), college deans should use the transformational leadership style to be the most successful. The findings of Morgenson, DeRue and Karam (2009:11), and Ross and Offerman (1991:28) have suggested that it is advantageous for organisations if they are led by lenient, more nurturing leaders. In his work, Nahavandi (2003:147) has tried to describe the characteristics of transformational leaders as follows: they work hard to promote self-reliance and optimism about goals and followers' ability, provide a vivid vision, initiate innovation through empowerment and rewards for followers, inspire high expectations by creating a conducive environment and, finally, form and strengthen personal relationships with followers. For Nahavandi, these five characteristics of a transformational leader are of vital importance and the absence of one of these characteristics would make such a leader either ineffective or less effective in terms of his/her leadership.

According to Avolio and Bass (2004:1; Bass, 2008:16), one cannot think of the transformational leadership style without including in it the other two leadership styles, namely transactional and *laissez-faire*. These scholars are of the opinion that in the transactional leadership style both leaders and followers play an important role in the choice of a goal and working together for its final achievement. They have also identified two key factors for transactional leadership, namely contingent reward and management-by-exception active.

In addition, Bass and Avolio (2004:7) have classified two factors of passive/avoidance/absence of leadership, that is, management-by-exception passive and *laissez-faire*. Management-by-exception passive occurs when a leader waits passively for mistakes to happen and intervenes only if standards are not fully attained. On the other hand, Northouse (2012:179) has stated that a *laissez-faire* leader allows followers to work by themselves without getting instruction or guidance from their leader. Moreover, he further says that such a leader either refrains himself/herself from interfering or lacks active participation in the activities of followers. He may even go to the extent of resigning his/her

responsibility as a result of which a line of departure between the leader and the followers may be observed.

From the work of Northouse, one can conclude that *laissez-faire* leaders are the most ineffective in their leadership; as such, their leadership can cause unexpected harm to their organisation. Besides, Bass (1996:157) states that a lack of competence and ineffectiveness are the basic nature of *laissez-faire* leadership; being so, it is negatively related to the factors of transformational leadership.

The above three leadership styles, namely: transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire* leadership respectively, are important for the topic under study. This research examines the perceived leadership effectiveness of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) deans using the FRL to analyse the leadership provided by deans using teachers, students, and the deans themselves as respondents in the Southern Nation, Nationalities, People's Region (SNNPR) TVET colleges. Dhar and Mishra (2001:254) propose that the attitude of followers is an important factor for a leader to be effective or not. Similarly, Hooijberg and Choi (2000:349) suggest that perceived leadership effectiveness is related to leaders' success in organisations, their performance, and their ability to be role models.

Perceived leadership effectiveness in this study will be gauged by how well subordinates perceive their leaders to be performing their jobs. Based on this assumption, the researcher sets out to examine the perceived effectiveness of the leadership of SNNPR TVET deans in a dynamic college environment.

Baker, Earley and Weindling (1994:5) and Eddy (2010: 28-29) emphasise that deans of TVET colleges must possess effective leadership abilities and skills to be successful in their leadership of higher educational institutions. Therefore, for these researchers, effective administrative abilities and management skills are the core points for successful leadership by college deans. For Cohen and Brawer (1996:349; 2003:3), college deans were seen to be the most accountable for the development and upholding of their institutions before the 1960s. During the 1970s, college deans began to play the role of a manager as the result of which they have concentrated on cost-effectiveness and output; this was done in order to withstand the financial challenges of the time. In the 2000s, TVET college deans were short of resources, but it was a period of increasing enrolment as a result of which many other challenges followed. Corrigan, Diwan, Campion and Rashid (2002:103) have reported that deans of various types of organisations are confronting obstacles, particularly in the spheres of working together with staff and management bodies of their institutions.

Debub Negaret Gazeta (2004:2) points out that the activities of the college that offer certificates, diplomas, and advanced diploma level educational programmes are influenced by what the dean does. Further strengthening this idea, Salas, Sims and Burke (2005:561) state that because of his/her communication of his/her values, the dean is believed to influence the behaviour of followers. Moreover, the deans' good ethics is believed to instil respect and trust in the system. Furthermore, he/she should have the ability to convey the important messages to his/her followers; he/she should also be concerned with the day to day operation of the college and the way people are treated.

TVET colleges in Ethiopia have experienced considerable growth and have also undergone changes in many areas. The World Bank (2015a:4) has emphasised that effective leadership is vital, particularly for organisations which lack adequate financial resources. The bank has further stated that without adequate financial resources, such organisations can hardly become competent and feasible in the future. Almost all of the government TVET colleges in Ethiopia have modest financial endowments and inadequate budgets allocated by the government and also receive no financial and material assistance from former graduate students.

In 1994, there were 2,338 TVET students. However, according to the Growth and Transformation Plan I (GTP), it was expected that the number of students in TVET colleges would reach a total of 717,603 students at national level in the year 2011. This is a substantial increase of 715,265 students at national level. GTP 1 also planned that the enrolment figures would reach 1,127,330 in the year 2014 (World Bank, 2015c:53). However, the actual figures show that in 2014, the enrolment figure of 238,884 was much lower than the projected enrolment figure. The lower enrolment could be due to under-reporting of data, the over ambitiousness of the plan, and the unemployment of graduates and unwillingness to join a TVET programme. Although 238,884 is small when compared to the number of students who should be enrolled in the TVET programme compared to the Ethiopian Growth and Transformation Plan I (GTP I) (World Bank, 2015c:67), it still represents considerable growth since 1994, thereby putting pressure on the functioning of TVET deans.

The World Bank (2015b:14) strongly emphasises the importance of good personalities and keen intellects with regard to TVET deans for effective leadership. In addition, effective deans must be adept at planning, fundraising and budgeting. It adds that they should also possess a strong set of leadership skills to maintain current enrolment levels, to train middle-level human resources and transfer the required technologies. In this way, deans could contribute to poverty reduction and sustainable development and should be fully committed to Ethiopia's vision to become a middle-income country by the year 2025. It will take effective leadership of TVET college deans to lead colleges to become and remain fiscally sound, ensure a sustainable system of financing, provide for income generating schemes and cost sharing by users, provide for quality academic programmes and

promote the effective utilisation of training machines and equipment (Shaorshadze & Krishnan, 2013:14). Furthermore, the quantitative expansion of TVET has been underpinned by ideological and economic rationales although it has registered limited progress in addressing issues related to the Centre of Competence (COC), largely due to the countertrend of financial impediments (Tesfaye, 2011:422).

Leadership effectiveness or ineffectiveness depends on how the members of an organisation perceive the various dimensions with respect to the task being done, as well as relationship related behaviour. However, members may perceive leadership positively or negatively (Rehman, 2009:116). Therefore, the aim of this study will be to evaluate the effectiveness of TVET college deans' leadership styles as perceived by teachers, students and the deans themselves.

1.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THIS STUDY

The full range leadership model (FRLM) provides a useful model concerning the formation of a conceptual framework for examining the effectiveness of the dean's leadership style in relation to employee's effectiveness. In addition, the model includes indicators of transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire* leadership factors. This theory of leadership styles ranges from a style that is highly transformational at one end and highly avoidant at the other, namely the *laissez-faire* leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 1997:62). Bass and Avolio (2004: 49) remark that the basic feature of FRL is that every leader is believed to exercise each leadership style to some extent. They further state that the most effective FRL is achieved through the practice of both transformational and transactional leadership styles. Moreover, they add that the most dominant leadership style in FRL is the transformational one, while the least is the *laissez-faire* leadership style. Their statement indicates that the practice of each leadership style to some extent by every leader shows that all leaders have something that they commonly share in the practice of their leadership.

Bass and Avolio (1995:43) further refined the components of the FRLM to include "idealise attribute, idealise behaviour, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, contingent rewards, management-by-exception active, management-by-exception passive, and *the laissez-faire style*." The first five components are transformational factors: IA - idealised attributes, IB - idealised behaviours, IM - inspirational motivation, IS - intellectual stimulation, and IC - individual consideration; the next two are transactional components: CR - contingent reward, MBE(A) - management-by-exception active, and the last two passive avoidant factors of the schema are: MBE(P) - management-by-exception passive and LF - *laissez-faire* style as shown in Figure 1.1.

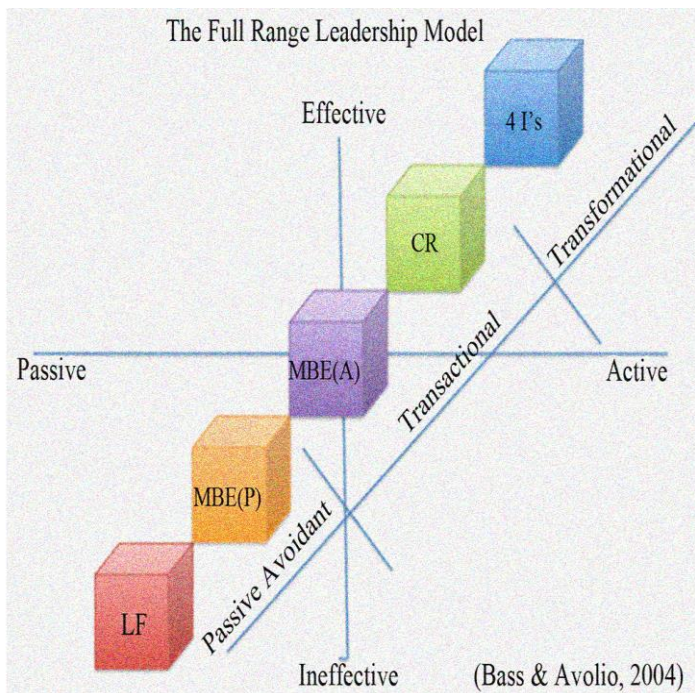


Figure 1.1: Full Range Leadership Model – relationship of leadership style factors and indicators

(Adapted from Bass & Avolio, 2004: 21).

In this research, the FRLM is studied aimed at evaluating the effectiveness of TVET college deans' leadership styles with the help of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The above figure states that the FRLM starts at the top with transformational leadership being the most effective type of leadership, then slowly progresses down to transactional leadership, middle of the road leadership, and lastly, passive-avoidant leadership (management by exception passive and *laissez-faire*) which is the most ineffective. The statement of the problem will be discussed next.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND RESEARCH QUESTION

The Industrial Development Strategy of 2003 has shown that considerable human resource deficits in Ethiopia are the major reason for the low rate of industrial development. This strategy confirms in its statement:

...education and a training system that is capable of producing the manpower that is both professionally and ethically capable of carrying and sustaining the responsibility of seeing to it that our industrial development program will have achieved its goals (MOFED, 2003:5).

Therefore, it called for efforts towards quality improvement of the workforce, to reverse the marginalisation of the industrial professions in the TVET system, and to build a culture of entrepreneurship and self-employment (MOFED, 2010:9).

In 2009, the Southern Nations, Nationalities People's Region (SNNPR) Centre of Competence (COC) conducted standard exams for those who graduated from TVETs. The results were disappointing, as only 12.2% of the TVET graduates and 34.9% of the TVET instructors passed the examinations (SNNPR TVET, 2010, 8). Hence, to solve this chronic problem, high calibre deans should be appointed. In line with this idea, in the year 2003, the World Bank designed a training project to produce and assign skilled leaders in higher education in Ethiopia (World Bank, 2003:19). Although it failed, it was also the plan of the Ethiopian government that the percentage of TVET leaders trained in leadership would reach 100% in the year 2014 (MOFED, 2010: 53).

The TVET sector has particular significance for the reduction of poverty and for the promotion of gender equity because it stresses certain dimensions such as opportunities, skills, human resources development and empowerment. However, in Ethiopia, the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MOFED) has introduced an emphasis on developing TVET skills only since the turn of the 21st century. As a result, the MOE has required TVET practitioners not only to link up their knowledge and skills with the past in order to understand the present situation, but also to prompt them to look beyond the present to cope with this dynamic world (MOFED, 2006:120).

The Ethiopian Science Academy (Ethiopian Science Academy, 2006:36) adds:

Ethiopia is committed to participating in the competitive global market economy. This requires technically and professionally trained citizens with the “ability to learn” in specific occupations. Hence, TVET is often at the centre of education aimed at entrepreneurial skills. Accordingly, Ethiopia is putting in place, in part via TVET, a comprehensive human resource development (HRD) program.

When one reflects on research into effective education, it becomes evident that the leadership of the dean is especially important for effective colleges (Mumford, Friedrich, Caughron & Byrne, 2007:524; Dubrin, 2007:11; Ilies, Judge & Wagner, 2006:13). The role of the dean is of crucial importance for college excellence (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa & Chan, 2009:768; Hallinger & Murphy, 1987:54-61). However, what is implemented in the SNNPR TVET colleges does not bear out this idea. According to this researcher, deans are simply assigned to such colleges on the basis of political affiliation rather than on the basis of formal leadership training, experience, merit and competition among staff members for the post. No assessment of leadership styles of the deans is carried out before assigning them to these institutions (SNNPR TVET Bureau, 2010:5).

Leadership scholars have revealed that as leaders cooperate with their followers, the perception of followers as well as organisational outcomes are positively affected by their leadership (Shurbagi,

2014:102). The relationship between the leadership style and employee satisfaction, motivating them to exert extra effort and organisational effectiveness are important, particularly in higher educational institutions (Bycio, Hackett & Allen, 1995: 468). Much has been written about the relationship between leadership styles and their outcomes (Podsakoff, Todor, Grover & Huber, 1984:56; Hur, Van den Berg & Wilderom, 2011:601). Thus, it is important to ask the following question: Does a TVET college dean's leadership style lead to job satisfaction, extra effort and effectiveness of the teachers and students he/she leads? Through evaluating the perceived leadership styles of government TVET college deans and the factors associated with job satisfaction, extra effort, and effectiveness, this research seeks to contribute to the professional growth of leadership at TVET colleges in particular and educational organisations in general.

Hence, it is important to find out which leadership styles the deans apply and whether these styles benefit the organisation or not. Consequently, this study poses the following main research question that will guide this specific study: "To what extent do the leadership styles adopted by deans have an effect on the government TVET Colleges' perceived effectiveness as evaluated by deans, teachers, and students?"

To seek an answer to the main research question, the researcher will investigate the following sub-questions:

- What are the most dominant leadership styles (*transformational*, *transactional*, and *laissez-faire*) practised by the deans of the SNNPR TVET colleges?
- What is the relationship between the *transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* leadership styles?
- To what extent are perceptions of the *effectiveness* of deans influenced by the leadership style (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit?
- To what extent are perceptions of *job satisfaction* influenced by the leadership style/s (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit?
- To what extent are perceptions of *performance* influenced by the leadership style/s (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit?

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of the study are divided into general and specific objectives as discussed next.

1.4.1 General objective

The general objective of this study is to evaluate the perceived effectiveness of the leadership styles

of the deans in Ethiopian SNNPR governmental TVET colleges.

1.4.2 Specific objectives

The specific objectives of the study are the following:

- Identify the dominant leadership styles that are practised in the TVET colleges.
- Examine the relationships among the three leadership styles.
- Discover various leadership styles utilised by the TVET college deans.
- Determine the predictors of the effectiveness pertaining to the perceived deans' leadership styles.
- Verify the predictors of job satisfaction pertaining to the perceived deans' leadership style outcomes.
- Find out which are the predictors of motivation pertaining to the perceived deans' leadership styles.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study can be useful for determining how leadership style affects the success of the TVET colleges. Moreover, it can determine whether or not transformational, transactional, and *laissez-faire* leadership or an amalgamation of these three leadership styles has a positive impact on TVET staff satisfaction. Hopefully, the lessons learned from this study can provide insight that will be useful for educational leaders, policy makers and other researchers in Ethiopia on the theme of the research.

The outcomes of this scholarly research may give deans a chance to look for better leadership styles to employ. The results of this study may extend the body of knowledge regarding leadership in TVET colleges, specifically with regards to Ethiopia; thereby making a contribution on a theoretical level about the application of the FRL model. Hence, there is also the expectation that it may contribute to leadership training and development programmes for educational leaders at different levels. In addition, the findings can provide extra empirical data about the impact of the deans' leadership styles in their colleges.

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Cohen and Manion (2001:53) state that in research it is important to choose the appropriate paradigms and methods of inquiry that will provide quality data that can be obtained within the researcher's context. Consequently, the multi-pronged approach was adopted in order to investigate and analyse leadership styles that affect outputs in TVET colleges. It should be noted here that the

multi-pronged approach is commonly referred to as mixed methods research. This method combines both quantitative and qualitative research methods (Punch, 1998:19). The researcher selected a mixed method approach because it enhances the validity of the findings and the researcher gets better information (Greene & Caracelli, 2007:19). This approach involves assumptions and methods that guide the collection and analysis of data and mixing qualitative and quantitative approaches. Its central premise is that quantitative and qualitative approaches used together in the same study provide better results in problem investigation (Creswell, 2005: 5).

Brown and Dowling (1998:274) and Greene and Caracelli (2007:20) are of the opinion that a questionnaire can provide an area of coverage encompassing a larger population from which samples of the study can be drawn. Patton (1990:288) points out that the quantitative research method enables large pieces of information to be amassed and subjected to statistical analysis in a short period of time. The costs and time requirements are relatively low. On the other hand, a qualitative research method can offer a depth of insight regarding leadership styles in TVET colleges in Ethiopia. Accordingly, Bryman (2001:113) states that:

Tightly focussed quantitative methods of questioning may fail to get beneath the surface, they may also limit the range of possible responses. Indeed, when researching organisations and people working within them, one should attempt to use a mixed method approach, as triangulation provides better insight into the phenomenon being investigated.

This statement indicates that a research design that adheres to a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches can avert the inherent weaknesses of each method.

Even as early as 1986 Blease and Bryman (1986:195) support the combination of both research methods within the same research design. Furthermore, they assert that:

They are not only mutually enhancing, but also their sensitive merging may provide a complete picture that might be more satisfying and attractive to academics and policy makers. In addition, the available evidence is increasingly supporting the notion that qualitative and quantitative research methodologies are more complementary rather than opposing paradigms.

Rosnow and Rosenthal (2002:207) agree with the idea mentioned above and assert that the qualitative strategy through rich description persuades the reader, while quantitative research persuades by de-emphasising individual judgement, trying to achieve more precise results. Thus, according to Bryman (2001:113), integration is likely to elicit more "... holistic data, thereby providing a rich vein of analysis of different types of leadership styles" in TVET colleges.

This research used a standardised questionnaire (MLQ) to identify types of leadership and their outcomes. The researcher used the Statistical Package SAS (Statistical Analysis System version 9.2) to analyse the data which are used to test comparisons to measure the dominance and relationship of FRL styles and their regression against their outcomes.

The researcher used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X-Short Form) to measure the Full Range Leadership (FRL) from a sample of ten TVET government colleges in Ethiopia in the Southern Nations, Nationalities, People's Region (SNNPR). The MLQ has proven validity and reliability to be a good measuring instrument of leadership. It has also become highly accepted among many researchers of the world (Bass, 1997:135). It now has an Amharic language version (translated for this study) which has made it appropriate to be used in Ethiopia. The MLQ (5X-Short Form) incorporates three leadership styles, namely transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire*. It uses a five-point scale with 45 close-ended questions. The questionnaire has three parts: Part A gathered data on the demographics of participants, part B established the deans' leadership styles and their outcomes, and part C used open-ended questions. The survey study was preceded by a pilot study in the making of the research.

Although the main focus of the empirical research was the quantitative part of the study, a qualitative part was added using qualitative interviews to try to verify and enrich the quantitative data. The responses were collected from the interviewees and were translated from Amharic into English. The researcher has tried to do away with personal bias and prejudices when interpreting the data in order to be able to obtain objective results. The researcher has also made every possible attempt to establish the credibility of the findings by addressing their validity and reliability (Ekelund, Shneor & Gehrke, 2008: 29). The issue of a research design and methodology will be discussed thoroughly in Chapter 4.

1.7 ASSUMPTIONS

According to Simon (2011:13), assumptions are events that are out of one's control but presumed to be true. The assumptions for this study were influenced by the environment, time available and human behaviour. This study was based on the following assumptions:

- The respondents would answer the questions forwarded by the researcher voluntarily and freely, and with a fair degree of accuracy.
- The existing political conditions in Ethiopia could affect the FRL of the TVET college deans adversely.

- Human behaviour, together with the ways respondents construct and make sense of their lives would differ according to their environments.
- The participants would understand the content of the questionnaires.
- Only deans, teachers, student councils, and the TVET Bureau Head would participate in the survey.

1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The inclusion of more TVET colleges in this study for more effective evaluation of TVET deans' leadership styles in Ethiopia is not possible because of both the inadequate financial resources and time. Consequently, only ten colleges were selected from one region. An additional drawback is the shortage of literature related to Ethiopian leadership styles. Most of the accessible literary works are from western countries which are difficult to use in the Ethiopian context. While this pointed to a research gap in the literature; it also justified the importance of this research. This, however, limits the researcher's understanding of leadership in the Ethiopian cultural context.

Furthermore, the qualitative interviews were translated from Amharic to English which could affect the retention of the respondent's exact response. Consequently, to check the accuracy of the translation, the researcher has referred it to translators proficient in both Amharic and the English language. Other persons duly checked the translation of the manuscript (see Chapter 4 paragraph 4.3.4.1).

The targets of this research were TVET government college deans who were always busy doing various tasks, and therefore, it was difficult to access them. In general, for the reason that different geographical areas may have their own peculiar characteristics in terms of the location, socio-economic status and the culture of TVET colleges, the findings of this study may not be generalised to all TVET colleges in Ethiopia.

A further limitation relates to the fact that teachers and students could not be included in the qualitative part of the study due to the reasons provided in Chapter 4 paragraph 4.3.4.2(a)

The limitations to the study are also expanded on in the next paragraph.

1.9 DEMARCATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY

This study pertained to deans' leadership styles in government TVET colleges in Ethiopia, particularly in the SNNPR. In Ethiopia, there are nine regional states and two city administrations.

From the nine regional states, the researcher selected SNNPR because he was working at this regional state university and it was manageable to conduct the study from here.

Furthermore, this study covers the FRL styles and their outcomes. Moreover, all 45 MLQ items were used (Bass & Avolio, 2004:20; Zhu, Riggio, Avolio & Sosik, 2011:153). Consequently, the researcher tried to evaluate the practice of deans' leadership styles with respect to teachers', student councils', and deans' satisfaction, extra effort, and effectiveness with regard to the deans' leadership styles. Because of this selective nature of the research sample, the study results may not be applicable to all the categories of TVET. This research dealt with the nine sectors of TVET, namely, the construction, automotive, electricity and electronics, manufacturing technology, ICT, business and service, hotel and tourism, culture and textile and garment sectors. These sectors are urgently needed for the country's enterprise productivity and profitability as well as for national productivity and wealth creation. Undoubtedly, enterprise and national growth can be hampered without the necessary technical skills.

Skilled workers are believed to be the backbone for further strengthening technological innovation and economic growth. The need for technical and vocational skills increases from time to time for various reasons, such as technological change, changes in work organisation, growing economic openness and competitiveness and capital growth, that is, increasing the capital per worker (World Bank, 2015b: 23). Certain categories of TVET sectors, namely those that provide teacher training, agriculture and health services were not included in this research. These colleges, because of different capacities, sizes, specific objectives, programmes offered, challenges, governance, and management and administration, should not be regarded as the same as career technical colleges. The participants in the research were TVET college deans, teachers, students as well as the TVET Bureau head.

1.10 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

The researcher is of the opinion that a clear understanding of the key concepts to be utilised in this study is important. Therefore, the specific meanings of the following concepts for the purpose of the study are described next.

- Dean: This refers to a sitting dean who holds the position by virtue of appointment by the SNNPR TVET Board of Education, meeting all the terms and conditions of its bylaws, and who has served in this position for a minimum of one year as a dean at the time this study was initiated (Debut Negaret Gazeta, 2004: 3; Jackson, 2004:410).

- Leadership: This entails the process whereby an individual influences a group to achieve a common goal. Specifically, leadership is a process, involves exercising influence, occurs in a group context, and involves attaining goals (Northouse, 2012: 3).
- Leadership effectiveness: Effectiveness concerns judgments about a leader's impact on an organisation in terms of the profitability of a business unit, the provision of quality of education, the market share gained, or the win-loss record of a team. The following should be noted regarding effectiveness: "Nevertheless, effectiveness is the standard by which leaders should be judged; focussing on typical behaviours. Ignoring effectiveness is an overarching problem in leadership research" (Hogan, 1994: 9). Effectiveness in terms of the MLQ will be extensively discussed in this study.
- Leadership style: is the style followed by TVET deans with regard to transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire* styles, and its components are described in FRL. It is measured by the MLQ which is a standardised instrument (Avolio & Bass, 2004:13).
- *Laissez-faire* leadership: this type of leader avoids getting involved in both the decision-making process and the arising of important issues (Avolio & Bass, 2004:7).
- Multifactor leadership questionnaire: a leadership tool prepared in a validated form and it contains 45 items to survey leadership style for research purposes (Avolio & Bass, 2004: 21).
- The outcome of leadership: refers to transformational and transactional leadership that are both related to the success of the group. Success is measured with the MLQ in terms of how often raters perceive their leader to be motivating, how effective their leader is at interacting at different levels of the organisation, and their satisfaction level with their leader's ways of working with others (Bass & Avolio, 2005:7).
- Perceived dean effectiveness: is closely associated with the situation in which more than expected effort is exerted by followers as a result of effective dean leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1997: 213).
- Satisfaction: reflects to what extent both the leader and followers are satisfied. The leader becomes satisfied with the work outcomes of his/her followers and the followers also become satisfied with the leadership of their leader (Bass & Avolio, 1997:213).
- Transformational leadership: refers to leaders who have a strong set of internal values and ideals. They are found to be effective motivating followers in order to make them act in a far better way for the well-being of their organisation rather than concentrating on their self-interests (Kuhnert, 1994:181).

- Transactional leadership: refers to leaders who exchange things of value with followers to advance both their own agenda and that of their followers (Kuhnert, 1994: 13).
- Technical and vocational education and training (TVET): refers to all types and levels of educational processes in addition to general knowledge. It includes the study of technologies and related sciences, acquisition of practical skills, knowledge, dispositions, and understanding relating to occupations in sectors of economic and social life (UNESCO, 2002:15).

1.11 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

This study is divided into six chapters. This introductory chapter provides a motivation and background, defines the problem, states the objective of the research, provides essential background on the methodology used, and describes the layout of the thesis.

Chapter two deals with a review of leadership theories and styles. It is divided into five sections, namely a review of leadership theories and styles, leader-follower interaction, leadership and organisational culture, leadership in Africa and leadership in Ethiopia. It incorporates theories and models of different leadership styles and outcomes of leadership. It offers a definition and history of both leadership styles and outcomes of leadership. Finally, it provides propositions from literature aimed at guiding the evaluation of the TVET dean leadership style undertaken in this study.

Chapter three deals with contextualising TVET, thereby providing the required background required for this study. It is divided into six sections; namely the meanings and forms of TVET, the role of TVET in national development, TVET in a changing world, TVET in developing countries, the role of the TVET dean, and TVET in Ethiopia.

Chapter four then deals with research design and methodology. It describes the methodology employed in the evaluation of dean leadership styles in TVET government colleges in Ethiopia. It identifies and briefly describes the research questions, the research methodology and design, the sample composition, the sample size, the sampling techniques, and the data collection techniques. Moreover, it describes how the sample was determined, the administration of questionnaires and the conducting of interviews, the measuring instruments (MLQ), and ethical considerations.

Chapter five contains the results of the empirical investigation.

Chapter six provides the concluding remarks, recommendations, and recommendations for further research on leadership styles. The research limitations are provided and the implications of the research discussed in this chapter.

1.12 CONCLUSION

The first chapter is necessary for the orientation and provision of the context for the focus of the research on evaluating the perceived effectiveness of the leadership styles of deans in Ethiopian SNNPR governmental TVET Colleges. It has indicated the problems that have motivated the undertaking of this research. It also includes an introduction to the study, a conceptual framework, a statement of the problem, specific research questions, the objectives of the study, the significance of the study, and a demarcation of the field of study. Moreover, this chapter deals with the assumptions of the study and its limitations. The key concepts pertinent to the study have also been clarified. Besides that, the research methodology and design used for this research are briefly described. Lastly, the chapter has given a framework of the structure of the study. Accordingly, the following two chapters (chapters 2 and 3) will give a review of leadership theory and style, and TVET.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LEADERSHIP THEORY AND STYLE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is mainly concerned with a review of the relevant leadership theories and styles and pays attention to the meaning, character, development and conceptualisation of leadership theory and style. In this regard, Bryman (1996:278) as well as Hoy and Miskel (1991:409) indicate that “leadership theory is divided into four dominant paradigms: the trait approach, the behavioural approach, the contingency approach, and the new leadership approach.” The preceding four approaches will be discussed later in this chapter. According to Rubenstein (2005:46), although not only one style of leadership is proved to be the best, researchers have tried to broaden our understanding of leadership through explaining leadership theories and styles from different points of view.

This literature review pertains to the sub-questions regarding the research problem highlighted in Chapter 1: What are the most dominant leadership styles (*transformational*, *transactional*, and *laissez-faire*) practised by the deans of the SNNPR TVET colleges? What is the relationship between the *transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* leadership styles? To what extent are perceptions of the *effectiveness* of deans influenced by the leadership style (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit? An attempt is made in this chapter to contribute towards answering these questions by providing a theoretical framework for the study by not only highlighting the relevant FRL (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* leadership styles), but also giving the background of the leadership theories and styles leading up to them, thereby providing the theoretical context for the empirical study and the application of the questionnaire to be used in the empirical part of the research. Since the historical background leading up to the discussion of the FRL is provided, and therefore some older leadership theories and models are described, older sources are also relevant in this exposition. Many sources that emanated from the period in which the particular leadership theories and styles were developed will therefore be used in the discussion of these theories and styles.

This chapter will centre on leadership theories with particular reference to leadership styles that are relevant to educational organisations. Furthermore, leadership behaviours in Africa and Ethiopia will also be highlighted.

2.2 LEADERSHIP THEORIES AND STYLES

There are a number of important foundational leadership theories and styles that preceded the FRL and these will be discussed in the following sections.

2.2.1 Trait approach

Bryman (1996:278) states that leadership scholars in previous eras (1930 to 1950) thought that leaders possessed unique characteristics that made them into leaders. He continues by saying that such scholars began to look for the traits that distinguished leaders from other people. Such early researchers indicate that renowned men like Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln and Roosevelt had exceptional leadership personalities. For Hermann and Egri (2002:3), the great man theory explains that leaders are born with certain attributes that make them different from other people.

However, the results of this approach were not accepted being considered not to be complete; therefore it was neglected. In the 1950s, researchers came to realise that the study of trait leadership was a failure (Chemers, 2000:20). Early trait leadership researchers were criticised because they completely depended on first line managers as their subjects of study, while neglecting the top-level managers (House & Aditya, 1997:409; Kaiser, Hogan & Craig, 2008:98). Nevertheless, trait studies reappeared in the 1970s.

Arrington (2010:10) states that types of traits can play an important role in affecting a leadership style. He adds that patterns of traits go side by side with the behaviours of followers and the needs of the condition to affect effectiveness. An individual to be a leader should show his or her efforts to participate and interact with others. Energy, assertiveness, dominance and communication behaviour are part and parcel of personality traits.

With regard to this idea, other researchers like Lussier and Achua (2007:18) have identified a probable correlation among leadership, self-esteem and power needs. To be an accepted leader for long, a leader should acquire task competence. This is because his/her task competence can influence the success of followers.

In general, research into personality traits indicates only a one-dimensional approach. Although it is assumed that personality traits are a sufficient way of predicting who is to be a leader, existing research has shown that this theory is defective. After having carried out a review of 163 research articles in 1974, Stogdill proposed that personality traits should not be assumed to be the only criteria to identify an effective leader (Stogdill, 1974:59). He concludes that there is a necessity of conducting further researches which should include situational factors such as the level of interaction

between leaders and followers (Judge & Bono, 2000:768). The lack of agreement among scholars on the traits that predict an effective leader is another criticism of the trait approach (Northouse, 2012:197).

Therefore, it is inferred that a comprehensive view of leadership requires other additional approaches so that personal traits studies become fully complemented. Inherited tendencies and personality traits such as intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability propounded by the supporters of the trait theories are found in great leaders. These attributes are not considered in the development of the FRL. These qualities have been linked by research to the positive, adaptive, active, and developmental leadership traits that support transformational and transactional leadership styles and that are expected to help a leader function effectively (Bass, 2008:5; Kirkbride, 2006:29).

2.2.2 Behavioural approach

After the trait approach, came the behavioural school of leadership between 1950 and 1980. The Universities of Ohio, Michigan and Harvard conducted major research studies as a result of which different leader behaviours were recognised (Schein, 2004:438; Bass, 1990:14; Northouse, 2012:39). These leadership behaviours were found to be significant antecedents to leadership effectiveness. For these researchers, individualised consideration and initiating structure were the basic ones among other behaviours. The former refers to leaders' sensitivity to the needs and feelings of their followers, while the latter focuses on the leader's attention to the task organisation of the followers' activities. These studies found positive linkages between these factors and many important leadership outcomes, including organisational effectiveness, job satisfaction and extra effort (House & Aditya, 1997:435; Judge & Piccolo, 2004:758).

2.2.2.1 Michigan studies

Likert (1967:14) in his work tried to show the discrepancy among effective, mediocre and less effective leaders. He realised that effective leaders in organisations share the following features in common: positive attitudes towards followers, creating group cohesiveness and making possible attempts to measure workers' performance without bias and prejudice.

These positive features encourage workers to develop their initiative and to become more cooperative as a result of which organisations with such leaders and followers become successful at achieving the expected goals. Furthermore, leaders treat subordinates as human beings, provide fair and equitable leadership and develop supportive relationships with workers. In addition, leaders honour the personal worth of their followers and then try to evaluate such worth on the basis of the performance of their employees. In turn, workers understand the mission of the organisation (Chang

& Lee, 2007:157; Paisey, 1992:146).

Yukl (2010: 203) reports that the use of working groups is essential because they favour group decision-making. For Yukl, the “linking pin” is a link among the echelons of management. In such a case, a supervisor should be able to exert his/her own influence on subordinates in order to be able to affect his/her decision. He/she must also exert upward influence in an organisation to be effective. This linking process becomes more important ascending the organisational hierarchy. Reliance on only one individual leader as a linking pin may result in risks for an organisation in case the individual leaves the organisation or becomes incapacitated.

Furthermore, Likert emphasises the importance of integrating personal and group desires within an organisation and recognises the constructive use of conflict. In his opinion, the proper organisational structure, effective communication, a high degree of confidence and trust solve the conflict effectively. Four basic styles of leadership are discussed under Likert’s (1967) leadership model.

a. System I: Authoritative-coercive leadership

Hersey and Blanchard (1988:105) point out that this leadership style depicts the leader as an authoritative person. For them, such a leader emphasises fulfilment of orders. He/she may use coercive forces to impose fear on workers. The leader lacks confidence in his/her subordinates (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002:77). Consequently, he/she monitors them continually. They focus on their followers’ mistakes rather than on what they do well. In this case, there is a limited amount of employee-leadership interaction and the results are by fear and mistrust and a loss of confidence among followers. The result is that the workers lose their commitment to their work.

Likewise, DuFour and Eaker (1998: 26) as well as DeChurch, Hiller, Murase, Doty and Salas (2010:1076) assert that the prescriptive method of leading a college may result in a lack of dedication on the part of academic staff. Although teamwork does not exist, academic staff members are used to achieving goals. They have no freedom in how they have to perform work. On the other hand, they are needed to work hard to attain the goals set by their leaders. In such a case, teachers may accept their responsibilities overtly because of fear, but they may resist covertly. Hersey and Blanchard (1988:105) assert that employees neglect their progress in a subtle way by forwarding unconvincing reasons why they are unable to carry out their duties. Academic staff are dissatisfied with their work as a result of which informal groups that oppose the goals of the college are formed (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988:105). Accordingly, Paisey (1992:146) warns against this type of leadership behaviour.

b. System II: Authoritative-benevolent leadership

Despite the fact that such a leader is authoritative, he/she allows some participation by the academic staff. In this regard, Hersey and Blanchard (1988:105) add that although such a leader makes the majority of the decisions, under such leadership subordinates are allowed to make decisions within a prescribed framework. For example, department heads would be allowed to make financial and budget decisions at their level. Workers are motivated by reward or punishment. Thus, employees are dissatisfied with their jobs for the reason that their motivation is extremely low. It should be noted here that fear, caution, and pretence are the characteristics of employee-leadership interaction.

c. System III: Consultative leadership

Adeyemi (2011: 87) in his study of leadership pointed out that an employee gains substantial confidence and trust through a consultative leadership style. The leader makes the final decision but asks for the opinion of his/her employees that result in them becoming more positive with regard to the organisation, the leader, and their work. Furthermore, Owens (1991:207) puts forward that employees may adopt a stance of passive resistance although they appear to agree to follow the order. The reason for their stance of passive resistance is that employees feel that not enough consultation has taken place.

d. System IV: Participative leadership

In this leadership style, a close relationship is observed between the leader and the followers. Therefore, the leader develops full confidence in his/her followers and the followers are also freely and actively involved in the managerial system; hence employees begin to make a vigorous effort to arrive at the expected goal (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996:110).

Hersey *et al.* (1996:110) explain that in this leadership style, subordinates are allowed to participate in decision-making. In this leadership style, the leader's behaviours are expected to include coaching, negotiating and collaborating with others. Although the leader takes full responsibility for the decisions taken in the organisation, he/she is helped by informal groups to enable him/her to achieve the goals of the organisation.

Oyetunyi (2006:39) states that a leader should be categorised as authoritative-coercive, authoritative-benevolent, consultative or participative. This categorisation is based on how such a leader decides, communicates, organises and carries out other leadership practices.

Regarding this view, Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002:76-77) have asserted that the authoritative-coercive leadership style is the most ineffective style because of the negative perceptions regarding intimidation that followers experience.

2.2.2.2 Ohio State studies

Two leadership behaviours for the researchers of the Ohio State University studies are task-oriented and person-oriented behaviour. The first concentrates on the effective accomplishment of a task. The second one is concerned with the establishment of a conducive working atmosphere with followers. In course of time, the scholars of this university named these behaviours as initiating structure and consideration respectively (Stogdill, 1974:64; Yukl, 2010:53).

Although these two concepts were adopted as the basis for the transactional leadership style, problems were observed with their development. However, Bryman (1986:281) explains that the results arrived at were inconsistent. He stated that scholars had not concentrated enough on the chances that leader effectiveness can/may be temporarily contingent. In other words, leader behaviour may be effective in some contexts and not in others.

2.2.2.3 Managerial grid

The managerial grid was introduced by Blake and Mouton (1964:37). It focuses on the task and the people orientations of managers and combinations of concerns between the two extremes. This grid is concerned with production (horizontal axis) and for people (vertical axis). It represents five basic leadership styles namely: impoverished leadership, authority-obedience leadership, country-club leadership, middle-of-the-road leadership, and team leadership. The horizontal axis refers to a leader's production/task orientation, whereas the vertical axis refers to a people/ employee orientation. Furthermore, these researchers proposed that "team management" was the most effective type of leadership behaviour because it stressed both the employee and production orientations (Blake & McCause, 1991:29; Yukl, 2010:287). Figure 2.1 below depicts the Blake and Mouton (1964:37) managerial grid.

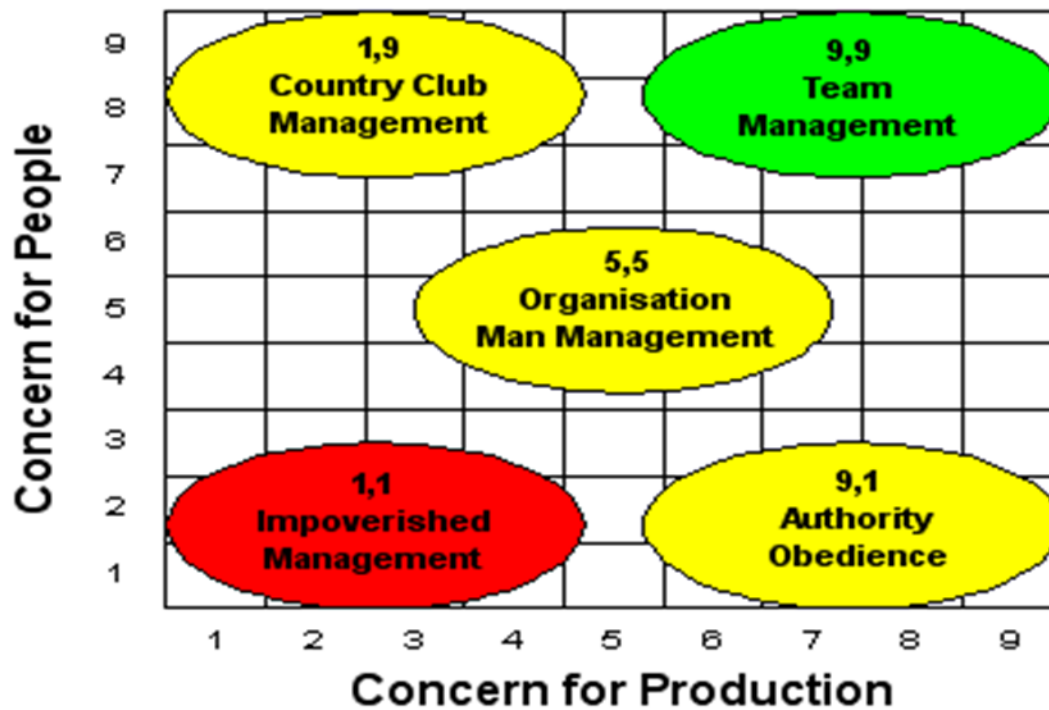


Figure 2.1: The Blake Mouton managerial grid

(Blake & Mouton, 1964: 37)

a) The impoverished leader

According to Ukeje (1992:299), the impoverished leader has little concern for both production and people. Such a leader does not involve him or herself in the organisation’s affairs, thus contributes little. He/she uses the minimum effort to get work done and does not care for followers as a result of which followers become lazy, apathetic and disengaged. Hence, effective production hardly becomes possible. Northouse (2012:68) adds to this idea, that such a leader has nothing to contribute as a leader. Hence, the expected tasks are not accomplished effectively. Usually, an impoverished leader is observed to be confused by his/her inability to lead effectively as the result of which it becomes highly probable for a conflict to appear between the ineffective leader and his/her followers.

b) The authority-obedience leader (9, 1)

Concerning authority-obedience leadership, Blake and McCause (1991:5) in their literary work have confirmed that under such leadership, the leader has a high degree of concern for production and low concern for people. He/she ensures the tasks are done through the overuse of authority by ordering subordinates. This is due to the fact that the needs of organisations do not go hand in hand with those of the employees. Srivastava, Bartol and Locke (2006:1243) point out that, as a result, followers are undermined in the attainment of the organisation’s needs for the reason that such leadership believes that production objectives can only be attained when followers are forced to accomplish the required

tasks. According to Blake and McCaule (1991:5), such leaders know what needs to be done and direct workers to achieve goals. For the purposes of efficiency working conditions are organised by these leaders so that interference from human elements are kept to the minimum.

A considerable number of researchers such as Paisey (1992:145), Goleman *et al.* (2002:76) and Northouse (2012:68) maintain that channels of communication are structured in such a way that personal matters do not infringe on work. Tasks are undergone in line with a schedule; as such motivational measures are not used to assist workers to be creative. Institutions are considered to be places of work; thus followers' personal problems are not entertained in work places. People are treated like machines. The focus is on a strict official interaction and close supervision of workers in a situation where a leader's concentration is on how to maximise production (Ukeje, 1992: 299; Gronn, 2000:321).

c) The country-club leader (1, 9)

Blake and McCaule (1991:78) portray such a leader as a person who has a high concern for people, but a low concern for production. In the view of these researchers, such leaders do what is possible in order to maintain a wholesome atmosphere for employees, but show little concern for production. A leader that uses this style believes that employees may become productive if they are made to be joyful. Thus, he/she is less concerned in a direct way with results. In the meantime, he/she tries hard to keep up agreeable relationships with workers. Hence, he/she tries to avoid ways of getting into conflict with the followers. Therefore, there is a high probability of positive interaction between the leader and his/ her followers and conflicts are usually overlooked. Accordingly, Blake and McCaule (1991:78) have observed that under such leadership, the leader neither evaluates workers' performance nor addresses issues such as late comers and absentees.

d) The middle-of-the-road leader (5, 5)

Hoy and Miskel (1991:401) confirm that a balanced medium level of concern for both production and people may result in adequate organisational performance. Such leaders believe that too much emphasis on production promotes conflict and, as such, should be avoided as a result of which the leader becomes contented with what takes place concerning the success or failure of the organisation (Blake & McCaule, 1991:152-153; Bryman, 1986:76).

e) The team leader (9, 9)

For Blake and McCaule (1991:209), such a leader shows a high concern for both production and people. Followers of such a leader are influenced by the leader's thinking, feelings and actions. As

opposed to the other leadership perspectives, the 9, 9 leadership style indicates the absence of conflict between the needs of both the organisation and its followers. Therefore, followers are involved in determining the methods of work and its accomplishment. Hoy and Miskel (1991:401) explain that followers understand what is to be done and how it is to be executed. This goal-oriented leadership style seeks to achieve the highest possible performance through participation and commitment.

According to team leadership, a leader believes that workers can be strongly involved and as a result enjoy what they do. Thus, such leaders work within a team approach to engender a good working climate where workers are committed to achieve organisational goals (Rost, 1991:33). Under this leadership, the leader delegates tasks to followers with full freedom to utilise their initiative to accomplish objectives. Blake and McCauley (1991:210) explain that the involvement of workers in every institutional activity creates a favourable atmosphere for them, which makes them bring their loyalty and admiration to the institution.

Finally, for Blake and McCauley (1991:234) of the five leadership styles, the 9, 9 leadership style is most likely to affect the organisational environment positively and therefore the best leadership style through which optimum results are yielded. Goleman *et al.* (2002:64) have observed that even though the country-club leadership style (1, 9) has a limited impact on performance, it also has a positive impact on the organisational environment; this is because it realises that workers are people and therefore, offers emotional support when employees experience personal difficulties. Thus, for Goleman *et al.*, the country-club leadership style builds a considerable affinity between the leader and followers in the organisation. In line with this, Paisey (1992:146) and Blake and McCauley (1991:306) stress that colleges which are found to be successful are those where leaders stress consultation, teamwork and participation. According to these authors, the focus is usually on unity. In a situation where a few employees oppose the policies and practices that were accepted by the majority of their colleagues, even such opposing staff members give their support.

Although the behavioural approach to leadership effectiveness remains popular and is well conceptualised, research reviews have indicated some limitations in comparison with the trait approach. First and foremost, the behavioural approach does not indicate generally accepted behaviours that could apply to all situations (Yukl, 2010:74). In their work, Hersey *et al.* (1996: 94) comment that no dominant leadership style appears from the above-mentioned theory of leadership. Instead, various combinations are done, and on-going research efforts are being conducted to identify the best leadership style (Hersey *et al.*, 1996:97). Secondly, broadly conceptualised categories of behaviour like individual consideration and initiating structure can hide subtle differences in behaviours that are important for leadership effectiveness (Bryman, 1992:294; McCleskey, 2013:39).

2.2.2.4 Theory X and theory Y managers

McGregor (1960:79) has developed theory X and theory Y. The theory X approach assumes that people are lazy, dislike work; hence, they must be coerced, led and directed. While Theory X aligns with scientific management, theory Y, in contrast, is built on the assumptions that people are satisfied with their work and try to provide the best performance for their leader when they are allowed to work to reach their goals (Yukl, Gordon & Taber, 2002:18; Kearney & Gebert, 2009:81). This is indeed true in the educational system of the Ethiopian Orthodox *Tewahido* Church with a relatively perfect culture and well-built religious principles where the teacher/*Yenneta* loves teaching. Such a *Yenneta* loves the school, and hence does not need directions, and functions in a completely autonomous way (Teshome, 1979:16; Messay, 2006:8).

Accordingly, in institutions like these, control and punishment are not necessary to ensure good performance by *Yenneta*. Teachers are hard-working, innovative, and highly concerned about their responsibilities. However, with regard to young teachers in modern schools, the situation might be different. Bennis (1995:377-378) and Tekeste (2006:12) assert that some of them do care for the profession, whilst some may have joined the teaching profession by accident or as a last resort and others use it as a bridge before moving on to another profession and for this reason, deans are forced to use an autocratic leadership style (Evans, 2001:305).

Theory Y, which is very similar to Maslow's theory, asserts that people look for intrinsic motivation and fulfilment of their human abilities towards self-realisation. It is also similar to the human relations school of thought. Its third similarity is to that of a democratic style of leadership (Bono & Ilies, 2006:324).

McGregor developed Theory Y because people's behaviour in modern organisations matches the set of assumptions held by the organisations. Its main principle is that work is natural and a commitment to objectives is rewarded. People will therefore accept and seek responsibility under the right circumstances, and can be self-directed and creative if they are properly motivated (Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa & Li, 2005:211).

Both the behavioural approach to leadership (Northouse, 2012: 172) and FRL (Bass, 1985:18; Burns, 1978:4) can be arranged in terms of behavioural dimensions of leadership. These theories of leadership overlap conceptually because they promote an understanding of leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, transactional leadership behaviours, namely contingent reward and management-by-exception-active (MBEA) represent task-oriented behaviours. Initiating structure also describes various behaviours related to task accomplishment.

Relative to initiating structure and transactional leadership, individual consideration behaviour describes more relational-oriented behaviours. Leaders give high consideration to respect for individuals and group members. Furthermore, such leaders are friendly and approachable and treat all group members as equals (Bass, 1990:17). Similarly, relational-oriented behaviours are described to be empowering, participatory and democratic (Gundersen, Hellesoy & Raeder, 2012:41; Gregory, Moates & Gregory, 2011:813; Charbonneau, 2004:569). In relational-oriented behaviour, the leader builds respect and encourages followers, and focuses on group interests. Some aspects of transformational leader behaviours (for example, individualised consideration) also focus on relational orientation which is a point the researcher revisits later in this study. Broadly speaking, transformational leadership is conceptualised as a set of behaviours designed to bring about change in organisations.

Bass (1990:21) states that many leadership behaviour taxonomies include references to passive leadership. This idea is similar to consideration and initiating structure oriented leadership behaviours. For example, being part of passive/avoidant leadership, management-by-exception-passive (MBEP) refers to leaders who only engage followers when task-related challenges emerge. As such, in the absence of a problem, the leader does not engage actively. A common dimension of such leader behaviours is the absence of leadership (Avolio & Yammarino, 2002:386).

From the beginning of the earlier periods of studies of leadership, scholars have always been cognisant that leadership does not exist in an empty space. Different contextual factors such as environment, organisation and structure are necessary considerations if and when we are in need of gaining a deeper understanding of leadership (House & Aditya, 1997:363). The contingency approach to leadership tries to find the appropriate style of leadership on the basis of the context of situations. The next section deals with the contingency theory.

2.2.3 Contingency approach

This approach emerged as a reaction to the limitations of the behavioural approach. It gives priority to situational factors. According to Dunklee (2001:4), this approach is a productive approach which includes six important theoretical viewpoints: Tannenbaum and Schmidt's leadership continuum, Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership, the path-goal theory of leader effectiveness, Hersey and Blanchard's life cycle theory, the cognitive resource theory and the decision process theory. A review of these theories of contingency leadership is presented briefly in the subsequent sub-sections.

2.2.3.1 Tannenbaum and Schmidt's leadership continuum

One of the major criticisms of early work on leadership styles is that it focused on the traits and behaviour of the leader. The autocratic (task-oriented) and democratic (relationship-oriented) styles are described as two opposite extremes. However, it is believed that most leaders in business organisations display behaviour somewhere between the two. Contingency theorists Tannenbaum and Schmidt suggest that leadership behaviour is spread along a continuum (see Figure 2:2) from the autocratic extreme to the democratic extreme, and that the amount of follower participation in taking decisions increases towards the democratic extreme (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988:117-118). Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973:167) add that the type of leadership represented by the democratic extreme of the continuum will seldom be found in formal organisations.

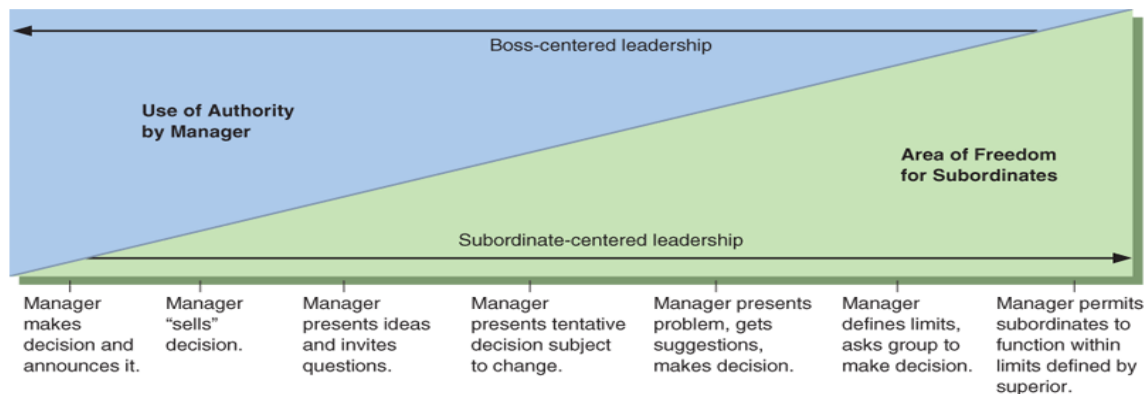


Figure 2.1: Tannenbaum and Schmidt's leadership continuum (1973)

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973:178) convert the seven conventional labels of leader behaviour into a continuum. It ranges from high leader authority on the left side of the continuum to high follower freedom at the right end (Figure 2:2). The continuum which was presented in 1958 appeared in its reviewed model in 1973 (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958:98). In addition, they placed two circles around the model. These circles were aimed at representing the influences on leadership style imposed by the organisational as well as the social environments.

For Hersey and Blanchard (1988:117), one of the problems of the continuum is that it supports one-dimensional thinking. An autocratic leader is presented as highly interested in task fulfilment but not very much concerned with people. Furthermore, if one type of leadership behaviour is seen to increase, the other is necessarily taken to decrease. Similarly, Davis (1975:112) criticises the continuum approach because a manager who becomes more follower orientated does not thereby automatically become task-oriented. In terms of this theory, four leadership styles can be located at points along this continuum:

Autocratic: This leadership style is also known as a telling style. In terms of this leadership style, the leader makes and announces the decisions to the subordinates that have to accomplish them without any questions (Smith, Vogelgesang & Avey, 2009:23).

Persuasive: This type of leadership is also known as a selling style. Here, the leader makes all the decisions for the group without the participation of the group concerned. Such a leader believes that people will be better activated if they are convinced by the leader that the decisions are good ones. Such leaders also expend a great deal of energy to create enthusiasm for their goals for the group (Dale & Fox, 2008:113).

Consultative: In terms of the consulting style, the leader consults with the group members before finalising decisions. He/she takes their advice/ feelings into consideration before or when framing decisions. However, this does not mean that such a leader always accepts the advice of the subordinates. In terms of this leadership style, decision-making and full responsibility lay on the leader. On the other hand, the degree of involvement by subordinates in decision-taking is extremely high in comparison with that of the telling and selling leadership styles (Dunklee, 2000:8).

Democratic: this type of leadership is also known as a joining style. In terms of this style of leadership, the leader would characteristically raise the problem with subordinates so that they can discuss it thoroughly. Here, the leader's role is to act as chairperson rather than that of the maker of the decisions. Such a leader allows group discussion in order for decisions to emerge from that. It is not the result of imposition by a leader on subordinates (Dubrin, 2007:109).

In brief, according to Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973:178), two related explanations namely, the boss-centred versus the employee-centred approach and the autocratic-participative-free-rein continuum of the leadership styles are examined (Yukl, 2010:54). Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973:178) suggest that leaders should choose a leadership style from different leadership styles from a continuum of boss-centred versus employee-centred styles. Mostly, they favour the employee-centred style. They suggest that a leader has to consider three sets of forces when selecting a leadership style. These sets of forces are: those in the manager, those in the subordinates and those in the situation (Mullins, 2005: 253). The leader needs to consider the stated forces before choosing the most appropriate style (Mills & Friesen, 2001:61). These forces are now examined in more detail:

a. Forces in the manager

How a manager leads, will be influenced by the leader's educational background, values, experience, and knowledge about his/her subordinates (Dale & Fox, 2008:113).

b. Forces in the subordinates

Characteristics of followers should also be considered before leaders can choose an appropriate style of leadership. A leader can make provision for more participation and freedom when followers want independence and choice, responsibility for taking decisions, identify with the organisational goals and want to become knowledgeable and experienced. However, leaders may need to adopt a more authoritarian style initially when these conditions are not present (Smith, Vogelgesang & Avey, 2009:31).

c. Forces in the situation

The choices of leadership style need to address situational forces such as the preferred style of the organisation, work-group size and cohesiveness, nature of group tasks, time pressure, and even environmental factors since all of these affect the attitudes and authority of organisation members (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973:179).

2.2.3.2 Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership

In this theory, Fiedler (1967:18) asserted that situational factors go hand in hand with leadership traits and behaviour. This theory went through several revisions through the years. In connection with this, Bryman (1996:314) in his work stated that the least preferred co-worker (LPC) scale is preferred to measure leadership behaviour.

In connection with the opinion mentioned above, Veldsman (2002:34) asserts that the LPC scale should include pairs of adjectives separated by an eight-point scale. The respondents were asked to indicate the persons with whom they least enjoyed working in the present or past and then describe the leadership of such persons in term of the objective of the organisation as well as their self-interest. The reply of each respondent was given a score from 1 to 8 (from the most negative to the most positive). According to Fiedler, higher LPC scores means that leaders are relationship oriented while lower LPC scores mean the leaders are task-oriented.

Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (2006:372) have classified the contingency theory of leadership into three dimensions of situational favourableness, namely leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. They stated that if leaders can build positive interactions based on trust and respect, such leaders in addition to gaining support from their followers also acquire more power than before.

Furthermore, Mullins (2005: 253) has confirmed that if such leaders are assigned in an environment where tasks are clearly defined and structured, they are able to exert more influence.

Bryman (1996:279) finally concludes that if leaders could either reward or punish their subordinates, they would be more influential. In connection with Fiedler's research, Yukl (2010:59) suggests that it is hardly possible to bring about change to a leader's personality; it is better to give preference to changing the working environment favourable for him/her. The perceptions of followers which enables them to realise whether or not their leader is competent for his/her work and is also able to reward, is believed to have an influence on the effectiveness of their leader.

2.2.3.3 Path-goal theory of leader effectiveness

House (1996:326) has explained that the term path-goal has come from expectancy theory. The expectancy theory indicates that an employee's motivation to carry out a given task is the function of expectancies, instrumentalities and valences. At the very beginning, he used the Ohio State theory (Hemphill & Coons, 1950:24) for initiating structure and consideration, later on, he gave the names instrumental and supportive for his theory. Blunt points out that the leader may display the following types of behaviour, namely directive (telling followers what to do), supportive (being friendly to followers), participative (seeking followers' suggestions), and achievement oriented (setting challenging goals) (Zhang, Tsui & Wang, 2011:854).

In general, the path-goal theory proposes that effective leaders clarify the paths to attain goals and assist followers to overcome problems whereby followers' satisfaction and productivity increase (House, 1996:325). The path-goal theory thus tries to clarify the impact of leadership behaviour on subordinates' effectiveness, job satisfaction and extra effort.

2.2.3.4 Hersey and Blanchard's life cycle theory

The life cycle theory of leadership was evolved by Hersey and Blanchard (1982:169). In their theory, they propose four leadership styles, namely: telling, selling, participating and delegating. On the basis of certain conditions, these leadership styles are defined properly by subordinates' maturity levels. These researchers have used the analogy of the parent-child relationship in which the parents relinquish directing and controlling the child's activity step-by-step as he/she grows and matures. In addition, based on the Ohio State theory (initiating structure and consideration), they formulated a theory that postulates that the most important factor in determining a leader's behaviour is the maturity of followers to do relevant tasks (Owens, 1991:155).

According to Greenleaf, Robert, Beazley, Hamilton, Beggs, Julie, Spears and Larry (2003:374), there are two dimensions within task-relevant maturity: these are the ability/maturity to perform the job and psychological maturity, which refers to the level of self-esteem and confidence of an individual. They also express the belief that the leader's style will be effective only if it is appropriate in terms of the maturity level of the subordinates. For example, a new employee may need detailed task directions (telling) from a leader. Then in course of time, he/she becomes experienced. The employee will then still need task direction side-by-side with his/her needs to increase the job maturity level. In time, the employee requires less leader task behaviour while the leader continues the relationship behaviour, and finally the follower needs little task or relationship behaviour from the leader as his/her level of maturity reaches its pinnacle as a result of which the leader makes him/her free to operate by his/her own (delegating). This theory was accepted for its noticeable face validity although there is little empirical research to verify it (House & Aditya, 1997:169).

Similarly, transformational leadership leads to performance beyond expectation inducing additional effort by increasing follower confidence and elevating the value of outcomes for followers (Bass, 1985: 22; Shondrick & Lord, 2010:13).

2.2.3.5 Cognitive resource theory (CRT)

Although Fiedler (1996: 243) continued to work on his CRT of leadership, he was criticised and attacked for his LPC scale. Fiedler together with Garcia (House & Aditya, 1997:409) developed the CRT of leadership by using the individual variables of intelligence and experience of leaders, and the variable of stress. In their study, they found out that intelligence is positively related to performance under low stress, and experience is negatively related to performance. The opposite holds true under high stress. This led them to conclude that intelligence and experience affect one another. In order to achieve effective leadership, Fiedler (1996:241) and Langton and Robbins (2007:387) recommend that organisations select individuals with the best possible intelligence, experience and knowledge. Such organisations should make an effort to enable these selected persons to work under conditions that allow them to make use of their cognitive abilities.

2.2.3.6 Decision process theory

This theory was developed by Vroom and Yetton (1973:69) and then was extended by Vroom and Jago (1988:37). Lussier and Achua (2001:184) have furthered the study stating that five decision-making techniques are appropriate to group decision processes. The first two of the five techniques are authoritarian (AI – the leader offers solutions to problems and AII – the leader becomes able to make decisions based on the information he/she gets from followers); the second two of the five

techniques are consultative (CI – the leader before making a decision tries to get pieces of advice from each follower, and CII – group consultation contributes much for the leader to make a decision); and the third one is group process (GI – the leader makes no decision by himself/herself, but together with the group).

Furthermore, Vroom and Yetton (1973:68) have developed a decision tree approach to be able to decide which kind of decision making process is applicable in a given situation. They base their decision tree approach on sequentially put factors regarding a problem to be resolved. These factors are as follows: problem structure and acceptance by followers, goals of followers, conflict among followers, quality requirements and sufficient information.

Walker and McPhail (2009: 335) are of the opinion that leaders do not always show the same leadership style. They say that most leaders exhibit different styles, like directive or participative, task-oriented or relations-oriented, transformational or transactional styles respectively. They add that different situations may require different styles. Blank, Weitzel and Green (1990:586) state that contingency leadership is concerned mainly with the maturity of followers as a moderator of two leader behaviours, namely relationship and effectiveness.

2.2.4 New leadership approach

The approaches discussed previously provide insight into an understanding of leadership and leadership effectiveness up to a certain extent (Hoy & Miskel, 2001: 46; Bass & Riggio, 2006:116). Nevertheless, they do not give a credible meaning to leadership and its effectiveness. In them leadership effectiveness relates to a leader's actions or ability to act right within the situation. Therefore, since the 1970s, many alternative theoretical frameworks for the study of leadership have been advanced.

New approaches to the study of leadership from the 1980s to the present are incorporated into the new leadership approach (Bryman, 1996:278; Heifetz & Linsky, 2002:71). This category of new leadership approach includes in it: leader-member exchange theory - LMX (Liden & Mitchell, 1988), servant leadership theory (Autry, 2001), charismatic leadership theory (House, 1977), full range leadership theory (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985), emotional intelligence theory (Goleman, 1995). The new leadership theories attempt to explain how leaders could accomplish brilliant results in organisations (House & Aditya, 1997:94). The FRL theory in particular will be discussed in more detail in order to provide a specific leadership theoretical framework for this study.

2.2.4.1 Leader-member exchange (LMX)

Matrangelo, Eddy and Lorenzet (2004:439) state that LMX theory focuses on the value of intimate relationships between leaders and followers. They add that this intimate relationship is the distinguishing feature of this theory. Besides, the researchers of this theory have looked into the characteristics of leaders and followers as well as their interactions. The scholarly written works of this theory indicate that the existence of positive relationships between leaders and followers may/can have many positive outcomes for organisational performance. Studies have again revealed that there is a positive and significant correlation between intimate relationship and effectiveness (House & Aditya, 1997:49). Furthermore, research reports that this theory is negatively related to staff attrition and attrition intentions (Yukl, 2010:217).

In their explanation of how LMX theory works, Liden and Mitchell (1988:581) have stated that it entails a number of questioning steps between leaders and followers in which the parties check one another's response with regard to seeing whether or not an intimate relationship can be formed. They continue that if the response reaction changes, the behaviour is positive and the initiating party is satisfied with the response, then individuals can continue to influence each other's behaviour. On the other hand, they say that if there is either no response or if the response is a negative one, then it becomes highly probable for the relationship between the two to be low (Hughes *et al.*, 2006:26).

Furthermore, Uhl-Bien, Marion and McKelvey (2007:299) state that the LMX theory describes the process of role-making contrary to role-taking. In role-making, the partners produce relationships based on trust, respect and responsibility to perform better than the requirements of the job. In contrast, role-taking is the fulfilment of the work contract without involving extra effort.

Burns (1978: 12) examined the literature on traits, contextual forces and the LMX theory and then introduced the transformational and transactional approach to leadership. Transformational leadership explains the obvious relationship that exists between the leaders and followers. On the other hand, transactional leadership concentrates on rewarding workers (Barnes, Christensen & Stillman, 2013:1567).

2.2.4.2 Servant leadership

Buchanan (2007:35) espouses the view that a servant leader should serve first. In addition, Greenleaf (1997:27) states that the underlying basis of servant leadership is serving others first, which helps and enables the servant leader to judge the maturity of subordinates. In contrast with transformational leaders, servant leaders do not seek power, fame and self-interest. Servant leadership affects employees and the community in a positive manner when pursuing long-term

profits. Therefore, a servant leader focuses on the accomplishment of work and its final success. All the descriptions given above clearly indicate the virtues of servant leadership.

Critics strongly believe that efficiency can hardly be promoted by servant leadership. They forward the idea that non-profit making organisations (for example, education and health) are the best examples where servant leadership is put into effect. Besides, Covey (2006:5) in his study of servant leadership has asserted that this leadership is too emotional. He confirms his assertion by stating that this leadership is opposed to the required model of assertiveness in profit making organisations.

However, because there are situations in which it may not apply, servant leadership must not be seen as the only solution. As the question of genuineness is relevant, leaders must support personal values and the servant attitude (Joseph & Winston, 2005:8). In addition, Joseph and Winston (2003: 8) feel that the servant leader must have trustworthy followers. He/she has to try to take corrective action to ensure trustworthiness. Similarly, Russell, Robert, Stone and Gregory (2002:146) assert that ordinary people can become servant leaders. For these researchers, one of the positive aspects of servant leadership is that it is not necessary for a person to possess extraordinary charisma to become a servant leader.

A leader's ability to show visible appreciation, consideration and care for followers is regarded as a valuable attribute of servant leaders (Hur, Van den Berg & Wilderom, 2011:593). According to Greenleaf (1997:27), the servant leadership style is thought to value integrity and competence to foster interpersonal trust. In addition to this, Smith *et al.* (2009:48) describe servant leadership as focused on individual growth and development as important goals.

2.2.4.3 Charismatic leadership

The original dogmatic meaning of the word "charisma" was stated first in Weber's theory in the 19th century. His meaning of the term "charisma" was also confirmed by the work of Conger and Kanungo (1994:441) with more emphasis on vision and the use of innovative leader actions.

A few basic differences are observed between the leader behaviour of charismatic theory and that of the transformational leader. The first difference is their different perspectives on the concept of leadership. Transformational leadership changes followers by elevating their needs and motives. It does this to emphasise the follower outcomes. The instruments used to measure transformational leadership are those used to measure charismatic leadership and those measuring attributed charisma. It also gives recognition to the attribute components of charismatic leadership (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999:447).

The second difference is that charismatic leaders are optimistic in their vision. They are influenced by the virtue of their beliefs and as such, are willing to take personal risks. They consider themselves to be agents of radical change. Sensitivity to the needs of followers is observed in such leaders. Such leaders have the desire to exert an influence on others. They are strongly and emotionally expressive. A charismatic leader makes an effort to communicate his/her vision in connection with the outcome of followers' efforts. This motivates followers and creates enthusiasm as well as excitement and commitment to group objectives. The leader inspires trust and confidence, acceptance and obedience as a result of which followers become emotionally involved. Such a leader is considered by his/her followers to be an ideal one (Klein & House, 1995:189; Campbell, Ward, Sonnenfeld & Agle, 2008:562; Bligh & Schyns, 2007:360). Charismatic leaders are considered to have an extraordinary gift and are assumed to play the role of a rescuer in a time of crisis.

In terms of the FRL theory, charisma and inspirational motivation are regarded as distinct and essential components of transformational leadership styles (Carless, Wearing & Mann, 2000: 389). Transformational leaders possess the components of charismatic leadership, and this quality forces followers to consider them as honest, competent and worthy of respect. This again helps such a leader encourage subordinates to achieve higher levels of motivation and performance, which results in followers making a vigorous effort towards reaching organisational goals.

Thus far the models and theories that preceded the FRL historically have been discussed in this chapter indicating the strengths and weaknesses and the contribution of the theories leading up to the FRL model. Thereby the researcher's choice of the FRL model for the empirical research is contextualised. The researcher mostly used the ideas of other researchers to provide perspective on the relevance, strengths and weaknesses of the various theories and models discussed thus far. The next discussion deals with FRL that is used in the empirical research of this study. The more extensive exposition of the FRL model will make clear why the researcher prefers to use this model for the empirical research.

2.2.4.4 Full range leadership

Leadership has been defined by many authors such as Hogan (1994:15), Hinkin and Schriesheim (2009:507) and Zhu, Avolio and Walumbwa (2009:598). Morris (2014:1) defines leaders as people who are capable of convincing other people to set aside their individual concerns for a period and pursue a common goal which is important for the responsibilities and the welfare of the group. In addition to this, Canella and Monroe (1997:232) point out that many theories have been developed over the years that show what kinds of leaders were considered to be successful. Some have already been discussed in this chapter. A major shift in the research under discussion was carried out by the

political historian James Burns (Chemers, 2000:31). Burns (1978:20) has distinguished between transactional and transformational leaders. He argues that transactional leadership relationships between leaders and followers should be based on mutually beneficial transactions. On the other hand, followers were encouraged to rise above their personal interests by transformational leaders' relationships and were then able to transform themselves as agents of collective change. Avolio and Bass (2004:13) note that the FRL comprises leadership dimensions that are highly transformational at one end to highly avoidant at the other end. This theory consists of three types of leadership styles namely: transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire*.

Day, Zaccaro and Halpin (2004:28) state that transformational leadership is aimed at motivating others to achieve more than expected. This style of leadership expects better performance from workers. Based on Burn's theory, Bass (1985:21) has developed the theory of high-impact leadership. Therefore, transformational leadership concentrates on motivating others for successful achievement. It is to be noted here that successful achievement is given high significance under this leadership style.

Moreover, Bass (1990:23) expresses the view that transformational leadership exist on a range with transactional leadership. Here, the range within which the two leadership styles exist represents the FRL. It was in 1991 that Avolio and Bass introduced the FRL theory (Avolio & Bass, 1991:75). For them one of the main aims of FRL is its focus on building leaders with a high moral character. The central aim of FRL is to develop oneself at an efficient level to develop others. This theory states that leaders begin to spend more time in promoting the development of others as they mature and gain moral perspective. It is this basic principle that places transformational leadership at the highest end of the continuum of the FRL. The FRL moves from the lowest end; which is characterised by *laissez-faire* or no leadership style (Judge & Bono, 2000:754).

In order to make this study relevant, the study of the full-range leadership model is extremely important for making a contribution in terms of today's leadership development (Barnes, 2013: 1569; Morris, 2014:3; Otley, 1995: 406).

Inspired by Burn's work (1978), Bass and Avolio investigated the two leadership styles, namely transformational and transactional. At the end of their investigation in 1985, they concluded that the two styles were complementary and important in organisations (Barnes, 2013:1567). Direct transformational leaders motivate, influence and consider their subordinates. On the other hand, direct transactional leaders structure and facilitate tasks clearly and provide a shorter way to achieve goals. They either reward or punish their workers on the basis of their achievements (Avolio, 2010:49). In any case, the transformational leadership style cannot be successful without the

transactional leadership style. Therefore, a good balance between the two leadership styles is very important for the success of an institution (Avolio, 2010:50). To be effective, a leader should follow both leadership styles based on contextual conditions.

Accordingly, Bennis and Nanus (1997:17) and Morris (2014:5) state that effective leadership can change organisations from present to future situations, bring visions of possible opportunities, and instil commitment in employees to bring about new cultures and strategies that direct the energy and resources of followers. Leaders who lead others successfully often possess attributes associated with transformational leadership, especially during times of change or reform (Finch, Faulkner, & Gregson, 1993:52; Van Ebron & Burke, 1992:158).

The combination of transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire* leadership styles and major leadership outcomes such as effectiveness, satisfaction and extra effort form a new leadership model (Avolio & Bass, 1995:209; Bass & Avolio, 1993:115).

In this chapter, the literature review has tried to identify wide ranges of leadership styles which correspond to specific organisational situations. Two leadership styles have been identified from all those discussed. These are the transformational and transactional leadership styles which are believed to be the most common within the context of education. The effective characteristics of each style are clearly identified (Fisher, Tack & Wheeler, 1988:4; Tucker, Bass & Daniel, 1992:18).

Bass and Riggio (2006:15) established a hierarchy of FRL that comprises *laissez-faire*, transactional and transformational leadership styles. In comparison with the transformational leadership style, the transactional leadership style is a middle-level and relatively less acceptable one. On the other hand, transformational leadership which is the highest level of leadership is considered to be the most effective style. *Laissez-faire* leadership is normally considered to be the least effective style. The FRL theory, developed by Bass and Avolio (Gill, 2010:51), assumes that every leader should try to exercise the three leadership styles (transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire*), but at different levels (Avolio, 2010:66). It is preferable for a leader to be more transformational than transactional, and to be a more transactional leader than a *laissez-faire* leader. The five I's (idealised influence, idealised behaviour, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and individual consideration) are clearly displayed in Chapter 1, Figure 1.1 of this study. The five I's are more effective than the contingent reward, but the latter is more effective than management-by-exception active. The management-by-exception active style is more effective than the management-by-exception passive style, and management-by-exception passive is more effective than the *laissez-faire* style. An additional supposition in connection with this theory suggest that the transformational leadership style in combination with the most positive form of the transactional leadership style can make an

organisation successful. It also assumes that the *laissez-faire* leadership style should be minimised to be able to arrive at good outcomes (Avolio, 2010:66; Gill, 2010:51).

The transformational leadership style has a stronger impact on followers' motivation and performance than transactional leadership, or the *laissez-faire* leadership style, according to many studies (Avolio, 2010:69). Bass and his associates were interested in measuring the FRL (Bass & Avolio, 2005:4) and to this end, the original model has been revised since 1985 to clarify and reflect the findings of the numerous studies up to 1995. (Bass & Avolio, 2005:4; Morris, 2014:3).

Bass and Avolio (1995:17) selected the MLQ (5X-short form) to measure leadership styles including the transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire* leadership styles. The MLQ (5X-short form) is the foremost instrument used to measure the FRL (Bass & Avolio, 1995:17). The researcher has chosen this instrument for its extreme comprehensiveness with regard to its validity and reliability. Besides, the MLQ (5X-short form) version adequately covers all leadership styles by taking into account transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire* leadership in conjunction with nine leadership factors (idealised attribute, idealised behaviour, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception active, management-by-exception passive and *laissez-faire*) and the three outcomes of leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction, and extra effort (Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008:11).

a. Transformational leadership

The transactional leadership style is task-oriented; while the transformational leadership style is considered to be people-oriented. The transformational leadership style is expected to bring about higher-order changes within organisations as the production of higher order changes is the nature of this leadership style (Bass & Riggio, 2006:6). One of the definitions of transformational leadership is that it motivates people (followers, colleagues, clients and supervisors) to perform better than intended, and this is said to be related to the genuineness of their leader (Avolio & Bass, 1998: 394).

The characteristics of a transformational leadership style are: firstly, it is an idealised influence and behaviour where followers have trust in the leader as the result of which they try to imitate him or her; secondly, it is inspirational by giving followers challenging tasks and an understanding of shared objectives; thirdly, it provides intellectual stimulation, and as such provides chances for intellectual growth. Lastly, it provides room for considering individuals where leaders direct others on an individual level recognising the strengths and weaknesses of each follower (Organ, Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Scott, 2006:18).

The above paragraph refers to transformational leadership personality characteristics that Van Eeden, Cilliers and Van Deventer (2008:254) associate with the transformational leader. However, Van Eeden *et al.* (2008:257) have also tried to confirm that the two leadership styles could be used in a situational manner. For example, some transactional leaders use the transformational style rarely, while on the other hand, transformational leaders use transactional techniques regularly. Consequently, categorising a specific leader to be either transactional or transformational might be based on personality features rather than specific leadership techniques.

Transformational leadership has an impact on the relationship between leaders and followers. But this above statement does not stand true in the case of the relationship between transactional leaders and their followers. Organisational dedication levels were observed to be higher in groups led by transformational leaders in comparison with dedication existing in groups led by transactional leaders (Bass & Riggio, 2006:7). The transformational leadership style wins the loyalty and admiration of followers to their leader. This loyalty of workers with regard to their leaders again develops loyalty to the organisation as a result of which the success of the organisation becomes higher.

Contingent reinforcements for the performance of workers are provided by their leader in transactional leadership. However, this does not stand true for transformational leadership; hence transformational leadership cannot replace transactional leadership. These leadership styles are complementary with regard to each other, and increase their final outcomes (effort, satisfaction and effectiveness). Although they are separate entities, transformational and transactional leadership styles should not be seen as being opposite ends of the continuum. A leader can be both transformational and transactional. The two dimensions differ in term of the kind of process by which subordinates are motivated by followers, and the goals set to be achieved. Better leaders are said to be both transformational and transactional (Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996:387; Bass, 1990: 21).

The motivation given to followers by transformational leaders inspires them to the extent of giving up their self-interest for the well-being of the group or organisation (Bass, 1997: 130). Avolio and Bass (1991:11) use the phrase “moral uplifting” as one of the effects of this leadership style. Besides, for Lowe *et al.* (1996:391), this leadership style is a mutual process resulting in better motivation and morality for the leader and his/her followers. Transformational leadership can/may use one or more of the following five components discussed below for the achievement of superior results (Bass & Avolio, 2005:4; Stone, 1991:52).

i. Idealised attribute: This component expresses the way in which a leader behaves to become a role model for his/ her followers as a result of which such a leader gains respect, admiration and trust from his/ her followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006:7). The leader's behaviour is characterised by the following variables: personal needs, risk sharing, consistency, ethical and moral conduct. Such a leader uses his/ her power only when needed. He/ she refrains from using power for his/ her personal benefit as the result of which followers' moral development and self-esteem increase. This, again, results in the increased loyalty of his/ her followers. (Bass & Avolio, 2005:4). It is to be noted at this juncture that idealised attribute is also part and parcel of charismatic leadership (Gill, 2010: 53).

ii. Idealised behaviour: This refers to leaders who concentrate on talking about values and beliefs which are of vital importance. They also pay attention to the ethical consequences of decisions (Bass & Avolio, 2004: 8). For them, strong morals and the value-driven behaviour of leaders as well as highly valued behaviours are important. For such leaders, examples of highly valued behaviours are dominance, consciousness, self-control, optimism and self-efficiency. They exhibit an inspiring vision and also take the moral consequences of their actions into account. Hence, they are role models and attempt to enthuse their teams (Gill, 2010: 53).

iii. Inspirational motivation: This refers to behaviour that motivates and inspires followers. Team spirit on the part of followers is enhanced by the stimulation of their interest and confidence. This is achieved on the part of the leader by giving meaning to the work of followers. Here the leader is observed to be committed to the shared vision and to be communicating specific goals and expectations. Emotional appeal, vivid and persuasive images and other examples are used by the leader (Bass & Riggio, 2006: 6).

iv. Intellectual stimulation: Under intellectual stimulation, innovation and creativity are encouraged and this is done through questioning of assumptions, reframing of problems and using new approaches. The organisation's opportunities, threats, strengths and weaknesses are articulated by such a leader. The involvement of followers in problem-solving is encouraged. Mistakes committed either by the leaders or followers are not criticised in public. As the result of this, followers are encouraged to recognise problems and try to identify solutions of good quality (Sarros & Santora, 2001:246; Ahanger, 2009:357).

v. Individualised consideration: The nucleus of this component is the need for achievement and the improvement of the knowledge and experience of individual members of an organisation. Here, the leader acts as a mentor and coach encouraging followers to maximise their potential. This is achieved by creating learning opportunities and a supportive environment, delegating tasks and giving other responsibilities. Here the acknowledgment and acceptance of individual differences and needs are

also observed. The personalisation of interactions between leaders and followers as well as the encouragement of communication by the leaders are included in this component. This means that moving from transactional to transformational leadership depends upon the construct of individualised consideration. It involves such means as changing followers' motives to not only consider their self-interest but also the moral and ethical consequences of their actions (Beugre, Acar & Braun, 2006:55; Kirkbride, 2006: 25).

Bass and Riggio (2006:11) contend that transformational leadership is a more superior style of leadership than transactional leadership because it could produce organisational growth and innovation in the long term; it could reduce organisational stress; and it could improve the commitment of the leaders to the organisation. Some evidence has indicated that successful as well as insightful choices pertaining to a transactional or transformational leadership style is needed for successful organisational development. The two leadership styles represent specific features that can be used effectively in specific situations.

b. Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership is a process of social exchange where the leaders clearly state what followers should do. Here, tasks should be completed successfully either to receive reward or avoid punishment. Successful accomplishment of a given task by workers satisfies the leaders' needs (Van Eeden *et al.*, 2008:255). This indicates two key variables. First, transactional leadership is an exchange process. Secondly, workers exert themselves either to receive rewards or avoid punishment.

The definition given above for this style of leadership matches with that of task orientation (Blake & McCause, 1991:29). Transactional leadership is frequently positioned as a less efficient one than transformational leadership although each one is complementary to the other (Northouse, 2012:11).

Furthermore, a transactional leadership style is a directive leadership style where leaders indicate the rules to be applied by their subordinates (Gill, 2010:51; Hytter, 2014:4). Such leaders do not use any form of consultative/ participative/ delegative leadership. Consequently, the transactional leadership style is often seen as poor and dictatorial leadership (Gill, 2010:51). However, according to Avolio (2010: 49), transformational leaders will not succeed without using a form of transactional leadership as expectations and goals need to be set and performance needs to be controlled. Besides, the goal of structuring for the achievement of tasks must be realised (Bass & Avolio, 2005:12). The two transactional factors are contingent reward and management-by-exception active. These are discussed in detail next.

i. The contingent reward

In their work, Van Eeden *et al.* (2008:256) articulate that one of the core types of transactional leadership is the contingent reward in which workers are immediately rewarded for successfully accomplishing specific tasks given to them. To give an example of this in an industrial setting, a worker's annual raise or quarterly bonus may depend on production rate. This creates a direct correlation between performance by workers and the expected reward. In a school setting, this may be characterised by rewarding better academic achievement.

Contingent reward is linked with the expectancy theory of motivation. Both share the existence of conditions that allow individuals to make conscious preferences (Vroom, 1964:70; Schuler, 1975:684; Sims & Szilagyi, 1975:195). To be clearer, contingent reward states that if employees recognise the existence of a correlation between task performance, and rewards sufficient to satisfy the desired need of employees, employees will then be motivated to fulfil the demands of the leader (Vroom, 1964:72; Lawler, 1998:9). Valence (a sufficient reward is offered to motivate followers), expectancy (employees believe that they can do what is required) and instrumentality (followers expect that managers will provide the promised reward if they deliver) are part and parcel of the beliefs of this component (Vroom, 1964:7; Bass, 1990:48; Burns, 1978:18 ; Sims & Manz, 1996:63). The elements mentioned above are essential for employees to ensure the success of contingent rewards. In the absence of these, employees may not be motivated to finish tasks in spite of rewards promised to them.

To sum up, the contingent reward is a basic element of transactional leadership behaviour (Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008:8). Here, the leader promises to deliver rewards when the follower reaches predefined goals.

ii. Management-by-exception active (MBEA)

This component of the transactional leadership style leads to checking for the prevention of final mistakes and deviations, and that rules and procedures are reinforced. It is often considered to be more managerial in nature rather than a leadership style for the reason that it is believed to produce changes in the organisation's processes. However, it is doubtful whether or not it brings about lasting or permanent changes in the members of an organisation (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008:162).

Van Eeden *et al.* (2008:255) state that the characteristics of management-by-exception active help identify which leaders work hard to rid an organisation of failures. These characteristics are a degree of task orientation, and the need for structure that requires directives. Such leadership is indicated to focus on the accomplishment of work followed by its successful result. It also indicates how such

leaders are extremely strict on how rules and regulations are put into effect to reach the expected achievement (Avolio, 2010: 49).

For Bass and Riggio (2006:9), a transactional leadership style is considered to be an appropriate style with specific guidelines. However, they do not mean to say that it is the only leadership style to be used within an educational setting. It better contributes in situations where the roads to success that already exist are either identified by MBEA or when the organisation is in need of urgent and direct guidance. In corrective transactional leadership the leader actively searches for when norms and standards are not met and takes action (Bass & Riggio, 2006:7; Williams, 2001:165). Accordingly, the leader monitors performance of employees and acts on deviations before they can evolve into more serious problems.

c. The passive/avoidant leadership style

Bass and Avolio (2005:6) discuss passive/avoidant leadership as another way of management-by-exception. This form of leadership is reactive, and does not respond to situations in a systematic way. Such leaders do not clarify goals, standards and expectations. Similar to *laissez-faire* leadership, outcomes cannot be met and impact on followers is negative. According to Avolio (2010:65), the least effective approach to leadership, is the passive mode of leadership style. It is divided into two factors:

i. Management-by-exception passive

In this component the leader waits for problems to surface and become serious before reacting and taking action. They stick to the idea “If it ain’t broke, don’t fix it” (Avolio, 2010:64; Gill, 2010:51). These leaders rather wait and intervene only when unavoidable, such as when problems occur (Avolio & Bass, 1998:396).

ii. *Laissez-faire* leadership

This is also referred to as passive leadership in contrast to active leadership. It implies an absence of leadership. The *laissez-faire* leader does not set clear goals nor does he/she participate in decision-making; instead he/she makes followers responsible for the work. In addition, he/she makes no attempt to influence followers and even does not provide support for them. *Laissez-faire* leadership is different from democratic and participating styles as democratic and participating leadership styles allow autonomy, delegation and intervention when standards are not met (Bass & Avolio, 1993:121; Hamidifar, 2010:47).

It is hardly possible to say that this leadership style is effective. In terms of this leadership style, the reaction of followers may include conflict where the leader may not be seen as credible, and

therefore followers take the role of leader in the place of their leader. Accordingly, a less active leadership style might result in follower empowerment. It is only on the basis of the characteristics of the organisational tasks and its followers that highly active leadership might be necessary (Murugan, 2005:335; Yurk, 2010:264).

Antonakis and Atwater (2002:683) point out the following:

Laissez-faire leadership is of a passive nature. It is hardly possible to say that there is a clearly observable relationship between the leader and the followers. It is a non-transactional kind of leadership style in terms of which firm decisions are not made, actions are delayed, leadership responsibilities are ignored, and authority is unused. A leader that exhibits this form of non-leadership is perceived as someone that shows no concern at all about others' issues.

Transactional and transformational leaders are regarded as active leaders while *laissez-faire* leaders are hands-off and extremely passive. (Bass, 1985:25; Bass & Avolio, 1994:10; Bass & Avolio, 2000:23; Hater & Bass, 1988:698).

In their earlier study of *laissez-faire* leadership, Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939:275) discovered that this type of leadership results in lower productivity, and dissatisfaction among employees compared with transformational and transactional leadership styles. Paradoxically, even though the subordinates appear to want the autonomy associated with *laissez-faire* leadership, more recent research has shown that subordinates also expressed dissatisfaction with this leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 2000:24).

d. Outcomes of leadership

For William and Hazer (1986:227), efficient leadership styles and follower job satisfaction are among the factors that are regarded as key to organisational success. A good leader gives direction to an organisation as a result of which followers become able to achieve the goals of their organisation. Employees that are satisfied with the goals achieved in their jobs are more likely to exert an additional effort in their tasks for the attainment of their organisational interests. When organisations create job satisfaction for their employees they are believed to be more capable of attracting, obtaining and retaining the skilled employees it requires (Yarmohammadian, 2006:17).

According to studies carried out by Lok and Crawford (2001:372), Mosadegh Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006:159) and Vroom (1964:15), leadership significantly impacts job satisfaction and organisational commitment. High job satisfaction enhances the psychological and

physical well-being of employees motivating employees to strengthen their performance further (Vroom, 1964:15; Porac, Ferris & Fedor, 1983:289). For Yarmohammadian (2006:18), "... employee job satisfaction means the attitudes of employees towards their jobs and the organisation which employs them." This researcher has also indicated that job satisfaction may be influenced by such factors as pay, autonomy, security, and flexibility in the workplace. Leaders need to adopt appropriate leadership styles in the workplace to promote employee job satisfaction, commitment and productivity.

The concepts of 'teacher job satisfaction' and 'teacher motivation' are associated with each other in the literature, which are believed to have caused some confusion. According to Dinham & Scott (1997:363) motivation refers to the stimulus for behaviour in a particular context whereas satisfaction indicates the result of behaviour within a particular context.

The particular interest of this study in relation to job satisfaction is to indicate the influence that leadership styles exert on teachers' and students' perceptions of satisfaction. Bass and Avolio (1997:13) argue:

Transformational leadership can produce extraordinary outcomes in terms of increased commitment to achieving group or organisational goals. This is done through raising follower awareness to the importance of achieving group goals, transcending self-interests for the sake of the team and developing followers' needs to higher levels in areas such as achievement.

Accordingly, the descriptions of transformational and transactional leadership factors and indicators are aimed at increasing the achievement of the subordinates. Bass and Avolio (1997:3) assert that the outcome of leadership and the leader's success are related to followers' perceptions of the leader. Bass and Avolio (1997:3) state:

... this perception is determined by: (1) how often the followers perceive their leader as elevating them to higher levels of extra effort, (2) how the followers perceive their leader as being effective, and (3) how satisfied the followers are with the way their leader works with others.

In short, these indicators, namely "extra effort, effectiveness and job satisfaction" are associated with the outcomes of the FRL (Bass & Avolio, 1995:37). These indicators are discussed in detail below.

i. Extra effort

The role of leadership has been investigated in various studies. Bradford and Lippitt (1945:147)

assert that:

Laissez-faire leaders are identified by their demonstration of frustrating and less effective leadership style in different situations. The lack of direct interaction between leaders and followers has demonstrated a negative correlation in contrast with an extra effort among employees.

On the other hand, according to Bass (1985:4), the transactional leadership style with its composite behaviours of contingent rewards and management-by-exception active, achieves greater results using management-by-exception active whereby employees are rewarded or punished on the basis of their actions. He continues:

Leaders who utilise management-by-exception passive do not interfere with subordinates' working activities unless mistakes or deviations are observed. In such cases, the leader establishes predetermined consequences and corrective action for specific failures and enforces punishment when required. More passive leaders may wait for failures to be notified; on the other hand, more active leaders look for failures and create systems to solve such failures (Bass, 1990:732).

In addition, Bass and Avolio (2000:23) confirm that the practice of providing negative feedback mostly results in affecting the efforts of employees who try either to preserve the *status quo* or want to do specific tasks with perfection. However, such leadership behaviour cannot achieve that followers attain personal growth or become more motivated or loyal.

Transactional leaders and followers are often engaged in trying to meet certain expectations, and performing actions or behaviours in order to gain the desired reward (Howell & Avolio, 1993:697). Bass (1990:26) provided historical illustrations to describe this reinforcement strategy that has been practised for a number of centuries. Most of the research on leadership has indicated a positive correlation between contingent rewards and organisational outcomes (Howell & Avolio, 1993:698; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996:395).

Katz and Kahn (1978:4) note that effectiveness among transformational leaders is measured by the effect of leaders' behaviour on followers. Transformational leaders verbalise feelings of admiration, respect, trust and gratitude towards their subordinates as a result of which such subordinates become motivated to put in an extra effort (Bass, 1985:8). Moreover, such leaders are able to increase the motivation to put in an extra effort by their followers. This is because they can/may motivate followers to higher levels of personal expectations and commitment (Yammarino & Bass, 1990:152). Similarly, Klein and House (1995:188) add:

Followers identify strongly with their transformational leaders; so, it is highly probable for them to become willing to put in extra effort for the sake of such leaders. Several studies have documented a high positive correlation between transformational leadership and perceived effectiveness of leaders and completed work units and extra effort from followers. The impact of transformational leadership on follower effort and performance will be enhanced if followers hold personal values that are compatible with their leaders' values.

A leader's vision becomes more powerful particularly when it is aligned to followers' personal values (Shamir, 1995:25). Transformational leadership, besides worker achievement, also has an indirect effect on achievement through value alignment between leader and subordinate (Jung & Avolio, 2000:959).

ii. Effectiveness

Most researchers define leadership effectiveness in terms of the impact of the leader actions on followers and stakeholders of the organisation (Yukl, 2010:154). Likewise, Klein and House (1995:189) declare:

The perceived effectiveness of the leader is beneficial for both the follower and the leader. The followers' benefits include feeling greater job satisfaction, having a higher level of commitment to the organisation, being better prepared to meet challenges, and greater overall psychological well-being when they perceive the leader as effective. Likewise, the leader's benefits include retention of a higher status within the group and more opportunities for advancement within the group. The group or organisation is more likely to perform well and achieve its goals when followers perceive their leaders as effective.

Leadership effectiveness is crucial for success in any organisation and is dependent on the outcomes of the leaders' activities for followers and the organisation (Yukl, 2010:61). Leadership effectiveness is assessed by the extent to which the organisation performs its task and then achieves its goals (Erkutlu, 2008:716). Leadership effectiveness is impacted strongly by appropriate leadership style (Hur *et al.*, 2011:598; Hogg, Martin, Epitropaki, Mankad, Svensson & Weeden, 2005:998; Bruno & Lay, 2006:119) and good relationships with their followers which enhance followers' well-being and their performance. Good relationships may also bind workers closely to the group through loyalty, gratitude and a feeling of inclusion (Hogg *et al.*, 2005:997). Because of their close ties with followers, transformational leaders are expected to be better leaders. Similarly, Zaidatol, Sdeghi and Habibah (2011:1082) maintain that:

Leaders with transformational leadership behaviour may/can direct their organisation toward effectiveness and productivity. Motivating followers in terms of exerting an extra effort, increasing followers' job satisfaction, improving their performance beyond expectation and cultivating creativity and innovation in the organisation are only some of the other many consequences of transformational leadership. In addition; it has positive effects on leadership effectiveness and performance. The outcomes obtained by transformational leadership are greater than those obtained by transactional leadership.

According to Lowe *et al.* (1996:216), the research findings of Bass and Yammarino (1991:14) and Kirby, King and Paradise (1991:134) in different contexts have indicated a statistically "significant relationship between leadership effectiveness and different dimensions of transformational leadership as well as transactional contingent rewards and management-by-exception active."

Erkutlu (2008:712) reveals that all the dimensions of transformational leadership are correlated positively with leader success, whereas *laissez-faire* leadership is negatively correlated. Moreover, Webb (2003: 85) intimates:

The combination of the idealised attribute, individualised consideration, and transactional contingent reward were significant predictors of perceived deanship leadership effectiveness at colleges. As opposed to this, *laissez-faire* leadership has been negatively correlated with leadership effectiveness.

Another author, Masson (1998:249) adds to the above idea by stating:

A combination of the idealised attribute, individualised consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception active, and *laissez-faire* have an equally predictive effect on perceived presidential leadership effectiveness at American Community Colleges.

Most of the previous researches on leadership effectiveness were conducted in Western countries and only a few studies have focussed on developing countries. However, none have focussed on Ethiopia, which makes the current study relevant regarding the findings produced by the empirical research instrument.

iii. Job satisfaction

Laohavichien, Fredendall and Cantrell (2009:17) point out that both transactional and transformational leadership have received considerable attention from many scholars. Some studies indicate that transformational leadership has had a bigger influence on followers' performance and

innovation than transactional leaders have had (Boerner, Eisenbeiss & Griesser, 2007:18). Moreover, some studies mention that a transformational leadership style is associated more significantly with group cohesiveness, the effectiveness of work units and organisational learning in contrast with transactional leadership (Stashevsky & Koslowsky, 2006:69; Lowe *et al.*, 1996:402). Transformational leaders are also known for their acceptance of organisational change (Bommer, Rubin & Baldwin, 2004:197) and are particularly accepting of the acquisition of new technologies (Nemanich & Keller, 2007:57).

Because of their high communication skills transformational leaders show more commitment to the goals of the organisation (Berson & Avolio, 2004:629). They of their own free will assist their employees and prevent the occurrence of job-related problems as a result of which the job satisfaction of employees is enhanced (Scandura & Williams, 2004:460; Nemanich & Keller, 2007:57). Lastly, transformational leaders become more committed and have a lower staff turnover (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004:348). The above point towards more job satisfaction associated with transformational leadership.

MacKenzie and Rich (2001:134) have put forward that a transformational leadership style has a stronger relationship with sales performance and organisational citizenship behaviour than transactional leadership did. They add that transformational leaders impact on individual and organisational creativity levels (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009:468). Although extensive research has been conducted on recent leadership styles and their impacts, a significant contribution contextualised within the Ethiopian landscape has not yet been done. Therefore, this study has attempted to evaluate the FRL in connection with the performance of teachers.

The last theory shortly mentioned is the emotional intelligence leadership theory.

2.2.4.5 Emotional intelligence leadership theory

After the FRL theory, the emotional intelligence leadership theory emerged shortly before the year 2000. This theory focuses on self-management and interaction management (Goleman, 1995:8). The most prominent representative of this theory, Goleman (1995:8), explains “... emotional capabilities are more important for leadership than intellectual capabilities.” Together with Boyatzis (2002:609), he has identified six leadership styles, namely: visionary, coaching, affective, democratic, pacesetter and commanding” (Goleman *et al.*, 2002:27).

Leadership is further contextualised in this chapter with reference to several other important matters.

2.3 LEADER-FOLLOWER INTERACTION

Yukl (2010:91) defines the term “follower” as one who acknowledges a leader as the main source of direction regardless of the leader’s actual authority. Accordingly, Hughes *et al.* (2006:153) declare that followers do not have to report directly to the leader. Followers are not always submissive to their leaders; sometimes certain groups try either to resist or even remove their leaders from their position. As can be derived from the above, leadership is closely associated with power or influence, but the authority of leaders is not always legitimate.

Yukl (2010: 76) has discussed power of two kinds. The first one is positional power which includes legitimate, reward, coercive, information and ecological forms of power. The second one is personal power which includes referent and expert power. He has also stated that there is no absolute amount of power in both cases mentioned above. Furthermore, he has expressed his belief stating that power sharing with followers should be done.

The importance of cooperation on the part of both leaders and followers to achieve shared objectives is expressed well by Yukl (2010:255). However, in recent studies on the concept of leadership are included the emotional aspects. It is the argument of this approach that it is only through leadership based on emotional values/impact that exceptional achievements are achieved. The argument is that leaders should motivate subordinates to give up their self-interest for higher causes. This line of thought also argues that both logical and emotional motives are likely to have an influence with regard to leader-follower interactions (Bass, 1990:25; Northouse, 2012:59). According to Dessler (2001:13), self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills are included in emotional intelligence. These are important for leaders who use the transformational leadership style.

2.4 LEADERSHIP AND CULTURE

Northouse (2012:58) indicates that both subordinates and leaders are influenced by the organisations they work for and the situations in the workplace. The amount of influence exerted on a leader depends on the situation. Accordingly, Tucker and Russell (2004:105) state that an organisational culture can/may stimulate the ability of the leader to influence his/her followers positively. While transformational leaders try to change such organisational cultures; transactional leaders work within them.

Minkov and Hofstede (2011:10) have expressed the opinion that culture is the collective indoctrination of the mind and that this collective indoctrination distinguishes the members of one human group from the other. They have observed that culture includes systems of values among its

building blocks. Adding to this, Bass (1997: 134) states that culture is a learned pattern of behaviour within an organisation that is passed on in the course of time. Similarly, Bolman and Deal (2003: 81) point out that culture is a pattern of shared assumptions that a group has acquired through solving its problems by using certain methods or solutions that have worked and therefore should be viewed as legitimate to teach to new members to solve related problems. These conceptions of culture have important implications for leaders who have to work within the culture of an organisation, and also need to shape it.

Mitroff (2004:64) has discussed the system age mode of thinking as opposed to that of the machine age. In his discussion, he argues that too many organisations remain stuck in the machine age way of thinking. This is relevant to the management of emerging situations. He emphasises the need for crisis leadership stating that crisis management is no longer adequate. Gabris (2004:216) adds that bureaucratic organisations function in a closed system maintenance mode that is deep-rooted in a machine-age mode of thinking. This viewpoint is geared towards management instead of transformational leadership. Therefore, transactional leadership fits with this style of management. On the contrary, transformational leadership corresponds more to system age thinking (Bass, 1997:135). It is the belief of Atwater and Yammarino (1994:645) that an organisational culture is expected to play the strongest role in the effectiveness of a clearly defined work group.

For Yukl (2010:53), influence is the basis of leadership. He adds that leadership can use empowerment to exert an influence on followers. In line with this, Stephan and Pace (1991:7) have forwarded the idea that both leadership and followership are a set of variables with multifaceted relationships. They further strengthen their idea by declaring that these multifaceted relationships are affected by the leader, the follower, the organisational culture and the situation. They believe that both groups are able to challenge, enthuse, enable, model and encourage each other. Generally, all the relationships elements lead to the success or failure of the work group and/or organisation. The next discussion is about leadership in Africa.

2.5 LEADERSHIP IN AFRICA

Proponents of African leadership argue that African efforts to bring about real development will be frustrated until African indigenous leadership is re-instituted (Anyansi-Archibong, 2001:69; Blunt & Jones, 1997:13; Edoho, 2001:79; Mangaliso, 2001:32; Mbigi, 1997:43, 2005:115; Ngambi, 2004:115). The call for indigenous leadership is embedded in the idea of an African renaissance focusing on African aesthetics and identity (Makgoba, 1999:10). Said (2002:27) asserts that this idea is congruent with post-colonial theory calling on the colonised people to regain their own culture, history and aesthetics. These researchers have tried to indicate that colonialism has affected the

indigenous African cultural leadership profoundly; accordingly, calls are made for the revival and institutionalisation of African indigenous leadership.

One may raise the question that if Africa was better off in the past, what then has gone wrong at present and how can it be regained? Jackson (2004:42) in his work has accused colonialism to be the main reason for the existence of corrupt and ineffective leadership in Africa at present. The underlying assumption is that if traditional African leadership can be revived with African leaders, there will be a positive attitude which motivates leaders to resolve critical problems that exist in the continent at present.

African voices on African leadership philosophy are at present blaming the domination of Western leadership practices in Africa's past (Horwitz, 2002:15). Scholars forward an argument that these practices are inadequate for the reason that African leadership challenges are implanted in a completely different social, cultural, political, and economical environment (Blunt & Jones, 1997:19; Jaeger, 1990:142; Boaduo, 2011:79). They also criticise the pre-supposition that others can learn little from African leadership (Mangaliso, 2001:27).

Beginning with Nzelibe's work (1986:16), books and articles emanated rejecting and/or limiting Western leadership ideas and practices in Africa, and embracing traditional African leadership (Anyansi-Archibong, 2001:69; Edoho, 2001:78; Khoza, 2006:93; Mbigi, 1997:10; Ngambi, 2004:113; Hofstede, 2013:5).

Blunt and Jones (1997:18) have tried to assert the impracticability of the application of the Western leadership style in Africa. They have tried to give a reason for this stating that Africa had a completely different cultural and economic development route. They oppose the idea that leadership was brought to Africa via colonialism and argue that African leadership thought and practice was interrupted and even in conflict with Western management. Nzelibe (1986:11) argues that Western colonialism strongly affected indigenous African leadership.

In line with Nzelibe's idea, Kiggundu (1991:12) has made an attempt to blame Western colonialism. He declares that during the colonisation period local institutions and leadership practices were either destroyed or denigrated. Next, colonisers replaced them by their colonial administrative systems. Indigenous perspectives were devalued and later on ignored. Africans were educated and/or trained only to be able to serve in administrative centres at a lower echelon (Afro-Centric Alliance, 2001:74). Likewise, Rodney (1974:64) remarks that the higher-level leadership skills of Africans were not allowed to develop. The reason given is that Africans were not to be placed in leadership positions. Therefore, at times when African countries got their independence, only a few of them

were trained to take higher leadership positions. Further strengthening the idea mentioned above, Dia (1996:301) in his work tries to advocate that many of the problems that Africa is confronting at present are due to the disconnection between informal traditional institutions and the formal ones.

After investigating the history of many African countries, scholars of African leadership philosophy, namely Iguisi (2007:18), Edoho (2001:74) and Kiggundu (1991:36) have come to believe in the existence of effective indigenous leadership in Africa during the pre-colonial era. The scarcity and even absence of written documents has made it hardly possible to describe what kind of African leadership systems existed in Africa before the colonisation of the continent by alien powers. Although this problem had existed, it did not prevent scholars from producing descriptions of African leadership. Mazrui (1998:99) observes that scholars have not paid much attention to the studies of African literature as well as the writings of African historians. Western leadership thought is believed to stand for Euro-centrism and individualism. On the other hand, African leadership thought is believed to focus on traditionalism, collectivism and mythology.

The family is considered to be the nucleus of socialisation in African societies. This idea is put forward by Edoho (2001:78) who declares that:

The family system is viewed as the basic building block of any organisation in African societies. The communalism of African leadership emanates from the belief that the individual is not alone but belongs to the community. As a result, the emphasis is placed on teamwork and the group. According to African leadership thought, leaders should focus on promoting the welfare of the entire group and not the individual.

Extended family life is the primary building block of the traditional African personality which is distinctively communal in the African culture. It is said that traditional African societies had the ability to care not only for their immediate families, but also for the extended family. In addition, kinship has also strengthened ties across different administrative echelons (Kiggundu, 1991:38).

Nzelibe (1986:17) and Messay (2006:9) express the opinion that African leadership is commonly guided by basic traditional values, assumptions and principles. These scholars refer to the details of administrative procedures dating back to ancient times that enabled African kingdoms to finish significant, big undertakings. Ancient African empires in Ethiopia, Ghana, Mali and Songhai, and Oyo provide historical evidence that effective leadership existed. Examples are given of ancient management and leadership, principles of delegation and authority and judiciary systems (Pankhurst, 1990:15).

Kiggundu (1991:38) tries to describe that African leadership is highly personalised and authoritarian, and adds that such leadership was grounded in conquest and special relationships with the supernatural power. Just to mention one example, the people as well as all land in Ethiopia were considered to be the personal property of the emperor during the period of imperial rule.

Blunt and Jones (1997:14) describe African leadership as authoritarian, paternalistic, conservative and change-resistant. In addition, Mutabazi (2002:207) tries to show that African countries mostly consisted of small clans and kingdoms before colonisation. Kings or regional clan chiefs wielded power. The successful leaders (head of a family, clan or kingdom) could exercise the ability to listen well and foreground the community's interests.

Moreover, Ngambi (2004:126) mentions that future heads or chiefs were trained to examine issues of a social nature and their effects on their communities. He states that each clan leader enjoyed some autonomy and that they learned from the experiences of their predecessors as well as from their own experiences about how to keep and protect their local interests without provoking other leaders. He identified common social principles in African leadership which pertain to appreciating their role in the ongoing cycle of life. In addition, they helped their subjects realise that their communal life was greater than that of individuals and groups. Regarding the human connection, the primary tasks of leaders pertain to establishing community and environment harmony. Universal fellowship is emphasised in their moral order and human relationships. It is therefore to be expected that such a leadership approach needs to adapt to work conditions in the complex technological modern order.

Furthermore, Ezzamel (2004:509) discusses work organisation in ancient Egypt extensively. Unlike the incidental account in many leadership books, Ezzamel has produced an extensive exposition of the organisation of work, including the ideas of labour division, administration and accounting in ancient Egypt.

In general, African leadership includes the individual's relationship with nature, supernatural beings, and the ancestors (Mbigi, 2005:195). Nzelibe (1986:12) argues that African leadership philosophy is grounded in the continuity from the material to the spiritual.

From the discussion so far on African leadership one may derive that both western and African leadership traditions show strong points and challenges, and that there are possibilities for enrichment from both sides. This study should be seen in this light. There are possibilities for TVET leaders of learning from the empirical research done in this study using a measuring instrument from western origin. The researcher's stance is thus that African leaders should enrich their present

leadership context taking their cultural heritage regarding leadership into account in attempts to enrich and improve their own leadership practice.

2.6 LEADERSHIP IN ETHIOPIA

For historical reasons, Ethiopia was and is still often considered as “not quite Africa” both in the West and even in Africa itself. This perception goes back to the medieval European representation of Ethiopia as a legendary Christian state surrounded by Muslims. According to Tekeste (1990:7), in colonial Africa, the country retained its prestige as one of the only independent sources of African culture. These views are based on the ancient independent state tradition of Ethiopia. At least since the first century BC, a central state has been known as the Aksum. The state was centred on a monarchy buttressed by a universal religion, namely Christianity since about 340 AD, hence, the politico-religious literary and juridical tradition (Teshome, 2001:54). Ethiopia is conceived to be a Christian country, and this is acknowledged in education. Accordingly, the church provided an educated workforce, while the rulers in this time also strove producing “God-fearing” persons. According to Messay (2006:30) the idea that the “Fear of God is the Beginning of Wisdom” was the point of departure of church education.

The church education system resulted in significant accomplishments like the basilica of Axum, the rock churches of Lalibela, the architecture of the Fasilidas in Gonder, a unique literary system, a unique alphabet and number system, the art of Saint Yared and the philosophy of Zar’aYaеqob, for example (Mercier, 2001: 45). This education contributed to building a nation-state, developing a well-functioning bureaucracy and creating and maintaining esteemed social and ethical systems like “*fereha-egziabiher* - the fear of God” (Bahru, 1994:131). The presence of an indigenous state is important indeed when analysing the pattern of leadership in Ethiopia.

However, it is realised that leadership behaviour ignores many of the problems in developing countries. According to Donham (2002:548), Clapham (2002:9), Teshale (1995:419) and Messay (2006:30), Ethiopia has suffered for long not only from poor but from malicious leadership as well. Ethiopia had been suffering despotic rule even since ancient times to the present. It should be noted here that although the current period is not an era of despotism, clear features of despotism is still observed in leadership styles exercised in Ethiopia at present. Accordingly, leaders still use power as an end in itself and not for the public good; they have implemented and still implement poisonous social and racial strategies. At present, the top leaders of the country have used their leadership power to create the domination of one ethnic group over all ethnicities in the country. Secondly, they have also used their nefarious leadership to create enmity among the diverse ethnic groups in Ethiopia. Thirdly, their malicious leadership has gone to the extent of using the divide and rule

method even among members of the same ethnic group. Nepotism is also one of the worst characteristics of the existing leadership in Ethiopia. This is highly manifest in the field of employment and the placement of leaders in organisations. In general, the present day leadership in Ethiopia has become the creator of new and complicated problems that will certainly be hard to resolve in future.

Although the study of leadership is an issue that has widely attracted Western academics' interest, the African and particularly the Ethiopian perspective has been neglected. In line with this idea, Gebru (2004:6) is of the opinion that both international academic leadership studies and other agencies of development have paid extremely little attention to Ethiopian leadership. Messay (2006:7) has suggested that Westerners have not tackled the Ethiopian leadership problems sufficiently for fear of being labelled racist if they criticise Ethiopian leaders. Therefore, one may conceive the idea that this has allowed Ethiopian leaders to continue their type of leadership. In the light of this, it is imperative that Ethiopian TVET leaders also learn from other leadership traditions to improve their functioning.

Ethiopia, unlike other African states, was not colonised. This helps the country to preserve its own culture (Teshome, 2001:54). In Ethiopia, societal culture as a humane orientation is emphasised (Messay, 2006:13). The most significant difference between Western and Ethiopian culture is its priority given to a humane orientation. In comparison with the leadership paradigms used in Ethiopia, the Western world dominates the global understanding of leadership. A glance at Western leadership paradigms makes it possible to situate Ethiopian leadership in a wider context.

Although the literature tries to show a more complex picture of leadership in Ethiopia, little country specific information is available. Even when Ethiopian leadership has been discussed, it is done in a biased way. Messay (2006:19) has pointed out that Ethiopian leadership has been assessed in comparison with the contemporary Western leadership model and severe problems have been identified as a result. However, this comparative approach has misinterpreted the essence and consequences of Ethiopian leadership and has wrongly suggested that a greater consistency with the Western model can always provide better solutions. Western notions of good leadership are not widely applicable in Ethiopia. The reason is that there are remarkable differences in values concerning authority, group loyalties and harmony. Therefore, using Western leadership paradigms as a model for Ethiopia is, in fact, a new kind of ideological imperialism (Blunt & Jones, 1997:16). That is why many leadership and management approaches have failed for the last five decades without changing the lives of people in society (Kibur, 2010:12; Mesfin, 2012:4). By mentioning this, the researcher wants to demonstrate that he is aware of the complexities surrounding the application of Western models of leadership in Africa. Nevertheless he believes that TVET leaders

may benefit from this study as there are also points of reference in the apparently opposing leadership traditions that may lead to a better understanding of TVET leadership practice.

Sub-Saharan African countries, including Ethiopia, feel that humane-oriented leadership is indicative of good leadership when compared with other country clusters (Chhokar, Brodbeck & House, 2007:1021). Human-oriented leadership expresses kindness and considers relationships individually. It also shows a strong concern for the followers in a holistic way. It is important to mention here that generosity and compassion are the characteristics of human-orientated leadership that contribute to a leader's effectiveness. The value attached to a humane orientation is apparently the biggest difference between the Western and the Ethiopian leadership styles. However, it also became apparent in this study that the people orientation reflected in FRL (transformational leadership) cannot be denied.

Ethiopians regard charismatic/value based, team-oriented and participative leadership as characteristics of good leadership during the time of war to defend the country from foreign aggressors. This is not often found to change the life of society. That is why the country suffers from starvation (Tekeste, 2006:29). What the Ethiopians themselves hope for in leadership is also discussed in the Code of African Leadership, which is a declaration of the ideals of good African leadership.

Accordingly, it is possible to conceptualise an ideal type of powerful, visionary and transformational leader who possesses the characteristics required to contribute to the successful implementation and consolidation of policy reforms in Ethiopia. In line with this, Ahluwalia (2001:178) suggests:

Ideal traits appear to derive more from the way these transformative leaders commit themselves to a quest to advance the principles contained in a coherent policy paradigm than from any personally or genetically specific factors. As such, their commitment gives them the vision required to formulate a clear set of coherent goals. It also gives them the willingness to use their own authority and political skills to overcome and circumvent the resistance to reform generated by interest groups; to lead public opinion by taking firm positions on contentious issues; and to stand before the "bar of history" and be held to account for their persistence in striving to realise their policy vision.

Generally, a combination of personal elements and situational factors need to be considered in the study of leadership. Therefore, the need for economic transformation and growth in Ethiopia calls for a transformational leader who is willing and ready to combine a sound and logical understanding of

the different dimensions of the task with an awareness of the need to cultivate meaningful solutions to the persistent underdevelopment of the country.

2.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented a review of the leadership theories and styles leading up to the FRL model as well as a description of the FRL model. It begins with the trait approach which holds the notion that leaders were seen to be different from other ordinary people.

The second approach dealt with is the behavioural theory, which holds the idea that an effective leader is distinct because of his or her actions. There are two categories in this approach, firstly, consideration/ concern for people denotes a leadership style in which leaders care about their followers as persons, are trusted by subordinates, and promote friendship. Secondly, initiating structure/ concern for production refers to a style in which the leader indicates accurately what followers need to do and develops work schedules for them (Avolio *et al.*, 2009: 768).

The third approach dealt with is the contingency theory which is more about the context of leadership application, which is not dealt with in both the trait and behavioural theories. The fourth approach discusses the new leadership approach beginning from the 1980s. The new leadership views a leader as the individual who creates meaning and also makes sense of events.

Furthermore, leadership and culture were also discussed in this chapter. It explained the idea that organisational culture can/may stimulate a leader's behaviour to influence his/her followers in a positive way. Lastly, leadership in Africa and Ethiopia were discussed.

After gaining an overview of the literature, a specific theoretical framework for this research was devised, which embraces FRL (transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire*) and the outcomes of leadership which include effectiveness, job satisfaction and extra effort. With this in mind, the next chapter deals with the state of TVET in the world in general and then proceeds to assess the case of Ethiopia in particular.

CHAPTER THREE

CONTEXTUALISING TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) refers to purposeful interventions to bring about learning to make learners productive in specific areas of economic activity (like occupations and specific work tasks). It has the power to improve human capabilities and also opens ways for people to be able to have choices of work. TVET practice needs to provide education and training to men and women equitably in both rural and urban areas. This is the overarching objective that is achieved through effective leadership practice in TVET (Finch & Crunkilton, 1999:37; Foucher & Brezot, 1997:114).

It is important to note that TVET deans assist to prepare learners for specific types of work accompanied practical activities. The intention of TVET is to prepare skilled workers to satisfy the needs of employers for the production of goods and services. Training in skills signifies the development of qualifications. This training almost always focuses on the performance of one task or limited sets of tasks (Putnam, 2002:15).

A report of the World Bank (2005:15) considers education to be the main instrument leading to effective development strategies. The report continues by saying that TVET must be the tool to reduce poverty, bring peace, safeguard the environment, ameliorate the quality of life for everyone and work towards long lasting development. With this concept in mind, leadership in TVET colleges should undertake its main aim to provide continuous technical skills and finally provide a new work force.

In effect, TVET enables its trainees to develop their potential as a result of which they become able to withstand the emerging challenges in their environment. For these and other reasons, it is one of the most effective institutions in society (Cho, 2002:469). In general, in all African countries including Ethiopia, the responsibility for TVET is shared between the ministries for technical education and labour, although programmes like agriculture, health and teacher education are the responsibility of sector ministries (King & Palmer, 2005: 11; Bernd & Helmut, 2011:3).

Bernard (2009:46) points out that leadership is central to the survival, growth, and prosperity of TVET institutions. In this highly competitive, complex and fast changing world, leadership involves

qualities beyond professional knowledge and expertise. Rubenstein (2005:46) adds that these qualities include the ability to move an organisation “in the right direction by effectively understanding, evaluating, initiating and managing change.”

At present, as TVET is the centre for the development of required human skills, it is given high priority as a source of skilled human resources. MOFED (2014:52) has indicated that a plan fixed on confirmed targets is a tool to operationalise the education sector policy. It is formulated to help in minimising if not eliminating poverty in Ethiopia. It also helps to envision economic development founded on the application of developed skill and technology.

However, TVET college deans are affected by a lack of leadership skill and social competencies; therefore, changes must be made to Ethiopian leadership culture to incorporate transformational leadership. Organisational and social changes are interlinked and are affected by politics and as such, current TVET college leadership is ineffective in eliciting the respect, trust and loyalty of followers (Hassen, 2009: 16). It needs to be noted that Ethiopian employers are discontented with the proficiency of their workers (Tegegn, 2011:45). Likewise, Bernd and Helmut (2011:1) have explained that complex organisations may require better efficiency of better qualified personnel. Therefore, such complex organisations prefer to hire technicians to artisans.

In developing countries, the successful achievement of TVET may be considered a key aspect of such countries’ advancement in their development. TVET is believed to have played a vital role in a country that has evolved into a technologically advanced one (Tekeste, 2006:154).

Contextualising technical and vocational education and training in general and with specific reference to Ethiopia in this chapter provides essential background information on the theme of the study and the empirical study to be carried out. Therefore, the first part of this chapter will provide information about the meanings, contributions and leadership of TVET, and the second section discusses the notion of TVET in developing countries and Ethiopia.

3.2 MEANINGS AND FORMS OF TVET

According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation and the International Labour Organisation (UNESCO & ILO, 2002: 43), TVET is referred to as:

Those aspects of the educational process involving, in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences, and the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge related to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life.

In recent years, the term skills development has come to be accepted in the developing world as synonymous to the definition of TVET. Burnett (2008:8) has added that TVET sometimes is known as Vocational Education and Training (VET) or Career and Technical Education (CTE). He claims that it can be considered to be the means of preparing skilled workers for occupational fields in the world of work. It also can mean preparation for lifelong learning for the creation of responsible citizens.

According to Gerhards (2003:52), technical education also focuses on theoretical vocational preparation of students. These trainees are expected to be highly equipped with skills in modern technology. Furthermore, Bernd and Helmut (2011:4) indicate that the aim of technical education is to prepare learners for jobs which are indicated as above the skilled crafts, but lower than the engineering professions. In connection with this, Laulgo (2009:897) has stated that TVET prepares trainees for jobs based on practical activities. These activities are practice-oriented and related to a specific trade and occupation. It falls under the MOE for the reason that it is considered to be part of the formal educational system.

Since the 21st century, the concept of TVET of high quality has been in a state of rapid transformation. Traditional programmes of low standard and level have been replaced by a new concept of “career-technical education” (Bottoms, Pucel & Phillips, 2000:12; Daughtry & Finch, 1997:179; Wonacott, 2001:138).

TVET leadership has developed from task-oriented and human-oriented leadership to a transformational leadership style according to Yukl, (2010: 58). The TVET deans who are at the forefront as leaders in their respective offices have experienced dramatic change.

3.3 THE ROLE OF TVET IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Dugger and Naik (2001:31) state that the challenge that nations of the world confront in improving the skills of their workforce is to satisfy the needs of their national development and the requirements of a fast changing world at the global level. The success of nations and individuals has become more dependent on the existence of transferrable and renewable skills and knowledge (King & Martin, 2002:9).

The extremely important role that TVET plays in connection with equipping individuals with the required skills and knowledge which enable them to take part in the social, economic and technological innovation processes is highly recognised at present by both the highly and less advanced countries of the world. Accordingly, the World Bank (2010:17) has indicated that prior to the 1980s, the TVET system was considered to be a central part of the development strategy of

nations. In spite of the above fact, TVET began to lose funding and support as time went on. However, the need of the 21st century for new skills to advance ICT (information communication technology) stressed the high importance of TVET colleges at an international level.

Currently, TVET training has become a means for creating new job opportunities and is also serving as a source to generate income in the different economic sectors (King & Martin, 2002:9). The African Union (2007:12) has emphasised that if local needs are targeted in education and training, TVET can play an important role to the extent of bringing about high economic development that results in the reduction and even final elimination of poverty. However, appropriate leadership should be put into effect to achieve this.

3.4 TVET IN A CHANGING WORLD

According to King, McGrath and Rose (2007:352), TVET plays an important role contributing to global development. Oketch (2007:228) explains that TVET allows wide participation of people who need skills training which is appropriately related to the labour market.

3.4.1 Socio-economic development

The UN (2010:53) has emphasised the suitability of TVET colleges for contributing to the socio-economic development both at national and international level and for the attainment of the MDGs (Millenium Development Goals) through the development of human capital. Skills development enables individuals to get an improved chance to be assigned to better employment. This fact remains true particularly for countries where poverty is rife. The formal sector of education in developing countries is extremely limited and there are few job opportunities and consequently, many job-seeking school leavers and graduates cannot find employment.

Zerihun (2008:244) declares that unemployment in developing countries may be reduced if the TVET curricula are prepared in a way to focus on developing people who can create jobs rather than seek jobs. If this is achieved; it allows less developed countries to get closer to meeting the MDGs. This is true particularly for those who graduate from secondary schools but who fail to proceed to the higher level of education. If such students gain skills by getting into TVET and become job creators, then unemployment can be combated to a certain extent.

On the basis of recommendations of the study of the World Bank (2015a :16), TVET provision is gender-balanced focused on private enterprises; thereby bringing about additional economic development to developing countries, where females form about half of the active self-employed work population. In order to attain socio-economic development, TVET leaders are expected to

realise the aspirations of the people in addition to identifying the goals of their respective societies. This will assist in driving the vision of Ethiopia's future and developing the capacity of mobilising the people to achieve societal goals.

3.4.2 Global competitiveness

Addy (2008:18) has pointed out that TVET supports the socio-economic welfare of individuals as well as increasing international competitiveness. The present day globalising world is experiencing rapidly developing technology. It is realised that there is a big gap in knowledge and the ownership of advanced technologies between less developed and highly advanced countries of the world (Bass, 1996:21). Mundy (2002:491) avers that capacity for innovation of developing countries can be enhanced through technical knowledge transferred through TVET, linked to career guidance, as this would enable them to produce technical solutions for the local environment and for export. The development gap will otherwise widen and the competitiveness of developing countries be reduced even more in the global economy.

In addition, Mundy (2002:491) concludes, "Therefore, in the era of global competition where the environments are dynamic, many organisations must shift the paradigms of their leaderships from a transactional to transformational leadership style in order to achieve their goals."

3.4.3 Career mobility in an increasingly dynamic employment market

As economies and world markets change, new concepts emerge in the field of TVET. For Hillage and Pollard (1998:86), employability refers to the ability of persons to use their knowledge, skills and attitudes to find work, to present their abilities to employers well, and to apply these well in different work environments. Klugman (2005:148) says that, "employability somewhat erodes the traditional employment model characterised by continuous careers in the form of employment of unspecified duration in the same organisation throughout one's working life."

Rose (2007:35) states that TVET is expected to provide opportunities to develop learner skills and to enable workers to show that they are flexible under various working environments. He states that the reason behind this is the broad individual competence profile. TVET creates favourable conditions for developing workers to be able to change jobs. This is done by targeting skills and knowledge development.

Oketch (2007:228) has pointed out that competency is the use of knowledge and skills in an industrial environment which pays more attention to what is expected from an employee in his/her workplace. It includes in it the competence to transfer work ability to new work contexts. The

competency based training approach aimed at facilitating the creation of an adjustable workforce is being adopted by TVET institutions.

Moreover, the successful delivery of quality TVET is also closely linked to developing leadership ability, as well as a suitable system of qualifications and of control to drive the whole TVET system (AU, 2007:10).

3.4.4 Adjustability and strength in recognition of qualifications

There are varying ways in which competencies are developed. Knowledge can be acquired through other means in addition to training in a formal classroom. This remains true for TVET institutions. It should not be forgotten that TVET institutions as centres of skills training have a strong connection with the labour market (Lee, 2006:281).

Kirchberger (2010:6) considers qualification pathways to be a linking pin for TVET. He avers that qualification pathways invite the design and implementation of a qualification framework. This confirms what was possible to obtain through experience in addition to training. UNESCO (2004: 59) has stated that the potential role of TVET institutions is being increasingly realised by many developing countries for their national development as well as international competitiveness. Therefore, they have started preparing national TVET strategies that consider societal trends. The overwhelming demand for TVET poses monumental leadership challenges to the respective institutions. It calls for the re-engineering of the processes and procedures of leading TVET in the country to deliver market responsive programmes, which can solve societal problems.

3.5 TVET IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Schulpen and Gibbon (2002:9) have indicated that TVET provision in countries undergoing development occurs in a challenging socio-economic milieu. In order that TVET institutions can contribute to the extent that national development is realised, its provision needs to be addressed urgently. Challenges which these TVET institutions faced and still face are tackled in different ways on the basis of specific features of the countries where they are found.

It should be kept in mind that regional differences exist in the structures of organising TVET. Beside these, developing countries' TVET leaders must establish consensus among the people they lead in order to enlist their support to accomplish the desired results. Atchoarena, Philipps and Holmes (2007:15) declare, "involving all members in an organisation helps to build a team that holds common interests making it possible for leaders to inspire their teams to achieve goals." In a situation of this kind, resources are likely to "be used effectively, efficiently and in a sustainable

manner” (Lee, 2006:288). Thus, it will be possible for leaders at all levels of the colleges to be accountable to all the people they lead.

The general state of TVET in developing countries is discussed under various headings in the sections that follow.

3.5.1 Quality and number of students

Duodu (2006:48) states that in most less advanced countries, science education at the school level is hardly able to equip students with a tangible knowledge base. In connection with this, Mundy (2002:491) adds that the number of students in secondary schools with the required knowledge and skills that enable them to follow scientific and technical programmes at the higher education level is inadequate. In some countries, the formulation of poor educational policies is the main cause of the poor science knowledge background of students entering higher education.

Mulaw and Schmidt (2006:15) suggest that better teachers, curricula and training facilities would improve the standard and image of TVET, attract more students and provide a strong technical workforce for the nation. In order to do this, TVET deans have to consider individuals’ needs for achievement and growth acting as a coach or mentor. An awareness must be developed in individuals about the importance of TVET so that they can realise their potential with due recognition of each individual’s uniqueness. Considerate leaders listen to the individual; understand his/her own strengths and weaknesses and help to nourish abilities and confidence (Bass, 1997:15).

3.5.2 Quality and number of educators

Inadequacy in the number of qualified TVET teachers is clearly observed in most developing countries. Consequently, this has repercussions with regard to the quality of the graduating students. So, the TVET institutions should make every effort to transfer knowledge to colleagues through peer mentoring. Mentors or coaches can help employees to identify new opportunities, and to advance new strategies (AU, 2007:16).

3.5.3 Quality and image of TVET

Delano and Mittelsteadt (2005:25) have pointed out that TVET is limited in scope, quality and relevance in most developing countries. The training programmes are irrelevant for the requirements of the local labour market. The institutions generally also lack the tools and equipment required for practical training. In many cases even if such tools and equipment are found in the workshops, they are found to be obsolete. A lack of adequate training equipment results in practical demonstrations

being overcrowded. For this reason, most of the trainees observe the demonstration only and do not get a chance to get adequate practice.

Training remains theoretical for the reason that the colleges are inadequately resourced. As a result of this, graduates are not considered to be better skilled in comparison with their academic counterparts in the labour market. This again results in the acquisition of a poor image by the colleges (AU, 2007:23).

It is pointed out by NICHE (Netherlands Initiative for Capacity Development in Higher Education) (2008:5) that TVET institutions of countries such as Ghana, Mozambique, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Lesotho and Malawi have begun to gain the attention of both their national governments and donors. The organisation believes that this is an indication that the image of TVET institutions in developing countries is gradually improving. Developing countries with previously poor TVET strategies have now started using more foreign aid for the creation of a solid national TVET strategy. For these countries it is important to create a national TVET strategy that produces manpower that satisfies the human resource requirements for the labour market.

According to the researcher, this becomes feasible only when the TVET college dean possesses competencies that are critical to leader effectiveness, such as sharing information, providing help, encouraging collaborative behaviour among team members and having the ability to inspire commitment to values and mission.

3.5.4 Quality and number of TVET institutions

A study conducted by the African Union (2007:21) has shown that TVET colleges in most developing countries are few, and as such they have low enrolment rates and few graduates in comparison with their academic counterparts. It indicates that the reasons given for this are the negative societal image of TVET and that both financial and material expenditure for the provision of TVET is higher than education programmes in the humanities. In order to alleviate this problem and others, TVET college deans must be able to adapt their leadership to motivate and retain career-focussed instructors and learners.

Based on the annual reports of the education ministries of different African countries, the African Union (2007:24) has indicated that most of these countries try their best to use the education budget to provide sufficiently for the wants of general education as well as TVET. However, the budget's allotment is still extremely small to improve the TVET system as well as other educational programmes. This is because the lion's share of the ministerial budgets is allotted to cover operational costs.

3.5.5 Relevance to the labour market and traineeships

With regard to the labour market and traineeships, Atchoarena, Philipps and Holmes (2007:11) insist that a close partnership between TVET colleges and the local labour market is basic to working hand-in-hand with the preparation of the curricula focussing on the development of the skills required by the labour market. However, in developing countries most TVET curricula are supply-driven and, as such, receive few contributions from the labour market.

One can conclude that TVET is the means for addressing the huge joblessness that is endemic in developing countries. It is assumed that that they do not have the skills required for self-employment or for being employed by employers. According to the researcher, relevant training is therefore important to be accommodated in the labour market.

3.6 THE ROLE OF THE TVET DEAN

TVET is undergoing rapid change in the contemporary world and the future quality of TVET institutions depends on how the sector responds to the evolving realities in the larger world (Atchoarena *et al.*, 2007:14). Effective leadership in colleges is one of the determining factors to decide whether the college is able to manage the change effectively (Munitz, 1995:1). Deans of TVET colleges have been assigned as persons responsible for leading their colleges during times of change.

Leaders do not solve problems by themselves. At this time when the world has become highly complex, problems call for groups with the capable expertise and with multiple resources as well. Therefore, a strong emphasis should be placed on advancing teamwork and effective leadership for the reasons mentioned above (Kouzes & Posner, 1995:22). Due to the complexity of the challenges created by technological advancement, it has become imperative for organisations to solve problems effectively and efficiently. Therefore, leaders must strive to improve the innovativeness of the members of their organisations in multiple disciplines. Vigorous attempts should be made to implement new ideas and suggestions in the quickest time possible. Problems and challenges must be identified and solved by leaders with expertise in facilitating change (Hughes *et al.*, 2002:594).

According to the researcher, effective leadership is required to lead followers in innovative thinking and to promote discovering new solutions. However, it is not easy to make all employees work towards a common goal. A leader should be able to synchronise the thinking of others. Employees may lack the above creative thinking and problem solving skills. Research shows that using people's creativity is one way of motivating them (Kotter, 1990:18). The leader can create intrinsic motivation in their followers by encouraging them to think for themselves.

The dean's role may be multifaceted and may vary from college to college; yet, there is one role that all deans are expected to play, that is, deal with change. In this regard, researchers have found that followers would be willing to work actively for new changes if they are empowered. Therefore, they suggest that leaders need to have qualities that enable them to urge their followers adapt to changing situations through their transformational leadership (Yukl, 2010:297). It is important to provide followers with opportunities which give them the chance to participate and to air their thoughts and opinions. Their thinking should be given due consideration and then be accommodated in leadership decisions. Change will be more willingly accepted by followers if they feel that they have made some input into the process of change (Munitz, 1995: 6).

The MOE (2008: 2) has summed up the role of the dean as follows: "... the ability to change rapidly and giving direct response to client demands has placed the TVET College in a unique leadership position within the wave of TVET reform." In Ethiopia however, TVET colleges require growth, support from societal groups, business and industry and particularly support in providing middle level job training (Bernd & Helmut, 2011:6; MOFED, 2014:3). TVET in Ethiopia will be discussed next.

3.7 TVET IN ETHIOPIA

So far, we have discussed both the meaning of TVET and forms of TVET institutions, the role of TVET and national development, TVET colleges in a changing world, TVET colleges in developing countries and the role of TVET institutions. This provided a cursory, broad background for the next section that will deal with the context of TVET institutions in Ethiopia.

3.7.1 Context of TVET

Ethiopia is one of the most poverty-stricken countries in the world. MOFED (2006:67) reports that the population of Ethiopia in the year 2006 was 80 million and that 31 million of the then total population lived below the defined poverty line of 45 US cents per day (World Bank, 2015a :17). It states that despite improvements in basic aspects of life in recent years, development is low in comparison with the rest of the world (MOFED, 2014:5). The annual growth of the population of Ethiopia is around two million. This has placed considerable strain on the country's resource base and on the labour market, as well as on its ability to deliver services. According to the Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP) of the country, Ethiopia has to increase its average economic growth rate with between 11% to 15% per year to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MOFED, 2015:2).

The MOE (2015:67) of Ethiopia has stated that at present, Ethiopia has committed herself to participating in the competitive global market economy through the active implementation of a poverty reduction policy which requires technically and professionally trained citizens with the “ability to learn” in specific occupations. Hence, TVET must improve economic competitiveness through a trained workforce; enhance employability of TVET learners as well as readiness for self-employment. Ethiopia is putting a comprehensive human resource development programme in place, in part via TVET.

Transformational leadership in TVET has been referred to as the redeemer of academic institutions or as being totally irrelevant. Bolman and Deal (1992:94) indicate that leadership plays a key role in bringing about organisational change and improvement in the teaching, curriculum, and the relations between colleges and their stakeholders. Maeroff (1980:638), like other researchers, also indicates that academic leaders should be transformational leaders, reasoning that leaders of higher education institutions must be able to take difficult decisions. Yukl (2010:59) concludes that the TVET dean should have vision, creativity and courage, while Fisher, Tack and Wheeler (1988:58) and Kirkbride (2006:29) find that college deans are people with vision. A large amount of research has been conducted in academic institutions, supporting the idea of a successful TVET dean as a transformational leader since Bass introduced transformational leadership in 1985 (Tucker, Bass & Daniel, 1992: 16).

To further contextualise TVET institutions in Ethiopia, they will need to be considered within the context of the Ethiopian education system as depicted in Figure 3.1.

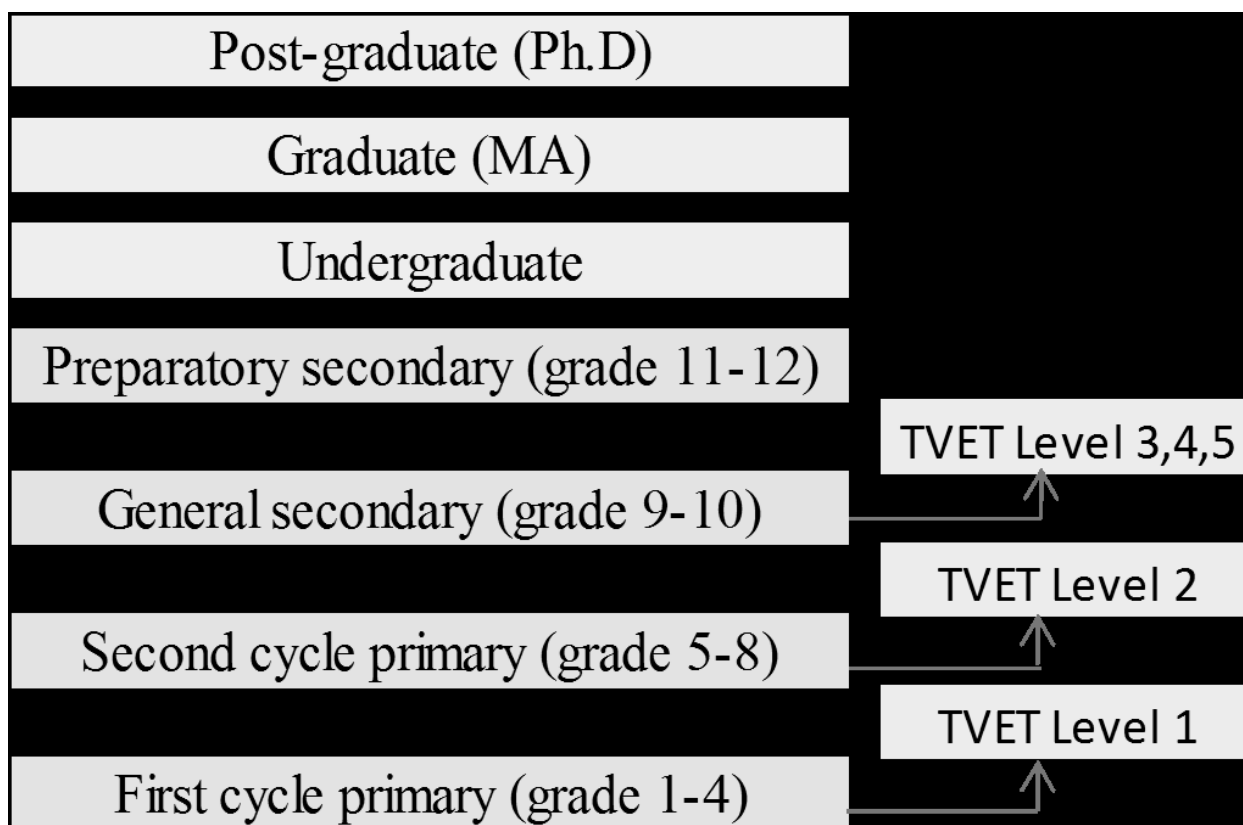


Figure 3.1: Overview of the Ethiopian education system

Since 1994, the education system has been restructured into a 8-2-2-3 pattern, that is, eight years of primary school education (Grades 1 to 8), two years of general secondary education (Grades 9 to 10), two years preparatory secondary education (Grades 11 to 12), and three to five years university education. Level I TVET education is provided for dropouts from the lower primary cycle (the end of Grade 4) and level II TVET education for dropouts from the upper primary cycle, that is, the end of Grade 8 (TGE, 1994:16-17).

At the end of the general education period (the end of Grade 10), students are required to take the Ethiopian General Secondary Education Certificate Examination (EGSECE). Accordingly, students are directed into either academic (higher education programmes in Grades 11 and 12) or TVET programmes (Level I-V) based on their merits and preferences. It is only if and when students score low grades and are unable to get to Grade 11 (preparatory school for higher education) that such low academic achievers apply for enrolment at TVET colleges (MOE, 2010:24)

Since the year 2000, the general secondary education (Grades 9 to 10) has expanded at about 20% on average every year as a result of which more and more demands arose for TVET. More TVET institutions and training areas have been established in order to meet this demand. Its enrolment is expanding at 21.3% annually; while the staff and schools are also increasing at almost the same rate. TVET provides training with regard to market-oriented programmes for various target groups like

Grade 10 graduates, school leavers, employed people, school dropouts as well as marginalised groups in the labour market based on the demands of various industries (MOE, 2009:14; ECBP, 2006:7).

MOE (2008:4) has pointed out that other government ministries such as the ministries of health and agriculture have to play a prominent role in the provision of TVET. The informal apprenticeship system, public and private vocational training institutes, public technical institutes and colleges, and the polytechnics are mentioned as the main centres where skills training in different fields are given. The data regarding enrolment in the formal TVET institutions are still not handled properly; hence, no comprehensive data are available on private TVET institutions (ECBP, 2006:16).

3.7.2 Historical development of TVET

The historical development of TVET institutions is discussed in the following sections.

3.7.2.1 National level

Unlike many African countries, Ethiopia has followed its own course for centuries. The Ethiopian Orthodox Tewahido Church that has existed in the country for generations was responsible for the development of literature, art, music and architecture (Abune Gorgoriwos, 1981:2; Messay, 2006:32). Moreover, the church also played a role in shaping the outlook of the population in general and that of the ruling elite. In relation to the role of the church to education, Pankhurst (1955:15, in Seyoum, 1996:27) explains that in Ethiopia, an educational system existed many centuries before the coming of the modern missionaries. Since then until the twentieth century, the Ethiopian Orthodox Church was the only formal educational agency in Ethiopia. The church assumed responsibility for educating its own clergy as well as some civil leaders and members of the nobility.

Even though education in Ethiopia started earlier, trades were despised and artisans were discriminated against in society. They were considered as low caste and given derogatory names. In support of this, Wanna (1998:57) indicates that the fact that Ethiopia had its own artisans, probably affected the development of indigenous crafts, thus weakening any technological advances that the country could have made.

Modern education started at the beginning of the 20th century and commenced officially in 1908, taking a significant step in the history of modern education in Ethiopia with the opening of the Minilik II School in Addis Ababa. Tekeste (2006:15) declares:

The education system that prevailed in the country from the 1940s until the end of the 1960s can be described as an elitist system in so far as that it reached only some of the urban and

even less of the rural population. It can also be described as an extremely generous public benefit delivered free of cost to those who lived close enough to access it. Importantly, although there is a lack of good empirical documentation, the main beneficiaries of education were not the children of the ruling elite but those coming from ordinary and poor households.

Meanwhile according to the study by the Institute of Curriculum Development and Research (ICDR) (1999:70-79), in 1920, mission schools were established in Addis Ababa, Dire Dawa and Harrer and taught religion, history and academic education. At these institutions, embroidery, different handicrafts and home science training were given to females, while the males received agricultural training. From 1930 to 1934, additional schools were established that provided training in some vocational subjects related to production.

From 1936 to 1941, Ethiopia was occupied by Italy. The schools were closed and the scanty collections of educational materials were destroyed. Soon after that, the missionaries (except the Roman Catholics) were ordered to close the schools and leave the country. Above all, however, the few pre-war educated youngsters were massacred. Thus, the infant education system was nearly stamped out by the end of the occupation period (Teshome, 1979:27; Tekeste, 1990:16; Seyoum, 1996:12).

When the country was liberated in 1941, there were no schools, no teachers and no educational materials. Schools that had existed before the Italian occupation were changed into military barracks. According to Ayalew (2006:25), there was an acute shortage of educated personnel who could manage the government offices, the armed forces, and the commercial and transport services that were in the process of reorganisation. To meet these needs, the MOE was re-established in 1942.

It was after the expulsion of the Italians that the Ethiopian government paid attention to the establishment of technical vocational schools in Ethiopia as part of its educational system. These vocational/technical schools were few in number and graduates from high schools who could not enter the tertiary level of education, joined in the programme. Wanna (1998:57) states that in 1962 the government converted the existing high schools into “comprehensive high schools” in order to produce a skilled labour force for the market to alleviate the problem of unemployment.

Concerning the effectiveness of the technical vocational (TV) areas, the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) (1996:51) notes that training in TV areas in comprehensive schools during these years can be said to comprise only classroom theoretical discussions with limited practical support. In addition, two major reasons are advanced by the Ministry of Education (MOE) experts regarding the limitation of the programme. The first is the acute shortage of equipment and

supplies in the schools, and the second is the extremely overcrowded classes that make practical training in workshops virtually impossible. Later on, it was also found that the comprehensive schools were unable to address the problem of unemployment effectively. Then, it was decided to strengthen other vocational technical schools in order to provide effective skills training.

Since 1994, the Education and Training Policy of the country has placed a great deal of emphasis on the development of TVET (TGE, 1994:16-17). In addition to this, MOFED (2006:11) and the European Union (2006:2) state that the priority areas identified by the Ethiopian government are transport, education, agriculture and health. The government allocates 64% of the total budget to the above mentioned sectors. However, success cannot be achieved in these areas without skilled manpower at all the levels under discussion. A dynamic TVET programme with maximum concern for the development of a skilled labour market responsive to the economy is of vital importance.

Seyoum (1996:4) has pointed out that TVET in Ethiopia is fragmented. It is delivered by different agencies such as public TVET programmes, church-based NGOs (non-governmental organisations), and employer-based in-house programmes run by public and private institutions. The numbers of TVETs have not been documented systematically. From 1996/97 to 2013/14, the government expanded formal TVET programmes dramatically, increasing enrolment from 3,000 to 238,049 (MOE, 2015:55).

Prior to 2008, TVET served only less than 3% of the relevant age group as a result of which the systematic integration of TVET with the labour market was not achieved (ECBP, 2008:10). Therefore, problems such as the underfunding and shortage of sufficient and well trained TVET teachers have not yet been resolved. These problems are believed to be accompanied by a lack of effectiveness and efficiency in skilled workers (World Bank, 2005:3). The MOE (2008:4) explains that students pursuing courses in TVET “do not have an option of vertical mobility into degree programs in their chosen vocational sector.” Tekeste (2006:21) adds that this, coupled with other reasons such as quality, standardisation, and recognition and fragmentation was the reason for various vocational schemes failing at the national and regional levels.

The ECBP (2008:11) has stated that the founding of the National TVET Council in 2008 was an important step forward in the TVET programme development in Ethiopia. Since then, the council has been comprising representatives from different government sectors. These include regional representatives, public and private providers of TVET and the business sector.

In terms of education, it is a reasonable expectation that the deans and teachers influence society and the community positively beyond the confines of their classrooms. For this to take place, teamwork

is required in which leadership is not confined to the few at the top, but shared with all within the organisation. In support of the concept of ‘distributed leadership’ Avolio (2010:51) states, “... leadership should be found everywhere in organisations and be measured as institutional capacity instead of CEO charisma.”

3.7.2.2 The Southern Nations, Nationalities and People’s Region (SNNPR)

The total land area of the region (SNNPR) in which this study was situated is 112,000 km². It constitutes more than 10% of the country’s land area with a population of more than 15 million divided into more than 56 language and ethnic groups. In the region, there are 93 technical and vocational training schools, five teacher-training colleges and five national universities (SNNPR, 2013:5). The instructional language of first cycle primary school Grades 1 to 4 is taught in their respective mother tongues while the second cycle and above are taught in English. In some regions, the mother tongue was used up to Grade 6 and in two regions of the country (Oromia and Tigray) it was used up to Grade 8. These two regions clearly respected the education policy, while others did not. This could create variations in English language competence for further education.

Prior to 1996/97, in the region, there were two government TVET institutions, namely the Hawassa and Dilla Technical Education institutions and two TVET institutions run by NGOs (missionary organisations), namely Dombosco at Dilla and Lutran at Arbaminch towns. In 1997, at national level, 25 SDCs (skills development centres) were launched and seven of these were found in the SNNPR (Dilla, Hawassa, Sodo, Arba Minch, Butajira, Bonga & Hossana). The Hawassa Technical institution (established during the previous regime), became the 8th SDC in the region. The SDCs aimed to provide training in the areas of industry and construction. The objective was to provide technical training for 10 months to students who had completed Grade 12 under the former policy of the country, that is, the 6-6 structure. With the exception of the two and three years TVET (10+2 and 10+3) training programmes, the remaining levels of training did not enable trainees to acquire the skills for productive self-employment (SNNPR TVETB, 2013:26).

The zonal and special woreda distributions of TVET institutions were uneven. Most of the zones and all the special woredas did not have TVET institutions. Although the number of institutions increased until 2000, there were not many improvements in the rate of enrolment. Capacity utilisation, as a result, was low. In most cases, some colleges and institutions only had one department and no trainees at all in the other departments. There were high dropout rates and low graduation rates (SNNPR TVET Bureau, 2013:11). It is important to note that the TVET curriculum had neither been revised nor updated until 1998 (MOE, 2011:8). Moreover, the institutions were not internally effective due to a shortage of equipment and teaching materials; the lack of qualified

trainers, budget limitations, poor leadership and other challenges (MOE, 2015:5). As a result, the quality of training was poor and the prospect of TVET graduates securing employment was extremely poor.

The current education and training policy (TGE, 1994:16-17) in relation to TVET, envisioned different levels of training, namely, four to six months of basic and junior vocational training to dropouts and school leavers from primary schools and one, two or three years of vocational and technical training for post-secondary students (completers of grade 10). In 2002, 34 high schools were prepared to provide a 10+1 programme for those who had failed to pass the preparatory programme; at the same time, the SDCs became ready to provide 10+1 and 10+2 programmes in the years 2002 and 2003. In 2004, of the 34 high schools, 12 were selected to provide TVET together with the eight SDCs (skills development centres). Of the eight SDCs, three were upgraded to college level to provide a 10+3 programme. These were Hossana (for the construction sector), Arba Minch (in industrial skills), and Hawassa (in the business sector). The two Hawassa TVETs merged into one and one additional TVET opened in the Gurage zone in the Arket woreda. This did not increase the number of TVETs in the region. Therefore, the total numbers of TVETs in the region were 20. Within this short period, TVETs in the region passed through many phases in terms of organisational structure and development.

In 2007, Wolqite specialised in construction, Bonga in surveying, and Dilla in drafting and in 2008, Durame in industrial engineering. In 2011, Daye, Worabe, Alaba, Tercha, Sawla and Jinka upgraded from institute to college level. At the beginning of 2007, the system of 10+1, 10+2 and 10+3 was changed to levels 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. After the implementation of the levels, each college began to deliver TVET without specialisation up to level four. Moreover, they brought a change in terms of occupations, from soft trade to hard trade, that is, from business to industrial trade. In 2010, level five began in six colleges and at the same time, these colleges upgraded to polytechnic colleges at the level of an advanced diploma (Hossana, Hawassa, Arba Minch, Wolqite, Sodo & Aman).

TVET institutions in the SNNPR have passed through different reform periods. Currently, TVET is receiving attention from the federal government. Therefore, the sector is expected to play a pivotal role in the region's socio-economic development, poverty reduction schemes and the employment creation programme.

3.7.3 TVET Profile

The TVET profile will next be discussed at both national and regional levels.

3.7.3.1 National level

In 2013/14, as noted in Table 3.1 below, there were 437 TVET institutions in the country under government and non-government ownership. They enrolled 238,884 students in all their programmes. Oromiya has the largest enrolment of TVET, followed by Amhara and SNNPR respectively. In general, with the exception of centres of industry, TVET programmes are growing rapidly in urban centres where there is a high demand for skilled labour by employers (MOE, 2015:67).

Table 3.1 : Profile of TVET by region enrolment, centres and teachers

Region	2013/14			No. of TVET Centres	No. of Teachers		
	Male	Female	Total		Male	Female	Total
Tigray	6376	6229	12605	40	1226	254	1480
Afar	817	571	1388	2	26	5	31
Amhara	22174	32500	54674	74	2113	432	2545
Oromia	42011	40703	82714	212	4512	783	5295
Somale	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Benishangul-Gumuz	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
SNNPR	26918	24744	51662	65	1496	276	1772
Gambella	257	237	494	3	44	3	47
Harari	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Addis Ababa	15726	15460	31186	33	964	322	1286
Dire Dawa	2178	1983	4161	8	297	26	323
Total	116457	122427	238884	437	10678	2101	12779

Source: MOE, 2015 Annual Abstract

As depicted in the above table, there were 65 TVET institutions in the SNNPR both publicly and privately owned. These centres enrolled 51,662 students in regular, evening, summer and distance programmes in the 2013/14 academic year. This region has the third largest student enrolments in TVET in the country. Though the participation rate of men exceeds that of women for all levels, there has been a dramatic change in women's enrolment for the last 10 years in the region. Factors that explain the gender gap were the large number of females that married at a young age, and discrimination against hiring women.

3.7.3.2 SNNPR

In the region, TVET was regarded as one of the core development strategies through which the regional government wants to achieve social and economic development for society. Therefore, the regional government is currently carrying out intensive expansion and restructuring programmes in the sector to boost both the quality and quantity of middle-level human resources.

Table 3.2 :Distribution of TVET in SNNPR

Types of TVET	No. of TVET	No. of Trainees	No. of Teachers
Government	22	13234	571
NGO	5	375	18
Private	68	36513	797
Total	93	50122	1386

Source: SNNPR TVETB, 2013/14: 17

In 2013/14 academic year, as noted in the above table, there were 93 TVET institutions in the region under government, NGO and private ownership. (There is data variation between the MOE and the SNNPR abstract about the number of TVETs in the SNNPR since the figures given by them are respectively 65 and 93. This researcher prefers to work with the SNNPR abstract data). The number of TVET institutions and student enrolments under private ownership exceed those of the government by more than three times. Institutions enrolled 50122 students in regular, evening, summer and distance programmes. The number of private TVET colleges in the region appeared to be fewer than a decade ago. Within this short period, many students enjoyed access to education and most of them have changed their lives by getting jobs in public and private organisations. However, currently the number of private TVET institutions has diminished due to the implementation of Centres of Competence (COCs). The government gives strict orders that both public and private organisations should hire only certified applicants, that is, those who have a COC certificate.

The performance of labour markets in Ethiopia has been disappointing, even with the acceleration of growth in recent years. Job growth has been slow as a result of which unemployment has become high. Currently, the youth are facing the compounded challenges of sluggish job creation and low pay (World Bank, 2007:27).

3.7.3.3 SNNPR TVET proclamation of 2004

According to the 2004 TVET proclamation of the region (SNNPR Negarrit Gazetta, 2004: 3): “The dean of the institution shall be the chief executive officer of the institution and, without prejudice to the responsibilities of the Board.”

According to Ethiopia's MOE (2004: 6) proclamation:

Decentralisation gives much of the administrative, budget and other authority to individual TVET's in the interest of greater institutional autonomy, flexibility and responsiveness. In addition, it will also necessitate the introduction of new administrative tools for budget monitoring, control and financial planning. Such decentralisation is to be the major undertaking within an institutional culture characterised by a tradition of highly concentrated authority and centralised decision-making within the Ministry of Education.

Indeed, the need for such a "paradigm shift" in institutional culture and leadership behaviour as contained in the above quotations is identified as a major requirement for the success of the TVET reform effort. However, although the reform is progressive, the reality on the ground is different. A study conducted by Mehari (2010: 35) reports, "The main actor of the reform for post-secondary education in Ethiopia is the government." Consequently, the changes follow a top-down approach and colleges are there to implement what the government wants them to do. Compliance or conformity to new changes is their major organisational strategy to adapt to the changes. In addition, it has been found that the institutional autonomy of the colleges and universities is interfered with by the government. In other words, the organisational, financial, academic and staffing autonomy of the institutions is mainly determined by the government. Therefore, the leadership style seems bureaucratic and hierarchical, which poses challenges to deans leading these institutions.

3.7.4 TVET policy and management

The TVET policy and management will be discussed in the following sections.

3.7.4.1 Policies and plans

In ESDP IV (2010:9) it is reported:

Policies that guide TVET delivery in Ethiopia are found in various forms: as part of the national development plans, as sector-ministry policies and plans, as laws passed by parliament and as specific policy directives. The following plans are believed to set the directions for TVET policies at different levels: Education Sector Development Programmes I, II, III and IV, the Plan for Accelerated Sustainable Development to End Poverty and the Growth and Transformation Plan. The latest national development plan aims to make Ethiopia a fast growing industrialising economy with more than half of the employees in the formal non-agricultural sectors by 2025.

The government has to change the structure of the economy in order to realise the goal. If this is done effectively, the result will be the enhancement of production. MOFED (2014:25) has pointed

out that the two main strategies for achieving the expected goal of economic development are “Industrializing on the back of modern agriculture” and “Investing in people for enhanced productivity”.

Ethiopia has formulated a comprehensive national policy on TVET. This policy was made to be put into effect by the founding of the Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (MOE, 2008:2). The MOE explains that the main elements of the policy are the founding of a top structure for supervising and coordinating all aspects of TVET in Ethiopia, the founding of a national TVET qualification framework and the adoption of a competency-based training (CBT) approach for all TVET institutions. These elements are aimed at directing TVET implementation in this country.

The aforementioned policy issues require from leaders serious and vigilant leadership, a commitment to hard work and being willing to aspire, sacrifice and engage to be a leader (Gandz *et al.*, 2010:143). TVET Colleges require leaders willing and able to take stress and pressures (Yukl, 2010:73).

3.7.4.2 Vision, mission and objectives

The TVET colleges were restructured in Ethiopia in the year 2001. The restructuring of these TVET colleges was firstly aimed at addressing the critical need for creating a technically skilled, entrepreneurial work force and secondly, improving the quality and relevance of TVET. The most critical areas given attention by the government for the necessity of TVET expansion were those that stimulated rapid development. Such areas were: construction, automotive, electricity and electronics, manufacturing technology, ICT, business and service, hotel and tourism, culture, and textile and garments. On the basis of the policy of the MOE, TVET is entirely committed to strengthening training, research and development activities that facilitate human resources development (MOE, 2008: 7; Monika, 2009:8).

TVET carries out its programmes through strong partnerships and collaboration with other local and international institutions, like the German government through the engineering capacity building programme (ECBP), for maximising efficiency and effectiveness (Altenburg, 2010:15; ECBP, 2009:3).

The creation of competent and self-reliant citizens is the main vision of TVET in Ethiopia. Such citizens are expected to contribute much to the economic and social development of the country. As a result, it is hoped that poverty will be reduced (MOE, 2008: 3). According to Altenburg (2010:37), the TVET mission is to produce technicians with skills, work attitude and knowledge relevant to the industrial and social needs (ECBP, 2009:12).

The overall objective of the National TVET Strategy (MOE, 2008:12) is to:

...create a competent, motivated, adaptable and innovative workforce in Ethiopia contributing to poverty reduction and social and economic development by facilitating demand-driven high quality technical and vocational education and training relevant to all sectors of the economy at all levels and to all people.

Accordingly, the existence of high calibre leaders is essential for accomplishing the vision and mission in the TVET institutions. Such a leader is expected to have the ability of attracting and retaining capable employees, motivating them to make their best efforts, and solving problems that arise (Wren, 1995:257; Manning & Curtis, 2007:4). Hence, TVET leaders, through their ideas and deeds provide the required guidance and leadership.

3.7.4.3 Laws and regulations

By Proclamation No. 41/1993, the MOE is given the power to formulate the country's educational policies and strategies and to ensure their implementation (FDRE, 1993). The Proclamation of the Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia of 1995 stipulates that the state must provide resources for educational services and implement national standards and basic policy criteria for education. The Constitution states that education shall be provided in a way that is free from any religious considerations, political partisanship or cultural prejudices (FDRE, 1995).

Based on the declaration of the Education and Training Policy of 1994 TGE (1994: 23) educational management is decentralised at present to create the conditions to expand, enrich and improve the relevance, quality, accessibility and equity of education and training. It is hoped that educational management will be democratic, professional, coordinated, efficient and effective, and will encourage the participation of women. Educational institutions are to be given autonomy to guide their own internal administration and design as well as implement education and training programmes. This is to be carried out with the overall coordination and democratic leadership by a board. The community, development and research institutions, teachers and students are to be included in the board.

The strengthening of the management and administration is addressed in the Schools Proclamation No. 217 of FDRE (2000:4), which indicates:

Councils of National/Regional governments and Councils of City Administrations accountable to the Federal government may issue regulations with respect to the administration and management, the educational curriculum, the employment and administration of teachers in public schools situated in

their respective region; and supervise the implementation of the same. Education Bureaus of National/Regional Governments and City Administrations may issue directives to implement regulations issued by their respective Councils of National/Regional Governments and City Administrations.

The TEVT Proclamation No. 391 of 2004 (FDRE, 2004:8) provides for:

The establishment of a system under which trainees undergo apprenticeship training in productive and service rendering enterprises; the establishment of a uniform system for the determination of levels of competence and accreditation of training institutions and for the certification of trainees; and for the establishment of a mechanism providing for the participation of governmental and non-governmental organisations in the preparation of training programs and curricula as well as in their evaluation and management.

Regional Councils appoint the TVET bureau head. They approve capital and recurrent budget allocations. Each college has a committee which works hand in hand with the dean who is responsible for administration and management.

3.7.5 Facts and figures

The technical vocational education and training sub-sector which was at a rudimentary stage earlier, has made considerable progress since 1994/5 being supported by proclamation No.351/2004, that provided stimulus to its expansion (FDRE, 2004:5). According to the MOE annual abstract issued in 2015, there are 437 TVET institutions versus a mere 17 in 1994/5. There was a total enrolment of 238,884 students by the end of 2013/14 (MOE, 2015:67). This is a substantial increase compared to the total enrolment of 2,338 students recorded in 1994/5 (MOE, 1995:53).

The total enrolment in TVET in the year 2009/10 was 353,420 whereas it has decreased in the year 2013/14 to 238,049 (Table 3.3). As noted in Table 3.3 below, in the year 2013/2014, female enrolment constitutes 51.3% of total enrolment indicating a good gender balance at the national level.

Table 3.3: TVET Enrolment

Sex	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	Average annual growth rate in %
Male	196,937	199,799	173,148	116,457	115,942	-10.1
Female	158,483	171,548	157,261	122,427	122,107	-5.1
Total	353,420	371,347	314,159	238,884	238,049	-7.6
% Female	43.9	48	46.2	51.2	51.3	3.2

Source: MOE, 2015 Annual Abstract

Table 3.3 shows the TVET enrolment has been increasing from the year 2009/10 to 2010/11 but decreasing from 2011/12 to 2013/14 and reflects that this figure is small in comparison to the number of students who should have been enrolled in TVET programmes for the past three years (The data do not include the data from non-formal or short-term TVET training centres).

It is interesting to note that Girma, Zewdu and Tesfaye (1997:3) have pointed out that in spite of the notable positive trends in TVET developments hitherto mentioned, people still have doubts about the programme. They explain that the most common concerns were the quality of training, the overcrowding of trainees, the limited infrastructure, the shortage of skilled manpower, and the shortage of learning materials.

3.7.6 Demand and supply

Nebil, Gezahegn and Hayat (2010:29) have indicated that the demand for TVET in Ethiopia is high whereas the supply side is low. There is a high demand for skills training, especially for artisan and other craftsmen of different technical levels. This high demand is congruent with the existing young population of Ethiopia. According to the census of 2007, the age group from 0 to 14 constituted over half of the total population. From this census it was ascertained that the annual population growth rate was 2.6% (CSA, 2008:14; Nebil *et al.*, 2010:2).

In 2013/14, the primary school enrolment reached 13,976,846. On the basis of this fact, it is expected that on average, about two million young people will complete general primary education (grades 1 to 8) each year. The option of the accumulated number of students leaving primary education is either entry into skill training or entering the labour market without skills. Among those who complete general secondary education (from grade 9-10), only about 22.3% are expected to enter the preparatory program (grade 11-12) for the preparation of university education; the rest enter the labour market or seek some form of skills training. The overwhelming demand for education and

training at all levels has disturbed the balance between social and economic demand for TVET (Altenburg, 2010:12; Rehm, 1989:112; MOE, 2015:21).

According to the ECBP (2009:4) and DFID (2010:6), the number of students to join the TVET sector has become extremely large. The basic academic skills are the foundation for successful skills learning. Consequently, TVET colleges have experienced unprecedented growth and support from society, business and industry, particularly with respect to their important role in providing middle level job training (Tekeste, 2006:36).

The reasons for the weakness of the supply side of TVET are negligence and inadequate government support and mediocre leadership that have existed for decades (UNESCO, 2003:18). According to DFID (2010:6), the weaknesses of the sector are: the insufficient capacity of existing institutions, the inadequate supply of training materials, obsolete training equipment, poor infrastructure, inexperienced teaching staff, outdated textbooks and curricula and poor links with industry. The ESDP IV Review (MOE, 2014:6) has stated that infrastructure in TVET colleges has continued to be poor. They conclude that at present the supply side of the TVET sector has become unable to cope with the demand for skills training and also to produce quality skilled labour required by industries. This state of affairs indeed calls for leadership of an exceptional quality. This study wants to make a contribution in this regard by evaluating the effectiveness of the leadership styles employed by the deans of TVET colleges.

3.8 CONCLUSION

Two factors are of prominent importance to allow Ethiopia to become a middle level income country. These are the general growth in TVET enrolment and the production of middle-level human resources. The optimistic view regarding the provision of TVET is based on the supposition that the development of the Ethiopian economy matches a likely demand for middle level human resources where the provided number and kind of TVET graduates may match the labour market demand. The existing reality in Ethiopia exhibits that employers as well as the society consider TVET graduates as weak in almost all aspects of work. It is of decisive importance to produce adequately trained learners at the TVET level throughout Ethiopia which will contribute to national economic development. This becomes realistic only when organisations are led by high calibre leaders.

In this chapter the researcher attempted to contextualise the sector in which TVET deans work. The next chapter focuses on the research design and methodology of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the research design and research methodology of the research will be presented. This includes discussions on the approaches followed in the research, the research aims and objectives and research questions, the considerations regarding the population composition, the sample size and sampling, the choice of perception measuring instruments to collect data, the physical data collection, the issues of reliability and validity and a statistical analysis strategy that will eventually address the research questions. In addition, the ethical issues related to research execution are also discussed.

4.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research methodology described in this chapter is designed to answer the research questions of the study as stated in chapter 1, paragraph 1.3. These research questions were derived from the objectives of the study, which motivated the study. The primary objective was, “To evaluate the perceived effectiveness of the leadership styles of deans in SNNPR governmental TVET colleges.”

Chapter one, paragraph 1.4.2 states that the specific research objectives are to:

- Identify the dominant leadership styles practised in the TVET colleges.
- Examine the relationships among the three leadership styles.
- Discover the various leadership styles utilised by TVET college deans.
- Determine the predictors of the effectiveness pertaining to the perceived deans’ leadership styles.
- Verify the predictors of job satisfaction pertaining to the perceived deans’ leadership style outcomes.
- Find out which are the predictors of motivation pertaining to the perceived deans’ leadership styles.

The primary research question formulated from the research objective is: “To what extent do the leadership styles adopted by deans have an influence on the government TVET colleges’ perceived effectiveness as evaluated by deans, teachers and students?”

The sub-research questions stated in chapter 1, paragraph 1.3 based on the main research question

and related to the specific research aims, queried the following issues, namely:

- What are the most dominant leadership styles (*transformational*, *transactional*, and *laissez-faire*) practised by the deans of the SNNPR TVET colleges?
- What is the relationship between the *transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* leadership styles?
- To what extent are perceptions of the *effectiveness* of deans influenced by the leadership style (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit?
- To what extent are perceptions of *job satisfaction* influenced by the leadership style/s (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit?
- To what extent are perceptions of *performance* influenced by the leadership style/s (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit?

The rest of this chapter now explains how this research was planned, structured and executed (the research methodology), the validity and reliability of the research instruments and the ethical considerations of the study.

4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

So far the research questions have been discussed. The next section will deal with the research methodology in detail.

4.3.1 Research design

Once the research question/s had been formulated, the planning of the research focussed on the most appropriate research design that would support the research actions and data required to address the research questions. It is important to point out that answering the research questions would achieve the stated research objective/s. The nature of the research question/s suggested that the information required should be collected using a questionnaire and interviews. In selecting an appropriate research design for the study, the literature on research designs discussed in the following paragraphs was taken into consideration regarding the types of data the researcher anticipated would be required for the study and the research questions to be answered.

Kumar (2005: 9) refers to research design as “the plan and schedule of work or the process of creating an empirical test to support or reject knowledge claims” For him, a research design advises the researcher on how to proceed in a research endeavour. According to Abbas and Charles (2002:298), a research design serves the researcher as a logical model that allows a researcher to draw inferences from the data findings and decide on the generalisability of the findings. Therefore,

a research design is a work plan that guides a researcher in the process of respondent selection, and collection, analysing and interpreting observational and response data.

The data the researcher plans to collect in the form of responses to closed-ended questionnaire questions will be quantitative data since closed-ended responses to questions imply a limited subset of numbered category response options. This implies that the researcher conducted this part of the research within the positivist paradigm with its emphasis on objective data. In addition, data will also be collected through interviews in order to obtain in-depth information through qualitative means, implying the post-positivist paradigm of data collection.

Although the questionnaire will form the greater proportion of the research and analyses, qualitative data is deemed necessary to add depth to the understanding of the effect of the leadership styles of deans; to enhance and explain quantitative results and assist in triangulation of the research findings. A qualitative approach refers to a more informal descriptive way of data collection and analysis. This type of research increases an understanding of individuals, and describes events in their natural setting on the bases of their relevant context (Borg & Borg, 1993:49; Siggelkow, 2007:22). Nconco (2006:64) states that an important component of qualitative research is contextual analysis, which assists in placing the facts and figures (of an institution or phenomenon) in perspective by describing the facts and figures within their true contexts.

Qualitative research methods, such as interviews and document analysis, can be costly and time-consuming. Punch (2003:23) and Gall and Borg (2007:64) argue that quantitative methods, on the contrary, are relatively low-cost and time-efficient in relation to the number of respondents and data that can be amassed under more regulated circumstances. The researchers state that by applying sound sampling principles, an unbiased, representative research sample (and representative data) can be obtained which will yield statistically reliable results and findings if appropriate statistical techniques are applied and if statistical assumptions are honoured.

According to Neuman (2006:150), qualitative methods in which interviews are also included, raise methodological and ethical issues about the effect of the research results on the data collected from the participants. On the other hand, Neumann limits the quantitative approach to highly structured data extraction techniques. For him, the quantitative approach does not provide the flexibility that qualitative methods inherently have during the problem investigation phase. To draw on the inherent strengths of each approach, this study, therefore, incorporated both the quantitative and qualitative approaches, but with the main emphasis on the quantitative approach. Patton (1990:228), Vulliamy, Lewin and Steven (1990: 47) and Locke (2001:196) argue that the available research evidence is increasingly supportive of both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies as

complementary rather than opposing paradigms. The research design appropriate for this study was therefore regarded as a mixed-methods research design.

4.3.2 Considerations regarding the sample composition

Twenty-two (22) government colleges fall within the SNNPR of Ethiopia and provide different types of training commensurate with the level of recognition gained from the TVET Bureau. Six of the colleges provide level I-V recognised training qualifications, which give these colleges the status of poly-technical institutions (Level IV is equivalent to an advanced diploma). The second category of TVET institutions, which provide a recognised level I-IV training (equivalent to a diploma qualification), are referred to as colleges. There are nine of these TVET institutions. The third category provides recognised level I-II training and there are seven institutions in total that are classified as institutes.

Table 4.1 :Classification of TVET educational establishments according to level of recognised training offered

TVET centre types	Recognised training levels	No. of TVETs	Qualification
Polytechnic	I-V	6	Advanced Diploma
College	I – IV	9	Diploma
Institute	I – II	7	Institute
Total		22	

Source: SNNPR TVETB, 2013:6

The research plans to collect information from deans, teachers and students of these educational establishments; therefore, the deans, teachers and students represent the target population of the study. In total, 66 deans, 1008 teachers and 23,646 students are affiliated with the TVET educational establishments (SNNPR TVET Bureau, 2013:12) and selected respondents in the sampling came from this target population.

Deans, teachers and students were selected to participate in the study because of the nature of the research: deans were selected because the research aimed to evaluate their leadership styles, the teaching staff were selected because of their perceptions of their dean’s leadership styles and how effectively their dean led his/her faculty. Lastly, students, represented in the student council, were selected because they engaged with and interacted with their particular deans and perceived their leadership styles at a completely different level to that of the teaching staff. The student councils interacted with the dean in their capacity in certain decision-making processes of the colleges.

4.3.3 Sample size, sampling techniques and sampling

An initial estimate of the magnitude of the appropriate sample size was obtained from a table of the appropriate sample size for various à priori alpha values and acceptable margins of error for the categorical data developed by Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgins (2001:446). The magnitude of an appropriate sample for studies with a population size exceeding 10,000 is suggested to be 370 (assuming categorical data are collected; with an à priori alpha level of 0.05 and the margin of error is 0.05).

A number of issues were taken into consideration when selecting the 370 respondents from the subsets of deans, lecturers and students. Firstly, ten of the twenty-two educational establishments were randomly selected and the 370 respondents were then selected from these institutions to keep the study within manageable proportions and the financial restrictions. The fact that ten centres representing polytechnics, colleges and institutes had been selected implied that 30 deans (three per college); 70 (seven per institution) student representatives and 327 lecturers (the total for the 10 educational establishments) were available for selection. To ensure uniformity across educational establishments, it was secondly decided to select the prime dean of each educational establishment, thus setting the number of deans for sample inclusion to 10.

Thirdly, it was decided to select only student council members for the sample since it was argued that this particular subgroup of students was more exposed to a different level of interaction with deans than ordinary students, namely, on the level of policy decision-making, and this would most probably differ from the interaction of ordinary students with their prime dean. This resulted in 70 student council members being available for selection. All 70 were included in the survey sample. Lastly, 290 lecturers were selected from the available lecturer subset of 327 (a ratio of 0.9). On average 91% of the lecturers of each educational establishment (10) were included in the survey sample. Table 4.2 reports on the number of respondents selected per educational establishment.

Table 4.2: Sampling allocation per sampled educational establishment

No	Name of TVET colleges	Status	Total Deans	Sample	Total teachers	Sample	Total student council members	Sample
1	Hossana	Polytechnic	3	1	66	56	7	7
2	Aman	Polytechnic	3	1	12	12	7	7
3	Arba Minch	Polytechnic	3	1	37	34	7	7
4	Dilla	College	3	1	68	57	7	7
5	Sawla	College	3	1	16	15	7	7
6	Butajira	College	3	1	41	35	7	7
7	Aleta Wondo	College	3	1	25	24	7	7
8	Jinka	Institute	3	1	15	14	7	7
9	Halaba	Institute	3	1	33	30	7	7
10	Daye	Institute	3	1	14	13	7	7
Total (N = 370)			30	10	327	290	70	70
Semi-structured interview samples also included ten deans and a Bureau official.								

Source: SNNPR TVETB, 2013:28

Therefore, ten prime deans, 290 teachers and 70 student council members were surveyed in the study. As the above discussion indicates, sampling was purposive for the deans and students; while the teachers were selected using simple random sampling within each educational establishment. Concerning purposive sampling, the sampling is done with a purpose in mind (Kemmis, 1992:23; Buck, Cook, Quigley, Eastwood & Lucas, 2009:391). In this instance, the primary dean was selected per establishment because of his/ her particular position and student council members were selected because of their unique interactions with the primary dean. Simple random sampling on the other hand, used to select the teachers, is a probability sampling procedure, which gives every element in the population an equal chance of being selected (Scheaffer, Mendenhall & Ott, 2006:2).

For the semi-structured interviews - as part of the qualitative study - purposive sampling was used to collect information from all the sampled TVET college deans (ten in number) and one head of the TVET bureau participated in the interviews. Purposive sampling was decided upon since the researcher felt that the deans could provide in-depth data and share their insights into the complexities of the phenomenon through probes and prompts (Kemmis, 1992:23). Moreover, the bureau head was purposely included because of his positional information of knowing about the activities of the deans. According to the TVET structure, deans are under the direct supervision of

the TVET bureau. In general, purposive sampling was selected since the researcher felt that the TVET head official was a vital, informed respondent who should not be overlooked.

4.3.4 Perception measuring instruments and data collection

For this study, two means of data collection were used. The first instrument, a quantitative measuring instrument, was identified in the MLQ (5X-Short-Form) developed and refined by Bass and Avolio (1995:13). This will be discussed in more detail in paragraph 4.3.4.1 of this chapter. The second means for collecting data, a qualitative information collection technique, were semi-structured interviews. This will be examined further in paragraph 4.3.4.2 of this chapter.

4.3.4.1 Quantitative research

a) MLQ (5X-Short Form) survey questionnaire and administration

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire MLQ (5X-Short Form) which was used in this study was developed and refined by Bass and Avolio (1995:14). The MLQ (5X-Short Form) evaluates transformational, transactional and passive/avoidant/*laissez faire* leadership styles. It is a 360 degree tool that helps to gather information from different angles, and as indicated above, the tool has a self-report version as well as a version for other raters. Raters of a leader (and therefore leadership styles) can be selected from a higher level in the organisation, the same level, or employees that report directly to the leader being assessed (Bass & Riggio, 2006:20). In this study, both the leader and rater versions of the questionnaire were administered.

The MLQ (5X-Short Form) is the most recent version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass and Avolio, 2005:13). The original Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire developed by Bass in 1985 measured six leadership factors: charisma, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, contingent rewards, management-by-exception and *laissez-faire* (Bass, 1985:7). The most recent MLQ (5X-Short Form) is a full range assessment tool that measures nine leadership components. This model simulates leadership styles as highly transformational at one end of the leadership continuum and highly avoidant at the other (Bass and Avolio, 2005:13).

Since 1985, the MLQ has undergone many revisions to verify its construct validity. The latest version of the MLQ is the 5X short-form (Avolio & Bass, 1995:213), which has been used in many research programmes, doctoral dissertations and masters' theses around the world (Bass & Avolio, 2000:7). This version has also been translated into Spanish, French, Chinese, Korean, and other languages (Bass & Avolio, 2000:2). The MLQ (5X-Short Form) refinements to the leadership factors

do not negate the significance of the original 6-factors model. Rather, the authors endeavour to develop and refine the constructs associated with leadership styles and behaviour more precisely.

The MLQ (5X-Short Form), contains 45 descriptive items. These items are utilised to measure, as mentioned above, nine leadership components (Bass & Avolio: 2000: 14). These components include idealised attributes, idealised behaviours, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), management-by-exception (passive) and *laissez-faire*. The components of intellectual stimulation, individualised influence (behaviour), inspirational motivation, individualised influence (attributed) and individualised consideration evaluate transformational leadership traits and the three other components (contingent reward, management-by-exception active, and management-by-exception passive) evaluate transactional leadership traits, while the remaining one component evaluates *laissez-faire* leadership traits.

Moreover, nine questionnaire statements (items) measure the perceived effect (outcomes of leadership) of the specific leadership style on employees or stakeholders. The nine questions queried three aspects of leadership effect, namely satisfaction, motivation regarding extra effort and effectiveness of the leaders. Extra effort focuses on the effect of leaders' efforts to motivate their staff to deliver an extraordinary achievement. Effectiveness refers to the leaders' successful achievements and realisation of staff needs. Satisfaction refers to a leader's ability to generate satisfaction in their followers (Bass & Avolio 1997: 13; Bass & Avolio, 2005: 14).

Therefore, each component is evaluated by a subset of four questionnaire statements (transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire*) and the outcomes of leadership are evaluated by a subset of three questionnaire statements (extra effort), four questionnaire statements (effectiveness) and two questionnaire statements (satisfaction), which respondents rate on a five point Likert rating scale (0 = "never"; 1 = "once in a while"; 2 = "sometimes"; 3 = "fairly often"; 4 = "frequently, if not always"). An example of a question on **contingency rewards** in the self-rating version of the MLQ (5X-Short) for example states:

"I promise others assistance in exchange for their efforts"

A question on **contingency rewards** in the stakeholder rating version for example states:

"My dean promises assistance in exchange for my efforts."

The questionnaire layout is explained in detail in Table 4.3; and the questionnaire statements are listed in Appendix H (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003:267; Bass & Avolio, 2004: 14).

Table 4.3 :Questionnaire layout regarding leadership components, styles and perceived effect of styles

Dominant style and outcome of style	Leadership components	Questionnaire statement
Transformational leadership	Individualised influence (attributed)	10, 18, 21, 25
	Individualised influence (behaviour)	6, 14, 23, 24
	Individualised consideration	15, 19, 29, 31
	Inspirational motivation	9, 13, 26, 36
	Intellectual stimulation (IS)	2, 8, 30, 32
Transactional leadership	Contingent reward (CR)	1, 11, 16, 35
	Manage-by-exception (passive)	3, 12, 17, 20
	Manage-by-exception (active)	4, 22, 24, 27
	<i>Laissez-faire</i>	5, 7, 28, 39
Leadership outcomes	Extra effort	39, 42, 44
	Effectiveness of leadership style	37, 40, 43, 45
	Satisfaction with leadership style	38, 41
The score per leadership component per respondent is calculated as the mean rating value for the particular subset of questionnaire items that evaluate a component of leadership or outcome of leadership style.		

(b) Questionnaire structure

According to Ticehurst and Veal (2000:14), open-ended and pre-coded questions are the two types of survey questions. Open-ended questions may cause low quality results for the reason that they can have very low response rates from participants. Accordingly, pre-coded or closed questions which consist of two parts are used in this study. Part A focuses on the characteristics of participants including gender, age, levels of education, sizes of TVET colleges and levels of TVET colleges. Part B focuses on the MLQ (5X-Short Form) and includes items 1 to 45. A 5-point scale was used in Part B (See Appendix H).

(c) Questionnaire procurement and Amharic translation

The latest self-rating and rating versions of the MLQ (5X-Short Form) questionnaire was purchased on the Internet from “*Mind Garden Incorporated*” (see permission details in Appendix G). The MLQ (5X-Short Form) has been tested for reliability, and this version contains the most effective set of questions for assessing the nine components of leadership (Bass & Avolio 2005:13).

The MLQ (5X-Short Form) was administered to the sampled deans, teachers and students. Deans were requested to complete the self-rater version of the questionnaire; while students and teachers completed the rater version. The students and teachers were requested to rate their particular prime college dean. In this way, specific leadership styles were determined, and perceived leadership style effects on stakeholders were assessed.

The MLQ (5X-Short Form) was translated to and administered in Amharic as this is the first language of Ethiopia and is spoken by all Ethiopians. The researcher reasoned that, since the average Ethiopian was not fluent in English, survey results might not be as reliable if questionnaire administration and completion were in English since respondents might interpret questions incorrectly.

To validate that the Amharic translated questionnaire corresponded with the original English version, translation to Amharic was undertaken by two Ethiopian academics fluent in English. The Amharic version was then translated back to English by two independent Ethiopian-English speaking academics (unknown to the Amharic translators) to ensure that the back-translated English version agreed completely with the original English version. The original English version and back-translated version were included as an appendix to this thesis (See Appendix H-K). More information on this issue is provided in the next paragraph on validity.

Once the translation process has been completed, the Amharic version was pilot tested at the Hawassa Polytechnic College (it is one of the 22 institutions in the region) to ensure that the questions were suitable for the Ethiopian educational environment and culture.

(d) Validity of the measuring instrument

According to Cohen *et al.* (2007:133), validity enables one to consider whether or not the research design, instruments and procedures accurately assess the variables or constructs the research process is intended to measure. It comprises two parts, internal and external. Internal validity investigates the research design, instruments used for measurements and the variables included in the study to assess the firmness of the methodology. It also considers to what extent the research design considers confounding variables. It is important to note that internal validity focuses on the accuracy of the results. External validity considers whether or not the research design supports the generalisation of the findings and conclusions of the study to a larger population. It also examines the sampling procedures and the setting in which the data is collected.

The researcher selected the MLQ (5X-Short Form) to measure transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire* leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 2004:14), because it has been validated in many

respects: it has been used in many studies across the world representing a range of cultures (Kirkbride, 2006:30) and Hartog, Muijen and Kolopman (1997:27), for example, attest to the validity of the MLQ (5XShort Form).

Since the population of Ethiopia is Amharic speaking, and very few are proficient in English, translation of the questionnaire to Amharic was deemed essential. To ensure that the translated questionnaire measured what it was initially intended and designed to measure (the most recent English version), the validity of the Amharic translated questionnaire was deemed a crucial aspect of the trustworthiness of the findings of this study. To ensure validity, the translation of the MLQ 5X to Amharic was carried out by language experts in the school of language and journalism of Dilla University, Ethiopia. The translated Amharic version was firstly piloted to check its content validity in the context of Ethiopian culture. Once verified, the questionnaire was translated back to English by translators who were expert in English. The original English version was then compared with the back translated version to verify that the meaning of questionnaire statements was not compromised by the translation process in any way. The MLQ (5X-Short Form) instrument in English and Amharic appears in (Appendix H-K).

(e) The reliability of the MLQ 5X short-form questionnaire

Reliability pertains to the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study. Moreover, it refers to the instrument's ability to measure consistently and accurately if applied to the same population repeatedly. Therefore, reliability indicates whether or not an instrument consistently yields the same result (Joppa, 2000:1048).

Various forms of reliability are defined and measured (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:133). Internal consistency reliability represents one of these forms and is of relevance to this study. This form of reliability measures whether all the items in a subset of questionnaire items contribute jointly towards describing a particular construct (such as *laissez-faire* in the MLQ 5X questionnaire) accurately and reliably. A coefficient referred to as the Cronbach alpha coefficient acts as an indicator of internal consistency reliability. A Cronbach alpha value in the region of 0.70 or greater is regarded as a sufficient measure of consistency reliability (Gliner, Morgan & Harmon, 2000: 1568-1570).

The MLQ5X questionnaire has been used extensively in more than 200 studies in recent years, and excellent consistency reliability has been reported in these studies. Internal consistency reliability of each leadership component and job-related element of the MLQ (5X-Short Form) questionnaire was verified by Avolio and Bass in a comprehensive study involving 2000 respondents and reported

excellent Cronbach alpha coefficients on each of the nine leadership constructs and three job-related satisfaction constructs of the questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 2000:13). These figures are presented in Table 4.4.

In an independent study reported by Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008:9) for example, the coefficient alpha of the MLQ was found to be 0.93. The consistency reliability of the nine leadership construct scales of the MLQ varied between 0.74 and 0.94. The researcher, therefore, felt confident that the reliability of the measuring instrument could be guaranteed, given the translation of the questionnaire to Amharic was executed meticulously.

Table 4.4 : Alpha Coefficients for MLQ 5X; total sample (N=2154) Bass and Avolio (2000)

Leadership component	Mean rating	Std. Dev	Norm alpha
Idealised attributed	2.56	0.84	0.86
Idealized behaviour	2.64	0.85	0.87
Inspirational motivation	2.64	0.87	0.91
Intellectual stimulation	2.51	0.86	0.90
Individual consideration	2.66	0.93	0.90
Contingent reward	2.20	0.89	0.87
Manage by exception (active)	1.74	0.77	0.74
Manage by exception (passive)	1.11	0.82	0.82
<i>Laissez faire</i>	0.89	0.74	0.83
Job satisfaction	2.57	1.28	0.94
Extra effort	2.60	1.16	0.91
Effectiveness	2.62	0.72	0.91

(f) Statistical analysis strategy

In order to address the research question stated in the introduction to this chapter on the effect of leadership style and perceived effectiveness, various exploratory and inferential statistical techniques applicable to categorical data analysis were used. These include:

- The calculation of frequency distributions on the biographical attributes of respondents collected during questionnaire administration (in an addendum to the questionnaire). This enabled the researcher to describe the sample and place quantitative and qualitative research findings within a certain research context and environment.
- The verification of internal consistency reliability of the nine components by means of scale reliability testing.

The calculation of leadership component scores (9) for each respondent and presentation of these preliminary results as descriptive analysis tables for the nine components. This gave the researcher an initial overview of trends in leadership traits.

Based on the norms set by Bass and Avolio (2000:18), a classification of the perceived leadership style of deans was undertaken, and frequency distributions on perceived styles will be presented (refer to Table 4.5 for a brief outline of dominant leadership style determination).

Once leadership styles, as perceived by respondents, have been identified and classified, linear regression was conducted to investigate the effect (statistical dependence) of leadership styles on the satisfaction expressed by respondents; on respondents' perceived effectiveness of the leadership style; and on respondents' motivation to put in extra effort in their work.

The results will be illustrated and highlighted in tables and graphical displays.

Table 4.5: Norms for classifying dominant leadership styles as derived from Bass and Avolio, 2000

Leader-ship constructs	Leadership traits	Questionnaire statement	Resultant leadership classification
Transformational construct	t1: Individualised influence (attributed) t2: Individualised influence (behaviour) t3: Individualised consideration t4: Inspirational motivation t5: Intellectual stimulation (IS)	At least 3 of construct scores (t1-t5) ≥ 3	Transformational style
Transactional construct	ts1: Contingent reward (CR) ts2: Manage by exception (passive) ts3: Manage by exception (active) ts4: <i>Laissez faire</i>	Constr. score (ts1) ≥ 3 , & constr. score (ts2) ≥ 2 , & constr. Score (ts3) ≥ 2	Transactional style
		Constr. score (ts2) ≥ 3 , & constr. score (ts3) ≥ 3 , & constr. score (ts4) ≥ 3 , & constr. score (t1-t5, ts1) < 2	<i>Laissez-faire</i>

After obtaining permission from the TVET bureau to conduct research at the selected colleges under its auspices (see Appendix O), the researcher commenced to get permission from the administrative bodies of the colleges under study before starting to carry out the research.

The researcher visited sampled institutions and administered the questionnaires personally. The questionnaire was jointly administered to respondents at pre-arranged survey sessions. It was envisaged that these sessions would save time and money, boost the motivational levels of respondents and maximise the return rate.

A period of three months (October to December, 2014) was used for administration at all sampled institutions. Once all administration sessions had been completed, questionnaire responses were captured electronically by the researcher. Before the questionnaires were submitted for data capturing, the integrity of the data was verified by checking questionnaire responses by hand.

4.3.4.2. Qualitative research

Qualitative research approach knowledge is constructed in an inductive view. The main emphasis is placed on understanding of the social world through the examination and the interpretation of that world by its participants in a constructivist perspective. A qualitative finding mainly involves interview and open-ended questionnaire data (also used in this study) in constructing meanings and knowledge (Bryman, 2008: 37; Creswell, 2003:46). It involves participating in or immersing oneself in the social world where people and their institutions are located, examining the way they interact together, the meaning they give to their interactions and the world they live in (Bryman, 2008:38). In this study semi-structured interviews were conducted.

(a) Semi-structured interview.

The researcher found that one of the effective instruments to collect data is the interview technique. Berg (2004:5) suggests that this form of data collection is highly effective for the establishment of rapport, boosting response rates and data quality. According to Kumar (2005:87) and Zikmund (2000:418), an experienced interviewer can create trust within an open and relaxed environment, which will encourage interviewees to speak freely. Such an interviewer can collect additional, critical information on the interviewee by observing his/her body language, and prepare interviewees to sensitive questions. However, the issue of sharing confidential information with a stranger remains an issue, and in-depth interviews can be expensive and time-consuming (Minichiello, Rosalie & Terrence, 2008:71; Walliman, 2006:95; Zikmund, 2000: 417).

The second instrument that was utilised in this study was thus semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews are used to collect data by means of direct and verbal interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee (Walliman, 2006:94; Lankshear & Knobel, 2004:202). This method involves a semi-structured environment in which information is collected in a question and open-response interaction situation. In-depth interviews will produce the most comprehensive information

(Nesbary, 2000:26). Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the mentioned ten TVET deans and one TVET Bureau official because the researcher reasoned that they were the most important persons to be interviewed. Also, it was the only qualitative measure that was affordable and practical to pursue. The researcher omitted the interview of students and teachers for the following two reasons: Most students of the TVET colleges were not found mature enough to give detailed responses. Their immaturity was observed by the responses they gave to the open-ended items. Teachers of TVET colleges were found to lack knowledge of how they were managed as teachers. Their responses to the open-ended questions in the questionnaire were also found to be lacking.

The interview schedule designed for these interviews was structured to probe participants' views on leadership styles they used in running a particular college. The participants were linked to the college they represented; but, their anonymity was protected by awarding random codes to deans. The interview schedules were semi-structured with the aim of allowing participants to share, highlight and explain their viewpoints in addition to allowing the researcher to seek clarification from the participants on the findings of quantitative analysis. In this way, triangulation of research findings was achieved (Kumar, 2005:94).

Apart from the verification and clarification of the quantitative findings, interviews are mostly used to cover the untouched areas of the (quantitative) questionnaire. Furthermore, it provides the researcher with control over the order of the interview and research focus. Again, it offers spontaneity and provides flexibility as a result of which the interviewer may push not only for extensive answers, but also allow the participants to respond as they wish (Bell, 2008: 13; Cohen *et al.*, 2007: 148).

The interview items, therefore, covered the quantitative analysis findings; and areas such as the TEVT officials' leadership philosophy; views on transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire* style of leadership; effectiveness of types of leadership styles; importance of employee work satisfaction; and level of employee commitment. The interviews were conducted once the quantitative results became available.

(b) Field work and interview administration

The interviews were tape-recorded and attentively listened to. This was to identify the emerging themes from the rich data. The interview data was to be used either to support or refute the findings of the analysis (triangulation). The researcher carried out an analysis on the interview data focussing mainly on the basis of content analysis to measure the meanings associated with each leadership style (Cooper & Schindler 1998:169). Content analysis is an important form of thematic analysis.

The researcher investigated the use of words as well as the main themes that emanated from descriptions provided by participants in their answers (Zikmund 2000:421).

The interview participants held top-level managerial roles in their colleges and bureau. Side by side with conducting the quantitative research, the participants would be looked for to be approached to obtain their willingness to be interviewed. Potential participants were provided with the Informed Consent Request Form. A copy of the Informed Consent Request Form is included as Appendix N.

The researcher made it clear that participation was voluntary and that the participants would have a period during which they could consider the invitation. When the participants agreed to participate, the researcher had to check on their availability to be interviewed. The interviews were conducted on different days for the college deans and on one day for the TVET Bureau official.

Before each interview session began, the participants were given the reassurance that all interview information would be handled such that they remain anonymous. The participants were assured that they could withdraw from the study without providing reasons, and that their withdrawal would have no consequences for them, their designated offices or to this study. The participants were given the “Consent to Participation in Interview” sheet to be signed.

The interviews were carried out over a two-month period. All interviews were conducted at the participants’ offices and in strict confidentiality. No other people apart from the interview participants were present during the interviews. All the interviews were audio taped. Notes were also made by the researcher of the most important points discussed. An audiotape was used to tape the interviews. In this regard, Mays and Pope (1995: 1116) aver that “...one of the advantages of audio taping is the opportunity the tapes offer for subsequent analysis by independent observers.”

The interview questions were prepared in both English and Amharic, and the participants were asked beforehand whether they preferred the interview to be conducted in English or Amharic.

4.4. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations refer to issues such as informed consent, right to privacy and confidentiality, deception and debriefing, cooperation and competence and accuracy in all aspects of the study, including its publication. An overriding consideration is protecting everyone involved in the study from harm (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:2).

The research process did not pose any physical or psychological risk to the participants. The college deans and TVET bureau heads were involved in routine administrative tasks and other political

assignments during the time of the provision of responses to the MLQ and interview questions. The research design did not pose the risk of breaching the confidentiality of the participants. Participant anonymity was ensured as the questionnaire did not collect any personal identification data. The completed questionnaires and recorded materials are kept in a secure location accessible only to the researcher in order to protect the confidentiality of the participants' survey results (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:7).

The deans, teachers, students and TVET Bureau officials participating in the study were provided with introductory information by means of a postal letter which explained the research and that their participation in the research was subject to their consent (See Appendix N). The letter explained the purpose of the research. It also described the precautions taken to avoid the risk of violating confidentiality. Their participation in the study was voluntary and completion of the questionnaire would indicate their consent to participate in the study. The participants were orally informed that their participation is voluntary before taking part. Consent was thus given by taking part in the case of the quantitative part. The issue of risk associated with participation was cleared out in the ethics application to the College of Education Research Ethics Committee at Unisa. The participants could refuse to participate and withdraw their consent to participate at any time in the data collection process because of the voluntary nature of the study. The informed consent form also indicated that the participants could receive a summary of the findings upon request (Strydom, 2002: 68).

Before the data collection process began, the researcher bought the questionnaire online and obtained permission to conduct the research in Ethiopia from "Mind Garden Incorporation." All the necessary information regarding the research was provided to the company. The permission to conduct the research in Ethiopia was granted by the Mind Garden Corporation (refer to the attached letter July 2013 in Appendix G).

Upon obtaining permission to conduct the research in Ethiopia, the researcher submitted the ethics application to the UNISA Ethics Committee in the College of Education (Appendix P). When the researcher administered the questionnaires and conducted the interviews, ethical considerations were adhered to consistently.

4.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter outlined the justification of the methodology used in this study in which both a quantitative and a qualitative approach was used to address the research questions. The ethical considerations were also discussed. This research targeted SNNPR TVET college deans and the sample for the survey consisted of ten deans, 290 teachers and 70 students. The researcher also

interviewed one TVET Bureau official. This research evaluated the perceived effectiveness of the leadership styles of deans in SNNPR governmental TVET colleges with respect to the three leadership styles, namely transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire*. The researcher used the MLQ (5X-Short Form) questionnaire and in-depth semi-structured interviews to collect data from the participants. In addition, the analysis techniques were discussed.

The next chapter provides the results of the data analysis.

CHAPTER FIVE

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS: THE INFLUENCE OF DEANS' LEADERSHIP STYLE ON THE PERCEIVED WORK PERFORMANCE OF TEACHERS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the influence of leadership style (transactional, transformational and *laissez-faire*) on perceived work performance of teachers (their effectiveness; extra effort and job satisfaction) will be discussed. As an introduction, the purpose of this research is again stated, namely, the assessment of the perceived effectiveness of leadership styles of deans in Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Region (SNNPR) government Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) colleges. Leadership effectiveness – as an outcome of leadership style/s used by deans of SNNPR TVET government colleges – includes the constructs of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction.

This research used a MLQ (5X-Short form) questionnaire to measure leadership styles of SNNPR TVET deans. The MLQ (5X-Short Form) is available as a standardised questionnaire. This questionnaire probes 45 items in an organisational survey and is used to measure the leadership style of individual leaders as perceived by themselves, staff and students (Bass & Avolio, 2004:14).

Chapter four of this thesis provided details of the research design and methodology used to collect and analyse data of Ethiopian SNNPR TVET deans, teachers and student councils in order to answer the main research question and the sub-research questions as described in chapter one. To this effect, two hundred and ninety-four MLQ (5X-Short form) questionnaires were completed and in-depth interviews were conducted with ten TVET deans and the SNNPR TVET bureau head.

The current chapter, Chapter 5, again highlights the research questions of the study and details how the analysis strategy - briefly outlined in Chapter 4 - serves to answer the research questions. This chapter continues by presenting the results of the executed statistical analyses (using the analysis strategy as framework) on the collected data and interprets the results of these analyses.

In Figure 5.1, below, a flow chart explains the flow of discussion in Chapter 5.

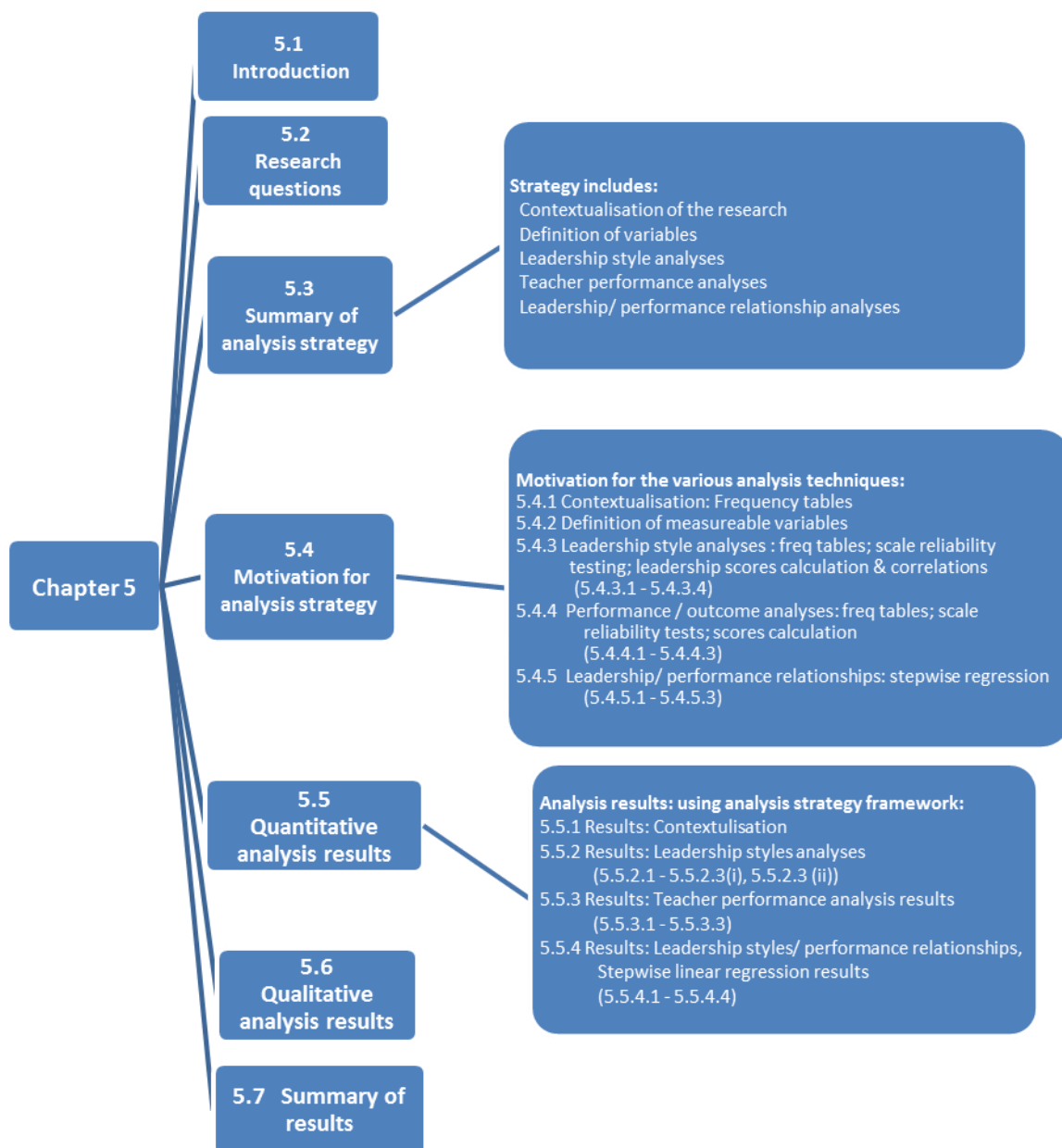


Figure 5.1: Legend of the discussion framework of Chapter 5.

Figure 5.1 indicates that the research question/ sub questions of the study are revisited in paragraph 5.2. The research questions serve to motivate the analysis strategy planned for the study. The analysis strategy is summarised in paragraph 5.3. Paragraph 5.4 then details why each analysis technique was selected and how the techniques were used to inform the main research question and sub-research questions. By motivating the use of the various statistical techniques, the analysis results in paragraph 5.5 then follows logically and understandably.

In Paragraph 5.5 - labelled, *the analysis results* section - results of the various analyses are presented in four sub-paragraphs, namely:

- Sub-paragraph 5.5.1 orientates the reader by describing the context of the empirical study (the biographical information of the respondents);
- Sub-paragraph 5.5.2 provides a general overview of how respondents perceive their deans to exhibit specific leadership styles in their interactions with staff and students, and also verifies the internal consistency reliability of the three leadership style constructs (transformational; transactional; *laissez-faire*);
- Sub-paragraph 5.5.3 presents an overview of measures that evaluate the outcome of a specific leadership style (measured as several aspects of performance) and also verifies internal consistency reliability of these outcome/performance constructs;
- Sub-paragraph 5.5.4 examines the relationship between the leadership styles deans are perceived to exhibit and different aspects of teachers' perceived performance (assumed to be the outcome of leadership style). These relationships are explored by means of step-wise linear regression models which will be discussed in sub-paragraphs 5.5.1 to 5.5.4.
- Paragraph 5.6 summarises the qualitative findings derived from the interview data (TVET college deans and bureau head of TVET Colleges) and open-ended questions included in the MLQ (5X-short) questionnaire.

The chapter concludes with paragraph 5.7 that summarises both the quantitative and qualitative findings and indicates how the two approaches compliment and inform one another. This brief outline summarises the reasoning followed in this study towards answering the research question and sub-questions stated in Chapter 1. The next section revisits these questions.

5.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

As indicated in the flow diagram (Figure 5.1), the discussion now turns to the research questions as departure point of the empirical analyses and findings. The planning of an appropriate analysis strategy for this study was guided by the main research question and sub-research questions as discussed in Chapter 1. The main research question asked of the research,

“To what extent do the leadership styles adopted by deans have a positive effect on the government TVET colleges' perceived effectiveness as evaluated by deans, teachers and students?”

The following sub-research questions were derived from the main research question:

What are the most dominant leadership styles (*transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire*) practised by the deans of the SNNPR TVET colleges?

What is the relationship between the *transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* leadership styles?

To what extent are perceptions of the *effectiveness* of deans influenced by the leadership style (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit?

To what extent are perceptions of *job satisfaction* influenced by the leadership style/s (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit?

To what extent are perceptions of *performance* influenced by the leadership style/s (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit?

To address these research questions, the researcher made certain assumptions with regards to the concepts of *leadership style* and *performance*. These assumptions assume:

- That the concepts of the ‘leadership styles of deans’ and ‘the performance of deans’ (synonymous to the outcome of leadership style) be defined in terms of variables that are quantitatively measurable. In this respect, the concept of ‘leadership-outcome’ is defined as the measurement of performance as assessed under a specific leadership style of a dean. Measurable aspects of performance in this instance are defined as respondents’ perceptions regarding teachers’ *willingness to put in extra effort* under a specific dean’s leadership style; *work satisfaction* experienced under a specific leadership style; and, deans’ perceived *effectiveness*. Likewise, the concept of a ‘leadership style exhibited by deans’ is defined by three quantitative variables that assess the extent to which specific deans are perceived to exhibit *transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* leadership in dealings with staff.
- That respondents’ perceptions of the *extent of the presence* of these three leadership styles in deans’ interaction with staff, serve as measure of the status of leadership styles under TVET college deans in Ethiopia (sub-research question one),
- That respondents’ perceptions, expressed on a scale of the *frequency-of-occurrence* of performance indicators, serve as measure of the status of TVET *deans effectiveness* and *teachers’ performance* - as experienced under deans’ specific leadership styles. Performance measures are important to this study in determining relationships between leadership style and performance investigated in sub-research questions three to five.
- Furthermore, research assumes that the so-defined measurable *leadership-style* variables represent the independent variables in the research, and

- The so-defined measurable *performance* variables represent the dependent variables in this study. Assumptions (iv) and (v) are based on the fact that research is not only interested in which leadership styles deans exhibit (sub-research question one), but also in how specific leadership styles influence performance (sub-research questions three to five). This implies a causal relationship with dependent and independent variables.
- Assumptions (iv) and (v) above imply that the relationships of interest to the research (sub-questions III to V), refer to dependencies between each of the aspects of performance (*extra effort, satisfaction* and *effectiveness*) as dependent variables and a combination of the leadership style variables (*transformational, transactional and laissez-faire*) as explanatory variables.
- Finally, the research assumes that the background/ or environment in which the research was conducted is of importance to the study, since analysis results and findings are interpreted against this backdrop.

In paragraph 5.3 that follows, a summary of the analysis strategy is listed. The strategy is then elaborated upon and motivated in the subsequent paragraph 5.4.

5.3 A BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE ANALYSIS STRATEGY

The discussion in paragraph 5.2 identified several critical elements essential to the planning of an analysis strategy for the study. These critical elements include,

- The research background (biographical information of respondents);
- A definition of measurable dependent and independent variables;
- The status of how these variables were perceived by respondents, and
- The establishment of relationships between specific combinations of these variables.

A summary of the planned analyses includes the following (this will be elaborated on in Paragraph 5.4),

Table 5.1: A Summary of the planned analysis strategy

Chapter sub-paragraph	Variables of interest in the specific analysis
5.4.1	Contextualisation of the research via frequency tables of the biographical properties of the respondents;
5.4.2	Definition of the measurable variables;
5.4.3	Analysis on MLQ X5 leadership style response data (<i>transformational, transactional and laissez-faire styles</i>) which include,
5.4.3.1	Initial exploratory analysis using composite frequency tables (three tables) of the individual elements (each style has four elements) that describe/assess the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles
5.4.3.2	Verification of the internal consistency reliability of the three leadership-styles constructs (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire)
5.4.3.3	Calculation of the MLQ (5X short-form) leadership style scores and use of Bass & Avolio norms to calculate dominance of leadership styles (sub-research question one)
5.4.3.4	Correlation between the three sets of leadership style scores (sub-research question two)
5.4.4	Analysis on leadership style outcomes (perceived satisfaction, extra effort, effectiveness)
5.4.4.1	Initial exploratory analysis using composite frequency tables (three) of the individual elements (three to four elements each) that describe the performance constructs of extra effort, efficiency and job satisfaction under a specific dean's leadership style
5.4.4.2	Verification of the internal consistency reliability of the aspects of efficiency, extra effort and satisfaction of leadership outcome
5.4.4.3	Calculation of the perception scores for the three teachers' performance constructs (the leadership outcome variables)
5.4.5	Multivariate regression analyses (step-wise) to explain the effect of a combination of leadership styles on:
5.4.5.1	Perceptions of effectiveness of leadership (sub-research question three)
5.4.5.2	Perceptions of job satisfaction (sub-research question four)
5.4.5.3	Perceptions of willingness to go the extra mile/extra effort (sub-research question five)

5.4 A DESCRIPTION OF AND MOTIVATION FOR THE ANALYSIS STRATEGY

The analysis strategy-description below includes a motivation for the use of the various analysis techniques.

5.4.1 Contextualisation of the research

To contextualise the study, the demographic information of the respondents is presented in frequency tables. These frequency tables describe the sample of Ethiopian respondents with specific reference to gender, age, qualification and experience, as well as the profile of respondents, which classifies respondents as deans, or teachers or students. This demographic description sketches the background against which results of exploratory and more advanced analyses are interpreted.

In this regard, it should be mentioned that for the properties of age and gender, frequency tables for all respondents (and also for separate groups) were calculated. However, for qualifications, and years' experience separate frequency tables for deans, teachers and students were calculated because qualifications and experience-categories for the three groups differed. As an example, the qualifications-categories for students (level I TVET; Level II TVET; Level III TVET; Level IV TVET and Level V TVET) and deans (level I TVET; Level II TVET; Level III TVET; Level IV TVET; Level V TVET; and BSc) differed (these are presented in Appendix A).

At this stage, it is appropriate to mention that the discussion of analysis results in paragraph 5.5 will, in most cases, pertain to the sample as a whole (deans, teachers and students), or, to responses of teachers and students - excluding deans' responses – since research deemed this approach applicable. (In such cases the exclusion of deans will be indicated and motivated). Analyses will indicate that teachers' and students' responses were very similar in most respects (motivated in sub-paragraphs 5.4.5 and 5.5.4) and data could therefore be combined in these instances (separate analyses on teachers' and students' responses are reported in appendices A-C, E-F and referred to throughout analysis results discussions). By following this approach, the discussion of the results are kept within manageable proportions and allows the reader to follow the line of argumentation without being distracted by volumes of data that might “cloud” the research argument.

5.4.2 Defining quantitative leadership and performance (leadership outcome) variables

To be able to conduct exploratory and advanced statistical analyses, the researcher firstly had to explain and describe the quantitative dependent (performance) and independent variables (leadership style).

With regard to the concept of deans' leadership styles, Chapter 4 explained that the leadership styles of TVET college deans would be evaluated against the *transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* leadership styles of the MLQ (5X short) questionnaire. In the questionnaire, these leadership styles are described and evaluated against respectively five, three and one sub-dimension/s, namely,

The *transformational style* via the sub-dimensions of attributes of *idealised influence*; *idealised behaviour*; *inspirational motivation*; *intellectual stimulation* and *individual consideration*.

The *transactional style* via the sub-dimensions of *contingent rewards*; *active* and *passive management-by-exception* dimensions, and

The *laissez-faire* leadership style against a single *laissez-faire* style dimension.

The leadership styles are evaluated against subsets of four questions for each sub-dimension of the particular leadership style (a total of nine subsets of four questions each; or 36 sets of respondent responses with 20, 12 and 4 questions respectively relating to the *transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* styles). Response-options to these questions range between ‘0’ to ‘4’ on a *frequency-of-occurrence-scale* (refer to Chapter 4, paragraph 4.3.4.1 sub-paragraph-a). Composite frequency tables of respondents’ responses to these subsets of questions are included in the results section, Sub-paragraph 5.5.2.1, and provide an introductory overview of the perceived presence of the three leadership styles amongst TVET college deans.

Following these are statistical test results performed on the subsets of responses to test the internal consistency reliability of the various sub-dimensions of leadership style constructs. Once reliability is confirmed, construct scores for each of the nine components and the three leadership style constructs are calculated. (Verification of internal consistency reliability enables research to calculate reliable perception measures of the leadership styles and their sub-dimensions). This then defines the quantitative leadership variables.

Likewise, the quantitative performance variables (that assess and quantify leadership style outcome), namely *job satisfaction*, *perceived effectiveness of deans* and *teachers’ willingness to put in extra effort* are evaluated in respectively three, four and two questions of the MLQ (5X short-form) questionnaire (on a *frequency-of-occurrence rating* scale, ranging from ‘0’ to ‘4’. Bass & Avolio, 1997: 134; Bass & Avolio, 2004: 14). Composite frequency tables of the three subsets of responses to the questionnaire items are also presented, followed by scale reliability tests to determine whether the measurement of the three constructs comply with internal consistency reliability. With the reliability verified, reliable performance scores for the three performance-outcome variables can then be calculated. This then defines the quantitative outcome-variables.

5.4.3 Proposed analyses of the MLQ (5X-short form) leadership style variables (*transformational, transactional, laissez-faire*)

The following three sub-paragraphs describe the proposed analyses that were conducted on the three sets of MLQ leadership style responses.

5.4.3.1 Composite frequency tables for the three leadership styles

As explained in detail in chapter 4, paragraph 4.3.4, composite one-way frequency tables were calculated on:

The five subsets of respondents' responses to the questionnaire items that probe the five components of the *transformational* leadership style, namely:

idealised influence

idealised behaviour

inspirational motivation

intellectual stimulation, and

individual consideration.

The three subsets of the respondents' responses that probe the *transactional* leadership style, namely *contingent reward*

management by exception-active

management by exception-passive, and

The single subset of question responses that probe the *laissez-faire* leadership style.

The above-mentioned frequency tables summarise the distribution of frequencies over the five *frequency-of-occurrence* rating options of:

'0' (never); '1' (once in a while); '2' (sometimes); '3' (often) and '4' (always).

The researcher argued that, by studying, in each of the listed tables, the last row of total frequencies - the "totals row" - the researcher (and reader) would be able to obtain a first impression of whether the respondents perceived a particular component of leadership to occur "more frequently" (if the majority of responses resorted under positive / or '3' and '4' rating levels) or "rather seldom" (if the majority of responses fell under negative / or '0' and '1' occurrence ratings).

In the next section, attention turns to the statistical technique (scale reliability testing) that verifies the internal consistency reliability of the nine constructs of leadership style sub-dimensions and three leadership style dimensions.

5.4.3.2 The three MLQ (5X-short) leadership styles: Verifying the internal consistency reliability of the nine sub-dimensions of the three leadership-styles; and that of the three leadership styles

Before deciding on how measures of a specific leadership style should be deduced from respondents' responses to the questionnaire items, the researcher has to decide whether these suggested leadership concepts (nine components and three leadership styles) are reliable measures. Different types of reliability exist (Norusis, 1997: 104), but, of importance to the calculation of perception measures is *internal consistency reliability* (Hatcher, 1998:129-140; Norusis, 1997:107 - 111).

Internal consistency reliability of each leadership concept (five *transformational* sub-concepts; three *transactional* sub-concepts; one *laissez-faire* concept, and three leadership style concepts) can be verified by means of scale reliability tests (also referred to as "item analysis" (Hatcher, 1998:129-140)). These tests are performed on each subset of respondents' responses that probe a leadership style or sub-dimension of a leadership style. As part of this test, a statistic - referred to a Cronbach alpha coefficient - is calculated. The Cronbach alpha coefficient measures the inter-correlation between pair-wise sets of respondent responses to questionnaire questions that explains a sub-dimension of a leadership style. The value of the Cronbach alpha varies between 0 and 1. If the value of a particular Cronbach alpha coefficient falls in the region of 0.7 or greater than 0.7, it can be assumed that internal consistency reliability has been established for the specific construct/component of leadership style¹. If internal consistency reliability is verified, it implies that responses to all questionnaire items that evaluate a specific leadership aspect, significantly contribute towards explaining the particular concept (for example, *inspirational motivation*) (Hatcher, 1998:129-140; Norusis, 1997:107- 111; Hill & Lewicki, 2007).

The researcher further argues that, if the internal consistency reliability for a concept has been verified, and, a quantitative measure of this leadership concept is calculated from the subset of responses for each respondent, the measure will be a reliable measure of the specific leadership style concept (for example, *inspirational motivation*) (Norusis, 1997:103-104). Therefore, once the internal consistency reliability of the leadership style sub-dimensions and comprehensive leadership style constructs have been verified, research is able to calculate measures of respondents' perceptions for these constructs. How these measures (scores) are to be calculated and the dominance of leadership styles established using the Bass and Avolio norms (2004:7) are explained in the next section.

¹In a new research field – such as the present study, alpha values in the region of 0.6 or greater are regarded as sufficient evidence of internal consistency reliability (Nunnely, 1978:245–246).

5.4.3.3 Calculation of the MLQ-5X component scores and correlations and the use of Bass and Avolio norms to calculate dominance of leadership styles (sub-research question 1)

As indicated and motivated in the previous sub-section, perception measures for the constructs of the various (nine) components of the three leadership styles can be calculated once the internal consistency reliability of the various components has been verified.

Calculation of the scores for the nine sub-dimensions of the three leadership styles

Quantitative measures of respondents' perceptions of the nine sub-dimensions of the leadership style constructs - referred to as "scores" - are calculated for each respondent as the mean rating score each respondent assigns to the subset of the questionnaire items that describe a specific leadership sub-dimension. For example, if a respondent chooses *frequency-of-occurrence-ratings* of '2'; '2'; '3' and '4' for the four questionnaire items of the *inspirational motivation* sub-dimension (q9-q12) of the *transformational leadership* style, the respondent will score a value of $(2+2+3+4)/4 = 2.75$ for the *inspirational motivation sub-dimension* (Gelman, 2012: 162-165).

Interpreting the leadership sub-dimension scores

The question might well be asked how these calculated leadership style construct scores are interpreted. For example, how should the score of 2.75 calculated for the *inspirational motivation* sub-dimension be interpreted? Because scores are calculated as a mean rating response to rating level options (*frequency-of-occurrence* scale), the scores derived from these ratings are interpreted on the same *frequency-of-occurrence* scale: a score value of 2.75 approximates a value of 3. A rating score of '3' on the *frequency-of-occurrence* scale represents an incident that occurs "fairly often". Therefore, the score value of 2.75 (approximated as '3') will be interpreted as indicating that the respondent perceived the dean to *fairly often* exhibit the trait of *inspirational motivation*. In this way, scores for the leadership sub-dimensions for each respondent can be derived and interpreted.

The same reasoning is followed in the calculation and interpretation of scores for the three leadership styles.

Determining the dominance of a particular leadership style

The next issue that requires attention is how the calculated scores for the different leadership subdimension constructs can be used to determine whether respondents perceive their dean to exhibit dominance in either the *transformational*, *transactional* or *laissez-faire* leadership styles. Bass and Avolio (2000:14) set norms/ or boundaries for combinations of scores of specific leadership sub-

dimensions: if the score-combination calculated for a respondent’s evaluation of a dean falls short of the appropriate norm in a particular instance, the specific style of the relevant dean is classified as perceived to be “non-dominant”; and if the score-combination exceeds the norm, the specific style (of the dean) is classified as perceived to be “dominant”.

The norms table extracted from Chapter 4 is included below to highlight the above discussion.

Table 5.2: Norms for classifying dominant leadership styles as derived from Bass and Avolio, 2000

Leadership constructs	Leadership traits	Questionnaire item statement/s	Resultant leadership classification
Transformational construct	t1: Individualised influence (attributed) t2: Individualised influence (behaviour) t3: Individualised consideration t4: Inspirational motivation t5: Intellectual stimulation (IS)	At least 3 of construct scores (t1-t5), ≥ 3	Transformational style
Transactional construct	ts1: Contingent reward (CR) ts2: Manage by exception (passive) ts3: Manage by exception (active)	Constr. score (ts1) ≥ 3 , & constr. score (ts2) ≥ 2 , & constr. Score (ts3) ≥ 2	Transactional style
Laissez-faire	ts4: <i>Laissez faire</i>	Constr. score (ts2) ≥ 3 , & constr. score (ts3) ≥ 3 , & constr. score (ts4) ≥ 3 , & constr. score (t1-t5, ts1) < 2	Laissez-faire

For each respondent, the respondent’s perception of the dominance/non-dominance of his/her deans’ leadership style is assessed in this way and frequency tables are calculated to report on how frequently respondents perceive their deans to exhibit the *transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* leadership styles.

In paragraph 5.5 - *Analysis results and interpretation* - the reader will note that the above-mentioned tables are presented (or referred to) for various groups of respondents (the entire sample; or teachers; or deans; or students etc.). The tables not presented in paragraph 5 of this chapter are included in relevant appendices and will be referred to in discussions in paragraph 5.5.

5.4.3.4 The correlation between the three sets of leadership style scores (sub-research question two)

The last section that exclusively deals with leadership style scores (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* scores) investigates the dependencies between the three sets of scores: whether the three leadership styles are correlated. In this instance, Pearson's correlation coefficients for the pair-wise sets of *transformational*/ and or/ *transactional*/ and or *laissez faire* respondent scores are calculated (a total of five correlation coefficients²) (Andrews, Klem, O'Malley; Rodgers, Welch & Davidson, 2007:10, 13). These coefficients, if statistically significant, verify whether perceived leadership styles are statistically significantly dependent. Statistical significance is indicated if the probability associated with a specific correlation coefficient - reported in brackets below the coefficient in the table of correlation coefficients to be presented in paragraph 5.5 - is less than 0.001; or less than 0.01; or less than 0.05. These levels indicate significance levels of respectively 0.1%, 1% and 5%. (Cramer & Howitt, (2004: 151) for example indicates these levels in similar fashion).

5.4.4 Proposed analyses of the dean performance variables (*perceived satisfaction*, *extra effort*, *effectiveness*) that measure the outcome of experienced leadership styles

This section discusses the various analyses that were performed on the subsets of questionnaire responses that evaluate the performance concepts of *perceived job satisfaction*, *extra effort* and deans' *perceived effectiveness*. These measures assess the outcome of experienced leadership styles.

5.4.4.1 Composite frequency tables (3) of performance constructs (*job satisfaction*, *extra effort*, *effectiveness*)

Similar to the reasoning followed for the three leadership styles, composite one-way frequency tables were calculated for the sets of questionnaire items of the three performance concepts. These frequency tables provide a general overview of respondents' perceptions of performance under specific leadership styles of deans. The aspects of performance are measured against sets of questions in the MLQ (5X-short) questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 2000:13) namely,

- The aspect of the *effectiveness of deans' leadership style*: Four questions that probe effectiveness and provide four sets of respondents' rating-choices to these questions.
- The aspect of *job satisfaction*: Two questions that probe respondents' job satisfaction and provides two sets of respondents' rating-choices to these questions.

² Pearson correlation coefficients can be calculated because the scores are regarded as continuous data (means of rating levels) – a pre-requisite for the calculation of reliable Pearson correlations.

- The aspects of *willingness to exert extra effort*: Three questions that probe respondents' willingness to exert extra effort under a specific leadership style. The response data consists of three sets of respondents' rating-choices to these questions.

The relevant frequency tables (to be presented in paragraph 5.5.3) will present frequencies of response-ratings for the questionnaire items pertaining to each aspect of performance. The rating scale is a *frequency-of-occurrence* scale with ratings of,

'0' (never); '1' (once in a while); '2' (sometimes); '3' (often) and '4' (always).

From these tables in paragraph 5.5.3, the last row of total frequencies of each table (the "totals row"), research will be able to glean a first impression of whether the respondents perceived a particular aspect of performance as occurring *more frequently*, or *rather seldom*. This depends on the majority of responses falling more to the positive ('3' or '4') or negative ('0' or '1') side of the occurrence rating scale.

5.4.4.2 Verification of the internal consistency reliability of the performance constructs of deans' efficiency, extra effort and job satisfaction

Similar to the discussion of the leadership style components, internal consistency reliability needs to be verified for each component of *performance* (perceived *effectiveness of deans*; *willingness of teachers to put in extra effort*; and *job satisfaction* and a general *performance* construct) to ensure reliable performance measures.

With the reliability of performance measures verified, the analysis strategy could attend to how these measures are to be calculated. This is discussed in the next sub-paragraph.

5.4.4.3 Calculation of the scores of the three performance constructs

Once internal consistency reliability had been established for the performance constructs (the constructs that quantitatively assess the outcome of leadership styles), three sets of performance construct scores were calculated in a similar fashion to that indicated for the *leadership style* constructs. These scores are also interpreted on the *frequency-of-occurrence* scale – similar to the leadership component scores (refer to sub-paragraph 5.4.3.1). These scores serve to quantify respondents' perceptions of the three dimensions of performance.

The purpose of the planned analyses discussed in the preceding paragraphs 5.4.3 and 5.4.4 is to determine which leadership styles are most commonly experienced/ or observed under Ethiopian deans of TVET colleges by teachers and students, as well as assessing the perceived performance of

deans' *effectiveness* and teachers' *job satisfaction* and *willingness to put in extra effort*. With this information in place, the research argument can proceed in the next sub-section by describing how the technique of step-wise linear regression can be used to determine relationships between perceived leadership styles of deans and the various aspects of performance (the outcome of leadership styles).

5.4.5 Stepwise linear regression to determine the nature of the relationship between leadership style/s and performance aspects of (i) *extra effort*; (ii) *effectiveness*; and (iii) *job satisfaction*

With the concepts of leadership styles and leadership-outcomes verified and measures of these concepts calculated, research can investigate relationships (3) between *combinations of leadership styles* (the explanatory or independent variables) and each of the three *outcome-of-leadership variables* (the performance variables and dependent variables).

At this stage of the planning of the analysis strategy, the researcher argued that, since the quantitative *leadership style* and *leadership outcome* variables were measured on a continuous scale (score values), a step-wise linear regression approach would be appropriate to investigate relationships between leadership styles (or combinations of leadership styles) and, in turn, each of the three areas of performance, namely, *job satisfaction*; *willingness to put in extra effort*; *perceived effectiveness of deans*. It was argued that stepwise linear regression would enable research to evaluate - in conjunction to the effect of leadership styles - the impact of biographical properties of respondents (age and gender) on perceptions of *leadership-style outcomes* of *job satisfaction*; or *willingness to put in extra effort*; or *effectiveness* of deans).

(Comment: Discussion of the results of analyses in paragraph 5.5 will indicate that the impact of the *demographical* properties of respondents on perceptions of performance was not significantly large enough to be included in the final step of the respective regression models (the model of best-fit) that are reported in paragraphs 5.5.4.1. to 5.5.4.4 of this Chapter).

The three subsection headings listed below indicate that three stepwise linear regressions were conducted on (i) the scores of perceived *effectiveness of deans*, (ii) the scores of *teachers' willingness to put in extra effort*, and (iii) the scores of *perceived job satisfaction*, to determine how combinations of leadership styles and demographic attributes of respondents (age and gender) impact each of these three aspects of performance:

5.4.5.1. Perceptions of effectiveness of leadership (see sub-research question three).

5.4.5.2. Perceptions of satisfaction (see sub-research question four).

5.4.5.3. Perceptions of willingness to put in extra effort (see sub-research question five, paragraph 5.2).

The analysis strategy discussed in this section was duly executed on the response data collected from the research participants. The results and findings derived from these analyses are discussed in the next section, paragraph 5.5.

5.5 THE ANALYSIS RESULTS, INTERPRETATION AND FINDINGS OF THE EXECUTED ANALYSIS STRATEGY

The data analysed in this study consisted of the responses of 294 Ethiopian TVET-college deans, teachers and students to the MLQ (5X-short) questionnaire. Responses were captured to an EXCEL spreadsheet and the analyses discussed (paragraph 5.4) were conducted on the data. The statistical software package, SAS, version 9.4 (Statistical Analysis System) was used to analyse the data.

5.5.1 Contextualising the study: demographical attributes

The context in which the research was conducted is described by the information captured in Tables 5.3 to 5.7 of this section. These tables report the distribution of participant-properties of gender, age, the type of respondent, qualifications and experience.

The biographical information sketches the research background of the study. For example, Table 5.5 indicates that 10 deans, 219 teachers and 65 students of 10 different TVET colleges in Ethiopia participated in the empirical study. The majority of the respondents were males (84%) and the age range varied between 15 and 45⁺ years (the majority of students fell in the 15-20 (51%) and 21-25 (39%) age-brackets (Table 5.4, in conjunction with Table A12, Appendix A).

Table 5.7 indicates that deans reported more career experience than did teachers: 60% of the deans (6 of 10) reported more than fifteen years' experience while 53% of teachers reported between one and five years teaching experience. The majority of teachers (48.4% + 35.16%) were in possession of levels I or II TVET qualifications; while the majority of deans (60% or 6 of 10) reported TVET levels I to III qualifications (Table 5.6). These figures suggest that deans were generally more experienced than teachers – as should be expected, and, that the sampled teachers represented a relatively young and inexperienced work force. More detail information of the sample composition is provided in Appendix A.

Table 5.3: Frequency distribution of gender, all respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percentage
Male	246	83.67	246	83.67
Female	48	16.33	294	100.00

Table 5.4: Frequency distribution of age, all respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative Percentage
15-20	206	70.07	206	70.07
21-25	51	17.35	257	87.41
26-30	16	5.44	273	92.86
31-35	18	6.12	291	98.98
36-40	3	1.02	294	100.00

Table 5.5: Frequency distribution of type of respondents, all respondents

Respondent type	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percentage
Deans	10	3.40	10	3.40
Teacher	219	79.49	299	77.89
Student	65	22.11	294	100.00

Table 5.6: Frequency distribution of qualifications, deans and teachers

Qualifications	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
	Deans		Teachers	
Level I TVET	1	10.00	106	48.40
Level II TVET	2	20.00	77	35.16
Level III TVET	3	30.00	3	1.37
Level IV TVET	1	10.00	31	14.16
Level V TVET	2	20.00	2	0.91
BSc, TVET	1	10.00	0	0.00
Totals	10	100.00	219	100.00

Table 5.7: Frequency distribution of experience, deans and teachers

Experience	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
	Deans		Teachers	
< 1 year	0	0.00	80	36.53
1-5 years	0	0.00	116	52.97
5-10 years	1	10.00	8	3.65
11-15 years	3	30.00	0	0.00
>15 years	6	60.00	15	6.85
Total	10	100.00	219	100.00

With an overview of the sample provided³ the discussion of analysis results moves on to a description of the leadership styles reported by respondents in paragraph 5.5.2.

5.5.2 Analysis results related to the perceived leadership styles of TVET deans

In the following sub-sections the results of the leadership style response-data is presented.

5.5.2.1 Composite frequency tables of the nine sub-dimensions of the three leadership style constructs of deans

Participant responses (deans, teachers and students) to the nine subsets of questions in the MLQ (5X short) questionnaire that query the nine sub-dimensions of the three leadership styles are presented in Tables 5.8 to 5.16 below. As explained in Sub-section 5.4.4.1, an overview of how the respondents perceived the leadership styles of their deans (including the deans themselves) can be derived from the “totals row” in each composite frequency table. These rows reflect participants’ response patterns to the subsets of questions that probe each sub-dimension of the three leadership styles (respectively five, three and one components of the *transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* leadership styles (Bass & Riggio, 2006:15). Appendix B (Tables B1-B27) reports the same information in separate tables for deans, students, teachers, and students and teachers combined, excluding deans.

The distribution of responses in each totals-row of the tables that follow (Tables 5.8 – 5.16) indicates that:

The majority of responses reflect the perception that the sub-dimension of the leadership component of *idealised influence, attributed* (of the transformational style) is *fairly often* to

³See further breakdown for deans; teachers and students in Appendix A (The detail frequency tables are reported in appendices to keep the results-discussion within manageable proportions)

always observed to be present in deans' interaction with staff and students (59.35%, see Table 5.8).

The majority of responses reflect the perception that the component of *idealised influence, behaviour* (of the *transformational* style) is *fairly often to always*, reported in deans' behaviour (66.07%; see Table 5.9).

The majority of responses reflect the perception that the component of *inspirational motivation* (of the *transformational* style) is *fairly often to always* observed in deans' behaviour (71.12%; see Table 5.10).

The majority of responses reflect the perception that the component of *intellectual stimulation* (of the *transformational* style) is *fairly often to always* reported (62.08%; see Table 5.11).

The majority of responses reflect the perception that the component of *individualised consideration* (of the *transformational* style) is *fairly often to always* reported for deans (61.14%; see Table 5.12).

The majority of responses reflect the perception that the component of *intrinsic rewards* (of the *transactional* style) is *fairly often to always* reported (63.55%; see Table 5.13).

The majority of responses reflect the perception that the component of *management by exception, active* (of the *transactional* leadership style) is *fairly often to always* reported (56.97%; see Table 5.14).

Responses do not clearly reflect the perception that the component of *management by exception, passive* (for the *transactional* style) is *fairly often to always* reported (only a 42.73% response; see Table 5.15).

The majority of responses reflect the perception that characteristics of the *laissez faire* style are *never or very seldom* observed in deans' interaction with staff (60.25%; see Table 5.16).

In summary, these response patterns seem to suggest that traits of the *transformational and transactional leadership styles* are *fairly often* observed, while the *laissez faire style* seems to present itself *seldom* in the behaviour of/ or interaction with deans. (Appendix C, Tables C1-C4 report similar separate tables for deans, teachers and students).

Table 5.8: Composite one-way frequency tables for the four questionnaire items that probe the transformational leadership style sub-dimension of: idealised influence, attributed

Questionnaire items	Frequency of occurrence rating levels					Row total
	Never	Very seldom	Some-times	Fairly often	Always	
Instil pride	50 17.01	40 13.61	65 22.11	79 26.87	60 20.41	294
Go beyond self interest	24 8.16	22 7.48	42 14.29	129 43.88	77 26.19	294
Build respect	40 13.61	30 10.20	46 15.65	112 38.10	66 22.45	294
Display power and confidence	44 14.97	19 6.46	56 19.05	105 35.71	70 23.81	294
Totals	158	111	209	425	273	1176

The probability of the Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 39.50 under the null hypothesis that response patterns for the subset of questionnaire questions do not differ is $< 0.0001^{***}$. This implies response patterns to some question statements differ from that of others

Table 5.9: Composite one-way frequency tables for the four questionnaire items that probe the transformational leadership style sub-dimension of: idealised influence, behaviour (students, teachers and deans, N=294)

Questionnaire items	Frequency of occurrence-rating					Total
	Never	Very seldom	Some-times	Fairly often	Always	
Talk about values and beliefs	62 21.09	33 11.22	71 24.15	86 29.25	42 14.29	294
Importance of having strong beliefs/ values	7 2.38	20 6.80	39 13.27	143 48.64	85 28.91	294
Consider moral/ ethical consequences	19 6.46	26 8.84	62 21.09	111 37.76	76 25.85	294
Importance of collective sense of mission	10 3.40	11 3.74	39 13.27	143 48.64	91 30.95	294
Total	98	90	211	483	294	1176

The probability of the Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 144.96 under the null hypothesis that response patterns for the subset of questionnaire questions do not differ is $< 0.0001^{***}$. This implies response patterns to some question statements differ from that of others.

Table 5.10: Composite one-way frequency tables for the four questionnaire items that probe the *transformational leadership style sub-dimension of: inspirational motivation*

(students, teachers and deans, N=294)

Questionnaire items Frequency Row Percentage	Frequency of occurrence-rating					Total
	Never	Very seldom	Some-times	Fairly often	Always	
Optimistic about future	14 4.76	19 6.46	48 16.33	120 40.82	93 31.63	294
Enthusiastic about goals/ objectives	16 5.44	20 6.80	46 15.65	136 46.26	76 25.85	294
Vision of future	12 4.08	19 6.46	35 11.90	136 46.26	92 31.29	294
Confidence in goal achievement	15 5.10	26 8.84	69 23.47	107 36.39	77 26.19	294
Total	57	84	198	499	338	1176

The probability of the Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 22.23 under the null hypothesis that the response patterns for the subset of questionnaire questions do not differ is <0.04*. This implies response patterns to some question statements differ from that of others.

Table 5.11: Composite one-way frequency tables for the four questionnaire items that probe the *transformational leadership style sub-dimension of: intellectual stimulation*

Questionnaire items Frequency Row Percentage	Frequency of occurrence-rating					Total
	Never	Very seldom	Some-times	Fairly often	Always	
Consider critical assumptions to questions, appropriate	22 7.48	21 7.14	66 22.45	108 36.73	77 26.19	294
Different perspectives to problems	21 7.14	25 8.50	60 20.41	113 38.44	75 25.51	294
Others consider problems other angles	17 5.78	30 10.20	62 21.09	104 35.37	81 27.55	294
Suggest new ways for problems	30 10.20	38 12.93	54 18.37	100 34.01	72 24.49	294
Total	90	114	242	425	305	1176

The probability of the Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 12.28 under the null hypothesis that response patterns for the subset of questionnaire questions do not differ is = 0.43. This implies response patterns to all questions follow the same perception trend.

Table 5.12: Composite one-way frequency tables for the four questionnaire items that probe the *transformational leadership style sub-dimension of: individualised consideration*

(students, teachers and deans, N=294)

Questionnaire items	Frequency of occurrence-rating					Total
	Never	Very seldom	Some-times	Fairly often	Always	
Time on teaching/ coaching	30 10.20	23 7.82	55 18.71	115 39.12	71 24.15	294
Regard all as individuals	25 8.50	29 9.86	61 20.75	109 37.07	70 23.81	294
Individuals have different needs	21 7.14	40 13.61	52 17.69	101 34.35	80 27.21	294
Help others develop	26 8.84	30 10.20	65 22.11	108 36.73	65 22.11	294
Total	102	122	233	433	286	1176

The probability of the Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 10.81 under the null hypothesis that the response patterns for the subset of questionnaire questions do not differ is 0.55. This implies response patterns to all questions follow the same perception trend.

Table 5.13: Composite one-way frequency tables for the four questionnaire items that probe the *transactional leadership style sub-dimension of: intrinsic reward*

Questionnaire items	Frequency rating					Total
	Never	Very seldom	Some-times	Fairly often	Always	
Provide others assistance	21 7.14	29 9.86	51 17.35	124 42.18	69 23.47	294
Specify responsibilities	23 7.82	23 7.82	61 20.75	116 39.46	71 24.15	294
Clarify performance expectations	29 9.90	27 9.22	56 19.11	112 38.23	69 23.55	293
Express satisfaction good performance	24 8.16	30 10.20	54 18.37	119 40.48	67 22.79	294
Total	97	109	222	471	276	1175

Frequency Missing = 1
The probability of the Chi-square statistic assuming the value of **4.20** under the null hypothesis that the response patterns for the subset of questionnaire questions do not differ is = **0.98**. This implies response patterns to all questions follow the same perception trend.

(students, teachers and deans, N=294)

Table 5.14: Composite one-way frequency tables for the four questionnaire items that probe the *transactional leadership style sub-dimension of: manage by exception, active*

Questionnaire items	Frequency-of-occurrence rating					
	Never	Very seldom	Some-times	Fairly often	Always	Total
Focus attention on mistakes	26 8.84	24 8.16	52 17.69	117 39.80	75 25.51	294
All attention dealing with mistakes	16 5.44	31 10.54	64 21.77	120 40.82	63 21.43	294
Keep track of mistakes	14 4.76	39 13.27	57 19.39	111 37.76	73 24.83	294
Attention on failure, meet standards	66 22.45	43 14.63	74 25.17	81 27.55	30 10.20	294
Total	122	137	247	429	241	1176

The probability of the Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 99.07 under the null hypothesis that response patterns for the subset of questionnaire questions do not differ is <0.001***. This implies response patterns to some question statements differ from that of others.

(students, teachers and deans, N=294)

Table 5.15: Composite one-way frequency tables for the four questionnaire items that probe the *transactional leadership style sub-dimension of: manage by exception, passive*

Questionnaire items	Frequency-of-occurrence rating					
	Never	Very seldom	Some-times	Fairly often	Always	
Only interfere problem serious	89 30.27	47 15.99	55 18.71	63 21.43	40 13.61	294
Act only when things go wrong	115 39.12	29 9.86	61 20.75	58 19.73	31 10.54	294
Believer only fix, broken	63 21.43	27 9.18	62 21.09	94 31.97	48 16.33	294
Act only problems chronic	42 14.33	31 10.58	52 17.75	108 36.86	60 20.48	293
Total	309	134	230	323	179	1175

Frequency Missing = 1
The probability of the Chi-square statistic assuming the value of **79.52** under the null hypothesis that response patterns for the subset of questionnaire questions do not differ is <**0.001**. This implies response patterns to some question statements differ from that of others.

(students, teachers and deans, N=294)

Table 5.16: Composite one-way frequency tables for the four questionnaire items that probe the *laissez-faire* leadership style

Questionnaire items	Frequency-of-response ratings					
Frequency Row Percentage	Never	Very seldom	Some- times	Fairly often	Always	Total
Avoid involvement in serious issues	158 53.74	40 13.61	34 11.56	43 14.63	19 6.46	294
Absent when needed	123 41.84	61 20.75	48 16.33	36 12.24	26 8.84	294
Avoid decision making	110 37.41	48 16.33	61 20.75	49 16.67	26 8.84	294
Delay responding to questions	125 42.66	43 14.68	43 14.68	51 17.41	31 10.58	293
Total	516	192	186	179	102	1175
Frequency Missing = 1						
The probability of the Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 29.19 under the null hypothesis that response patterns for the subset of questionnaire items do not differ is 0.01** . This implies response patterns to some question statements differ from that of others.						

The composite tables presented in this sub-section suggest that respondents fairly often observe most of the sub-dimension constructs of the *transformational* and *transactional* leadership styles in their deans, and seldom *laissez-faire* traits.

To be able to measure the extent of the observed presence of leadership style traits (and the styles as such) more effectively, the next section (sub-paragraph 5.5.2.2) reports on the verification of internal consistency reliability of the nine sub-dimension leadership constructs as well as the three comprehensive leadership style constructs. Once the internal consistency reliability of these constructs are verified, reliable quantitative measures of respondents' perceptions of the presence of the three leadership styles in their deans' behaviour can be calculated. Last mentioned results are reported in sub-paragraph 5.5.2.3.

5.5.2.2 Verification of internal consistency reliability of the sub-dimension and comprehensive leadership-styles constructs

Table 5.17 below presents the results of eleven scale reliability tests that were performed on subsets of responses to question items that probed the nine components of leadership styles as well as the comprehensive *transactional*, *transformational* and *laissez-faire* leadership style concepts (listed in the first column of Table 5.17). The second column of the table lists the subsets of questions that probed each dimension or sub-dimension and the fourth column reports the standardized Cronbach

alpha coefficient calculated from the relevant rating-responses to these questions. Column 3 is included in the table to illustrate that, although scale reliability tests often indicate that the responses of some questions be removed from the analysis to improve internal consistency reliability of a particular concept, this was not the case in this study. The responses to all questionnaire items in each subset were used to reliably describe specific concepts.

Since the Cronbach alpha values for all components – including the composite *transactional*, *transformational* and *laissez-faire* concepts were greater than 0.7 or in the region of 0.7 (0.67 and 0.66 for the dimensions of *management by exception active* and *passive* respectively of the *transactional* style), it can be deduced that internal consistency reliability was verified for all components of leadership style (sub-paragraph 5.4.3.2).

With internal consistency reliability of the concepts verified, research could proceed to calculate scores that express respondents’ perceptions of these concepts. These results are reported in the next subsection.

Table 5.17: Scale reliability tests results performed on responses to questions probing the 9 sub-dimension leadership style constructs and 3 comprehensive leadership style constructs (*transformational*, *transactional*, *laissez-faire*)

The subsets of questionnaire question responses analysed, and the standardised Cronbach alpha coefficients derived in each case are reported

Construct/ component	Questionnaire items	Items deleted/ or reversed	Standardised Cronbach alpha
Transformational components and general transformational concept			
Transformational	q1-q20	-	0.94
Idealised attributes	q1-q4	-	0.72
Idealised behaviour	q5-q8	-	0.77
Inspirational motivation	q9-q12	-	0.83
Intellectual stimulation	q13-q16	-	0.87
Individualised consideration	q17-q20	-	0.80
Transactional components and general transactional concept			
Transactional	q21-q32	-	0.82
Contingent reward	q21-q24	-	0.81
Manage by exception active	q25-q28	-	0.67
Manage by exception passive	q29-q32	-	0.66
General <i>laissez-faire</i> concept			
Laissez faire	q33-q36	-	0.86

5.5.2.3 Calculation of (i) the sub-dimension and leadership style constructs scores; and (ii) the perceived dominance of the three leadership styles of deans

As indicated in paragraph 5.4.3.2, once internal consistency reliability of the various concepts is verified, quantitative perception measures (scores) of how the respondents experienced their deans' leadership styles can be calculated. (Scores are calculated as the mean rating response of the responses each respondent assigned to each subset of questionnaire questions that measured a dimension or sub-dimension of leadership style). Tables 5.18 and 5.19 presented below reflect the means of these scores.

(i) Scores calculated for the sub-dimension and comprehensive leadership style constructs

Table 5.18 reports the leadership style scores and their standard deviations for all respondents (columns 2 and 3); deans (columns 4 and 5); teachers (columns 6 and 7); and students (columns 8 and 9). Table 5.19 in turn reports leadership style scores and standard deviations for the ten TVET colleges for all respondents.

The first impression that investigation of Table 5.18 brings to mind, is that the reported mean scores strengthen the suggestion derived from the composite frequency tables of responses reported in subparagraph 5.5.2.1, namely, that the components of the *transactional and transformational* leadership styles are perceived by respondents to present *more often* in TVET deans' behaviour than the *laissez faire* style.

The question might well be asked how this deduction is made. This is explained if borne in mind that the score values – and therefore also the means of the score values reported in Table 5.18 - are interpreted according to the *frequency-of-occurrence* rating scale, with smaller score values (mean score that approximate '0' or '1') indicating that a specific component/ leadership trait is *never* or *very seldom* perceived to be present in deans, whereas larger mean scores (means in the region of '3' and '4') indicate that a specific leadership trait is observed *fairly often* or *always*.

It can, for example be deduced from Table 5.18 that:

- Deans' *transformational* and *transactional* sub-dimension leadership score means for the sub-dimensions of *idealised attributes and behaviour, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, contingent reward and management-by-exception (active)* were *fairly often* observed by all respondents (mean scores of 2.46; 2.67; 2.83; 2.63; 2.58; 2.61 and 2.45 respectively which all approximate a '3' perception score).

- On the other hand, all respondents perceived the *transactional* sub-dimension of *management-by-exception (passive)* to *sometimes* present in their deans' leadership, with a mean score of 1.94 (approximately '2').
- All respondents perceived deans to *very seldom* (mean score of 1.28 which approximates '1') exhibit the *laissez-faire* leadership style; *sometimes* the *transactional* style (mean score of 2.33) and *fairly often* (mean score of 2.63) the *transformational* leadership style. The same perception-trend was reported for the separate groups: deans, teachers and students.

The deduction can therefore be made that deans perceive that they practice the *transactional* style to somewhat less of an extent than they do the *transformational* style (*sometimes* and *fairly often* respectively), and, that they *very seldom* to a very limited extent practice the *laissez-faire* style. At the same time students and teachers express the same perception trend: they perceive deans to exhibit the *transformational* and *transactional* styles (*fairly often* and *sometimes* respectively), and *very seldom* the *laissez-faire* style, but, to somewhat less of an extent than deans perceive this to be the case.

This result speaks to the first sub-research question, question one (paragraph 5.2 and paragraph 1.3, chapter 1), on the status of TVET college deans' leadership styles.

Table 5.19 is interpreted in the same way. The results of Table 5.19 suggest that the leadership styles of deans are not experienced to be the same at all colleges sampled in Ethiopia.

For example, respondents perceived the deans of Aman-, Aleta Wondo-, Jinka- and Daye TVET Colleges to exhibit the *laissez-faire* style *sometimes* – thus more often (with mean scores of respectively 1.48; 1.54; 1.46 and 1.59 that all approximate '2') than TVET college deans of Hosanna-, Arba Minch-, Dilla-, Sawla-, Butajira- and Halaba colleges (mean scores of 1.14; 1.27; 1.35; 1.23; 1.03; 0.98 which all approximate '1').

Except for Dilla- and Jinka colleges (with *transformational* mean scores of 2.43 and 2.22 respectively), perceptions are that the *transformational leadership* style is *fairly often* practiced by college deans.

Except for Sawla- and Butajira colleges (with *transactional* leadership style mean scores of respectively 2.78 and 2.54), perceptions are that the *transactional* leadership style is *sometimes* practiced by the deans in their interaction with staff and students.

Table 5.19 therefore also confirms the status of leadership styles at Ethiopian TVET colleges with the *transformational*- and *transactional* leadership styles perceived to be practiced *fairly often to sometimes*, and the *laissez-faire* style *very seldom to sometimes*. These findings correlate with the findings of Van Eeden *et al.* (2008:255).

Up to this stage no statistical tests have been performed on the leadership scores reported. Tables 5.18 and 5.19 merely served as an initial indication of the status of leadership styles practiced by TVET deans. To confirm these preliminary suggestions, the statistical significance of these perception trends is verified in the regression analyses section, paragraph 5.5.4, which is still to follow.

Table 5.18⁴: The means of the perception scores for the various components of leadership style

Means reported are for all respondents, deans, teachers and students

	All respondents 294		Deans 10		Teachers 219		Students 65	
Leadership constructs	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.
Idealised attributes	2.46	0.95	2.33	0.61	2.50	0.98	2.36	0.91
Idealised behaviour	2.67	0.84	3.03	0.63	2.71	0.85	2.47	0.83
Inspirational motivation	2.83	0.87	3.40	0.58	2.83	0.90	2.76	0.78
Intellectual stimulation	2.63	1.00	3.10	0.53	2.62	1.03	2.60	0.92
Individual consideration	2.58	0.96	3.08	0.54	2.55	1.02	2.59	0.73
Contingent reward	2.61	0.94	3.05	0.35	2.64	0.96	2.47	0.90
Management by exception passive	1.94	0.98	1.13	0.90	2.07	0.91	1.63	1.10
Management by exception active	2.45	0.83	2.63	0.89	2.46	0.81	2.38	0.89
Transformational	2.63	0.80	2.99	0.41	2.64	0.84	2.55	0.69
Transactional	2.33	0.71	2.27	0.48	2.39	0.73	2.16	0.67
Laissez-faire	1.28	1.16	0.60	1.04	1.36	1.19	1.14	1.01

Table 5.19 below presents the sub-dimension and comprehensive leadership score means (and standard deviations) per TVET college.

⁴ Tables similar to Tables 5.18 and 5.19 for teachers and deans are reported in Appendix C, tables C1 – to C4.

Table 5.19: Means of the perception scores for the various components of leadership style

Leadership Constructs	Hossana 48		Aman 26		Arba Minch 44		Dilla 31		Sawla 31		Butajira 23		AletaWondo 7		Jinka 30		Halaba 25		Daye 29	
Variable	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.
Idealised attributes	2.35	0.86	2.59	1.10	2.32	0.96	2.31	0.89	2.76	1.07	2.89	0.57	2.57	0.90	2.21	0.86	2.51	1.18	2.45	0.94
Idealised behaviour	2.53	0.85	2.87	0.83	2.63	0.81	2.71	0.93	2.90	0.99	2.80	0.59	2.71	0.77	2.24	0.86	2.76	0.83	2.73	0.73
Inspirational motivation	2.80	0.93	2.93	0.83	2.64	0.88	2.57	1.03	3.19	0.68	3.16	0.61	2.96	0.96	2.51	0.92	2.83	0.92	3.00	0.69
Intellectual stimulation	2.45	1.11	2.87	0.84	2.61	0.98	2.30	1.08	2.94	0.90	3.01	0.74	2.86	0.75	2.08	0.99	2.69	1.04	2.93	0.89
Individual consideration	2.46	1.06	2.69	0.79	2.41	0.97	2.26	0.92	2.98	0.76	3.20	0.67	2.86	0.54	2.04	1.07	2.60	1.06	2.81	0.70
Contingent reward	2.64	1.14	2.70	0.87	2.41	0.94	2.28	1.07	3.01	0.68	2.96	0.67	2.86	0.75	2.27	0.81	2.58	0.96	2.78	0.82
Management, exc. passive	1.85	1.00	2.09	1.13	1.76	0.96	1.98	0.97	2.43	0.90	2.05	0.99	1.54	1.25	1.64	0.74	1.81	0.96	2.08	0.98
Management, exc. active	2.30	0.84	2.47	0.67	2.36	0.81	2.22	1.05	2.90	0.67	2.62	0.82	2.71	0.77	2.28	0.80	2.56	0.78	2.47	0.81
Transformational	2.52	0.81	2.79	0.73	2.52	0.84	2.43	0.86	2.95	0.70	3.01	0.50	2.79	0.72	2.22	0.79	2.68	0.89	2.78	0.69
Transactional	2.26	0.81	2.42	0.70	2.18	0.67	2.16	0.89	2.78	0.52	2.54	0.47	2.37	0.70	2.06	0.57	2.32	0.70	2.44	0.72
Laissez-faire	1.14	1.15	1.48	1.49	1.27	0.89	1.35	1.10	1.23	1.25	1.03	1.10	1.54	1.49	1.46	1.05	0.98	1.10	1.59	1.30

Means reported are for all respondents for the various colleges

The fact that leadership style scores were calculated for the leadership style-dimensions and constructs enables research to determine the perceived dominance of the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire style of deans of TVET colleges in Ethiopia using the norms set by Bass and Avolio. These results are reported in the next paragraph below, paragraph (ii).

(ii) Classification of leadership style according to norms for dominant leadership styles

The classification of deans' dominant leadership style/s that respondents perceive their deans to exhibit, are provided in Table 5.20. This classification is based on norms set by Bass and Avolio (2000) who designed the MLQ (5X-short) leadership style questionnaires used in this study. The norms (provided in Table 5.2 of sub-paragraph 5.4.3.3) classify the dominant presence of a leadership style of a dean on the basis of the number of score means of leadership style sub-dimensions (that describes a particular comprehensive leadership style) that fall within a set range of values (Bass & Avolio, 2000:17).

How the classification was electronically programmed and executed is explained using the (a) mentioned Bass and Avolio norms and (b) the listing of leadership style sub-dimension construct scores for every respondent. The complete listing is attached in Appendix D, Table D2. For example, to determine whether a particular teacher-respondent experienced his/her dean as dominantly displaying the *transformational* leadership style, the teachers' leadership sub-dimension scores (*idealised influence, idealised behaviour, individualised consideration; inspirational motivation; and intellectual stimulation*) for the *transformational* style are compared to '3' (the norm set by Bass & Avolio) and the number of scores equal to or greater than '3' are tallied. Table 5.20 below displays the number of teacher respondents with tallies of 0; 1; 2; 3; 4; 5; for the five *transformational* sub-dimension scores > 3 or = to 3.

Table 5.20 indicates that 124 teachers had 0 to 2 dimension-scores > 3, or = to 3 (56.62%); and 95 (or 43.38%) teachers had 3 to 5 sub-dimension scores >3 or = to 3. The latter group thus awarded a "dominant" *transformational* leadership style to their deans. In similar fashion, the second illustrative example table, Table 5.21, was compiled for *transformational* leadership dominance of deans as perceived by all respondents (N =294). In this instance, it was indicated that 42.15% of the respondents perceived their dean's *transformational* leadership style to be dominant. This agrees very closely with teachers' assessment.

Tables 5.20 to 5.23, also included in this subsection, report the dominance-classification for the *transformational, transactional* and *laissez faire* styles for combinations of respondent-groups and colleges:

From Tables 5.22 and 5.23 it can be deduced that the earlier, exploratory analyses suggestions of the frequently perceived dominance of the *transformational* and *transactional* leadership styles are confirmed.

Example-tables to illustrate how Bass and Avolio-norms were used to calculate dominance of transformational leadership style for teachers:

Table 5.20: Illustrative example of dominance of the *transformational leadership* style perceived to present in TVET deans

Transformational sub-dimension scores \geq to 3	Frequency	Percentage
0	57	26.03
1	36	16.44
2	31	14.16
subtotal 0-2 (non-dominant)	124	56.62
3	23	10.50
4	20	9.13
5	52	23.74
subtotal 3-5 (dominant)	95	43.38
Total	219	100.00

(Norm: number of transformational components with mean scores \geq 3 for the 219 teachers)

Transformational leadership style-dominance classification of all respondents' responses.

Table 5.21: Illustrative example of dominance of the *transformational leadership* style TVET deans are perceived to exhibit

Transformational sub-dimension scores \geq 3	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percentage
0	72	24.49	72	24.49
1	52	17.69	124	42.18
2	46	15.65	170	57.82
Subtotal 0-2 (non-dominant):170 or 57.82%				
3	27	9.18	197	67.01
4	33	11.22	230	78.23
5	64	21.77	294	100.00
Subtotal 3-5 (dominant): 124 or 42.18%				

Number of *transformational components* with mean scores \geq 3 for all respondents 294)

Table 5.22 below reports on the classification of perceived dominance/ non-dominance of the *transformational*; *transactional* and *laissez-faire* style for all respondents, deans, teachers and students using the Bass and Avolio algorithm (2000) explained in the illustrative example.

Table 5.22: Classification of three leadership styles as dominant or non-dominant applying Bass and Avolio norms (2000).

Total N = 94	All respondents (N=294)		Deans (N=10)		Teachers (N=219)		Students (N=65)	
Sub-dimension leadership style constructs	f_i	%	f_i	%	f_i	%	f_i	%
Transformational, 0-2	170	57.83	4	40.00	124	56.62	42	64.62
Transformational, 3-5	124	42.17	6	60.00	95	43.38	23	35.38
Transactional 0	217	73.81	8	80.00	155	70.78	54	83.08
Transactional 1	77	26.19	2	20.00	64	29.22	11	16.92
Laissez-faire, 0	293	99.66	10	100.00	218	99.54	54	83.08
Laissez-faire, 1	1	0.34	0	0.00	1	0.46	0	0.00
mean score								
transformational,	2.63		2.99		2.64		2.55	
transactional	2.33		2.27		2.39		2.16	
Laissez-faire	1.28		0.60		1.36		1.14	

All respondents, and separately for deans, teachers and students (N=294)

Table 5.23 reports the classification of dominance/ non-dominance of the *transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* style for all respondents, per college (and therefore per dean) using the Bass and Avolio algorithm (2000) explained in the illustrative example

Table 5.23⁵: Classification of three leadership styles as dominant or non-dominant applying Bass and Avolia norms (2000) for colleges

Tot N = 294 Sub-dimension leadership style constructs	Hossana n=48		Aman n=26		Arba Minch n=44		Dilla n=31		Sawla n=31		Butajira n=23		Aleta Wondo n=7		Jinka n=30		Halaba n=25		Daye n=29	
	fi	%	fi	%	fi	%	fi	%	fi	%	fi	%	fi	%	fi	%	fi	%	fi	%
All respondents																				
Transformational, 0-2	30	62.50	16	61.54	24	54.55	22	70.97	13	41.94	10	43.48	2	28.57	25	83.33	14	56.00	14	48.28
Transformational, 3-5	18	37.50	10	38.46	20	45.45	9	29.03	18	58.06	13	56.52	5	71.43	5	16.67	11	44.00	15	51.72
Transactional 0	36	75.00	20	76.92	36	81.82	23	74.19	16	51.61	15	65.22	5	71.43	27	90.00	19	76.00	20	68.97
Transactional 1	12	25.00	6	23.08	8	18.18	8	25.81	15	48.39	8	34.78	2	28.57	3	10.00	6	24.00	9	31.03
Laissez-faire, 0	47	97.92	26	100.00	44	100.00	31	100.00	31	100.00	23	100.00	7	100.00	30	100.00	25	100.00	29	100.00
Laissez-faire, 1	1	2.08	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Mean score																				
transformational;	2.52		2.97		2.52		2.43		2.95		3.01		2.79		2.22		2.68		2.79	
transactional;	2.26		2.42		2.18		2.16		2.78		2.54		2.37		2.06		2.32		2.44	
Laissez-faire	1.14		1.48		1.27		1.35		1.23		1.03		1.54		1.46		0.98		1.59	

(All respondents N=294)

⁵ For detail breakdown of the deans; students and teachers: see Appendix E.

The discussion of results now moves on to an assessment of the perceived outcome of deans' leadership style - measured against the performance constructs of *extra effort*, *effectiveness* and *job satisfaction* in sub-paragraphs 5.5.3.1 to 5.5.3.3 of paragraph 5.5.3.

5.5.2.4 Pearson's correlation coefficients calculated on the three sets of leadership style scores

Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated for the *transformational/ transactional*; *transformational/ laissez-faire*; and *transactional/ laissez-faire* pair-wise sets of leadership style scores to investigate the dependencies between these leadership styles.

Results indicated that:

- the *transformational and transactional* leadership styles were positively ($r = 0.49$) and significantly (0.1% significance) correlated;
- a weak but significant correlation was established between the *transactional and laissez-faire leadership* styles, with $r = 0.19$ on the 0.1% significance level.
- the correlation between the *transformational leadership style and the laissez-faire leadership style* ($r = -0.05$) was non-significant with a probability of 0.44.

These findings speak to the second sub-research question, question two (paragraph 5.2 and chapter 1, paragraph 1.3) which questions the dependency between leadership styles.

In practice the highly significant positive correlation between the *transformational* and *transactional* leadership styles indicates that the *transactional* and *transformational* styles, to some extent, share similar leadership characteristics. However, the weak, but statistically significant negative correlation between the *transformational* and *laissez-faire* styles indicates to a weak type of agreement in "opposites"-characteristics of the two styles. Research was therefore able to establish the types of dependencies between the three leadership styles. This addressed sub-research question two.

To now quantify the outcome of deans' leadership style/s (performance) the status of the three measures of outcome/ performance is reported in paragraph 5.5.3 below.

5.5.3 Outcome of leadership style: Results of analyses performed on the performance scores of *extra effort*, *effectiveness* and *job satisfaction*

In the following sub-sections the results of analyses performed on the three sets of performance scores (*extra effort*, *effectiveness* and *job satisfaction*) are presented.

5.5.3.1 Composite frequency tables of the three performance constructs (extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction)

The results of this subsection (Tables 5.24 to 5.26) and sub-paragraphs 5.5.3.2 and 5.5.3.3 that follow for the *outcome-of-leadership style* concepts (*extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction*) are interpreted in exactly the same way as that reported in paragraphs 5.5.2. Responses analysed in this subsection pertain to all respondents.

By studying the totals-row in Tables 5.24 to 5.26 presented below, it can be deduced that the majority of respondents perceived the three outcome-aspects of leadership-styles as occurring *often, or always*: ‘3’ and ‘4’ response-rating percentage for *willingness to put in extra effort*, was 60.32% (532 of 882 responses); for *effectiveness of deans* the percentage was 64.97% (764 of 1176 responses); and for *job satisfaction* the percentage was 65.42% (384 of 587). (This result speaks to sub-research questions three to five).

These preliminary findings suggest that performance under the leadership style/s of TVET deans is in general perceived to be positive. To determine and discriminate between levels of performance (more positive or negative) under different leadership styles, the researcher argues that quantitative measures of performance can be derived from response-data presented in Tables 5.24 to 5.26 and the performance constructs they represent (along with the internal consistency reliability verified for these constructs). These calculated measures will enable research to compare groups.

Table 5.24⁶: Composite one-way frequency tables of the subset of questionnaire questions that probe *willingness to put in extra effort*

Questionnaire questions	Level of frequency of occurrence					Total
	Never	Very seldom	Seldom	Fairly Often	Always	
Frequency row percentage						
Motivate do more than expected	45 15.31	29 9.86	57 19.39	107 36.39	56 19.05	294
Motivate other to succeed	33 11.22	30 10.20	63 21.43	100 34.01	68 23.13	294
Motivate willingness, try harder	26 8.84	29 9.86	38 12.93	121 41.16	80 27.21	294
Total	104	88	158	328	204	882

The probability of the Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 18.14 under the null hypothesis that response patterns for the subset of questionnaire questions do not differ is 0.02*. This implies that response patterns to some questionnaire questions differ statistically significantly from others.

⁶ For detail on composite tables for the outcome of leadership measures (performance variables) for the deans, teachers and students, see Appendix F, Tables F1-F9.

Table 5.25: Composite one-way frequency tables of the subset of questionnaire questions that probe *deans' effectiveness*

Questionnaire questions	Frequency-of-occurrence rating					
Frequency Row Percentage	Never	Very seldom	Some- times	Fairly often	Always	Total
Meet other job-related needs	25 8.50	39 13.27	60 20.41	103 35.03	67 22.79	294
Represent others higher authority	24 8.16	41 13.95	45 15.31	114 38.78	70 23.81	294
Effective in leading group	19 6.46	28 9.52	52 17.69	119 40.48	76 25.85	294
Meet organizational requirements	15 5.10	23 7.82	41 13.95	130 44.22	85 28.91	294
Total	83	131	198	466	298	1176

The probability of the Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 19.98 under the null hypothesis that response patterns for the subset of questionnaire questions do not differ is 0.07. This implies that response patterns of the different questionnaire questions do not differ from one another.

Table 5.26: Composite one-way frequency tables of the subset of questionnaire questions that probe *job satisfaction*

Questionnaire questions	Frequency-of-occurrence rating					
Frequency Row Percentage	Never	Very seldom	Some- times	Fairly often	Always	Total
Use satisfactory leadership methods	18 6.12	33 11.22	51 17.35	127 43.20	65 22.11	294
Motivate, willingness try harder	25 8.53	28 9.56	48 16.38	123 41.98	69 23.55	293
Total	43	61	99	250	134	587

The probability of the Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 19.98 under the null hypothesis that response patterns for the subset of questionnaire questions do not differ is 0.07. This implies that the response patterns of the questionnaire questions do not differ from one another.

Similar to the analysis strategy for leadership styles, once an initial overview of the status of perceived performance (*job satisfaction, dean-effectiveness, extra-effort*) was established by means of the above reported frequency tables, the internal consistency reliability of these performances constructs - as measurable variables of the *outcome of leadership styles* - had to be verified. The results of these scale reliability tests are reported and discussed in the next sub-section, paragraph 5.5.3.2.

5.5.3.2 Results of scale reliability tests performed on the three sets of responses to performance (dean-effectiveness, extra effort and job satisfaction)

Similar to paragraph 5.4.3.3., Table 5.27 below reports the results of four scale reliability tests that were conducted on the subsets of responses to questions that probed the three work performance constructs of *extra effort*, *effectiveness* and *job satisfaction* which represents quantitative measures of the outcome of exhibited leadership style. In Table 5.27 below the following results of scale reliability test are reported: the first column of the table lists the three performance constructs. The second column lists the subsets of questions that probed each outcome-performance component and the fourth column reports the standardized Cronbach alpha coefficient calculated for each construct. Column 3 is again included to illustrate that although scale reliability tests often indicate that the responses to some question have to be removed (or transposed) from a construct-description to improve internal consistency reliability, this was not the case in this study. The responses to all questions in each subset were used to describe each specific construct.

Deductions derived from Table 5.27

Table 5.27 reports that the Cronbach alpha values for all performance constructs – including a general composite performance construct – were greater than 0.7 (0.80 – 0.92). It can therefore be deduced that internal consistency reliability was verified for all components of performance.

Table 5.27: Verification of internal consistency reliability of performance constructs (*extra effort, effectiveness and job satisfaction*).

Performance constructs, standardised Cronbach alpha coefficients, and questionnaire items that describe each construct are reported

Construct/ component	questionnaire items	Items deleted/ or reversed?	Standardised Cronbach alpha
Extra effort	q37-q39	-	0.80
Efficiency	q40-q43	-	0.88
Job satisfaction	q44-q45	-	0.83
Outcome-of-leadership	q37-q45	-	0.92

With internal consistency reliability verified, analyses could proceed by calculating perception measures of these performance constructs. These results are reported in the next sub-section.

5.5.3.3 Calculation of the performance construct scores (*job satisfaction, extra effort and effectiveness*)

Similar to the interpretation of the score-values for the *leadership style* constructs, the mean scores for the *performance* constructs (reflected in Table 5.28 below), can be interpreted as indicating that these means strengthen the suggestion derived from the exploratory composite frequency tables in sub-paragraph 5.5.3.1, namely that the three aspects of performance (*extra effort; effectiveness and job satisfaction*) are observed to be satisfactory (majority mean performance scores of *fairly often* ('3') to *always* ('4') are reported).

This statement is validated by the mean scores of the three performance constructs of 2.49; 2.65; and 2.63 reported for all respondents in Table 5.28. These means all approximate the *frequency-of-occurrence* rating level of '3' (*fairly often*). This can be interpreted as a *positive* perception of all three aspects of performance. Similar performance mean scores are reported in Table 5.28 for the deans', students' and teachers' response groups. An exception to this is a mean score of 2.39 awarded the *extra-effort* teacher performance construct by students. This exception approximates a rating value of '2' (*sometimes*) which suggests that students experienced that the aspect of *extra effort* of teacher performance under TVET college deans' specific leadership styles was less positive.

Such findings, are of utmost importance to the field of education, since workers who are motivated to put in extra effort, are effective in what they do and satisfied with their jobs, are more likely to contribute significantly to the enhancement of the quality of education (chapter 2, paragraph 2.2.4.4).

Table 5.28: Perception means scores, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values for the performance dimensions of *extra-effort; effectiveness and job satisfaction*

Variable	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Effort	294	2.50	1.08	0	4.00
Effective	294	2.66	1.00	0	4.00
Satisfaction	294	2.63	1.07	0	4.00
for deans (N=10)					
Effort	10	3.20	0.36	2.67	4.00
Effective	10	2.68	0.58	2.00	4.00
Satisfaction	10	2.80	0.63	2.00	4.00
for teachers (N=219)					
Effort	219	2.50	1.08	0.00	4.00
Effective	219	2.67	1.06	0.00	4.00
Satisfaction	219	2.59	1.16	0.00	4.00

Variable	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
for students (N=65)					
Effort	65	2.38	1.06	0.00	4.00
Effective	65	2.57	0.85	0.75	4.00
Satisfaction	65	2.73	0.80	0.50	4.00

(N=294)

Up to this point, discussions of analysis results served to introduce the different measurable *leadership style* and *performance* variables; determine the status of these variables as perceived by the Ethiopian survey sample; and answer to sub-research questions one and two. Further presentation of analysis results in paragraph 5.5.4 below focuses on relationships between aspects of performance (as outcome of leadership styles of deans) and leadership styles that deans of TVET colleges are perceived to exhibit. The next discussion details these relationships in order to answer to sub-research questions three to five.

5.5.4 The results of step-wise regression analyses that investigate relationships between aspects of performance and exhibited leadership styles of TVET college deans

As explained in the relevant sub-sections of this section of the analysis strategy-discussion, the best-fit step-wise linear regression models for the *effect of leadership styles* of deans on performance are discussed for the performance components of:

- Respondents' perceptions of deans' *effectiveness*;
- Respondents' perceptions of teachers' *job satisfaction*;
- Respondents' perceptions of teachers' *willingness to go the extra mile*/put in extra effort, and in general,
- Respondents' perceptions of overall work performance/ effectiveness at TVET colleges.

Description of these relationships will enable research to answer to sub-research questions three to five.

(Comment: Please note that the analysis strategy discussion in sub-paragraph 5.4.5 indicated that the biographical properties of age and gender would be included in the regression analysis models of performance to determine whether biographical properties – in conjunction with the effect of leadership styles of deans – impact any aspect of performance. Tables 5.29, 5.31, 5.33 and 5.35 that follow, however, indicate that the biographical properties did not statistically significantly impact

any of the *performance* aspects. In other words, no biographical effect appears in any of the final, best-fit regression model reported in the mentioned four tables).

The results of the mentioned four best-fit stepwise linear regression models are presented in the following four sub-paragraphs: 5.5.4.1 to 5.5.4.4. Results for each performance-aspect (*effectiveness, job satisfaction, extra effort* and *performance as a whole*) are presented in three tables: a final-step analysis-of-variance table; a table of parameter estimates and a predictive regression equation that describes the relationship/ or impact of deans exhibited leadership styles on the specific aspect of performance. Only the results of the final step in the step-wise regression conducted on each performance-aspect (*willingness to put in extra effort; effectiveness and job satisfaction, performance as a whole*) are reported in this chapter. This measure was taken to keep analysis output within measurable proportions.

It will be observed that in the analysis-discussions below the responses of deans were excluded from the regression models – the researcher argued that it was of importance to the study to establish how staff and students experience leadership style and its impact on them: the people that need to “perform” under a specific leadership style. The researcher argued that the deans themselves were not in this position and that their opinion could be biased or subjective with regard to how they would like to portray themselves and how they would like to affect peoples’ lives.

The first *leadership style/performance* relationship to be discussed in sub-paragraph 5.5.4.1 relates to the performance variable of *effectiveness*: how *effectiveness* is affected /impacted by the leadership styles that deans of TVET colleges are perceived to exhibit in their interactions with staff and students.

5.5.4.1 The impact of deans’ leadership styles on perceptions of deans’ effectiveness

Table 5.29 below, the analysis of variance table, presents the final step of a linear stepwise regression analysis (backwards elimination) performed on the performance *effectiveness-scores of deans* as evaluated by teachers and students. This performance-variable forms the dependent variable of the regression model. The three sets of leadership style scores (*transactional, transformational and laissez-faire*), and the biographical variables of *age* and *gender* form the independent/ or explanatory variables in the regression model.

Table 5.29 indicates that the *transformational and transactional* leadership style variables, along with their interaction-effect proved to be influential and statistically significant effects on perceptions of *effectiveness*. (These effects proved to be statistically significant on respectively the 0.1%; 0.1%

and 0.1% levels of significance – the last column of Table 5.29 refers). Table 5.29 furthermore indicates that the combination of leadership styles explains 62% of the variability in deans’ *effectiveness* data. This was therefore a good fit for the *effectiveness* data.

Table 5.30 that follows, reports on the estimates (column 2) of a regression equation and the regression coefficients’ significance (in column 5) that describes the relationship/ or impact of the *transformational* and *transactional* styles and their interaction on perceptions of the *effectiveness* of deans. This equation is presented in the rectangular box below Table 5.30 and describes the nature of the impact of leadership style on perceived *dean-effectiveness*.

Table 5.29: ANOVA table of model of best fit (step-wise regression) on *effectiveness* scores (dependent variable).

Independent variables include, transformational and transactional leader-style scores and their interaction effect

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	3	180.1155532	60.0385177	151.76	<.0001
Transformational	1	22.47861549	22.47861549	56.82	<.0001
Transactional	1	6.49705148	6.49705148	16.42	<.0001
Transform*Transactional	1	1.66814100	1.66814100	4.22	0.0410
Error	280	110.7744116	0.3956229		
Corrected Total	283	290.8899648			

R square = 0.62; effective mean score= 2.65

Table 5.30: Regression parameters for the model of best fit

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr > t
Intercept	-.6707282940	0.30666014	-2.19	0.0296
Transformational	0.9466751331	0.12559053	7.54	<.0001
Transactional	0.6625894219	0.16350350	4.05	<.0001
Transform*Transactional	-.1084740745	0.05282631	-2.05	0.0410

The predictive equation (derived from the estimates presented in Table 5.30) describes the relationship between a combination of experienced leadership styles and perceptions of effectiveness-performance of teachers.

$$Y_i = -0.67 + 0.95 x (\text{transformational score}) + 0.66 x (\text{transactional score}) - 0.11 x (\text{transformational} \times \text{transactional score})$$

Where,

y_i represents respondents’ *effectiveness scores*,

‘*transformational*’ represents respondents’ *comprehensive transformational leadership*

construct scores,

*'transactional' represents respondents' comprehensive transactional leadership score',
and*

*'transformational x transactional' represents the product of these two scores for a
particular respondent.*

The respective *transformational* and *transactional* leadership style regression-coefficients (0.95 and 0.66) in the above equation are positive and relatively large which implies that perceptions of *deans' effectiveness* are positively influenced by deans that exhibit the *transformational* or *transactional* leadership styles in their dealings with students and teachers. Howell and Avolio (1993: 898) came to the same conclusion in their research.

In the next sub-section, paragraph 5.5.4.2, the impact of leadership styles on perceptions of *job satisfaction of teachers* is reported.

5.5.4.2 The impact of leadership styles on perceptions of *job satisfaction*

The results of a step-wise regression to establish the relationship between the *leadership styles* that deans are perceived to exhibit and their impact on *job-satisfaction* of teachers can be interpreted in a similar fashion to that explained for the performance-effectiveness model in sub-paragraph 5.5.4.1.

In this instance, Table 5.31 below - an analysis of variance table - presents the final step of a linear stepwise regression analysis (backwards elimination) performed on the *job-satisfaction* performance scores of teachers and students. This performance-variable forms the dependent variable of the regression model. The three sets of leadership style scores (*transactional, transformational and laissez-faire*), and, the biographical variables of *age* and *gender* are entered into the regression model as the independent/ or explanatory variables.

Table 5.31 indicates that the *transformational and transactional* leadership style variables, along with their interaction-effect are influential and statistically significant effects on perception of teachers' *job satisfaction*. (These effects proved to be statistically significant on respectively the 0.1%; 0.01% and 5% level of significance – as indicated in the last column of Table 5.31). Table 5.31 furthermore indicates that this combination of leadership styles explains 59% of the variability in the *job-satisfaction* data. Therefore, this was also considered a good fit for the *job-satisfaction* data.

Table 5.32, reports the estimates (column 2) of the best fit regression model for this aspect of performance. (The significance of the estimates is presented in column 5 of Table 5.32). These

estimates are used to compile the regression equation that describes the relationship/ or impact of deans' *transformational* and *transactional* styles and interaction effects on perceptions of the *job satisfaction* of teachers. This equation is presented in the rectangular box below Table 5.32.

Table 5.31: ANOVA table of the model of best fit (step-wise regression) on *job satisfaction* scores (dependent variable).

Independent variables include, transformational, transactional leader-style scores and their interaction effect

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	3	194.7247155	64.9082385	131.26	<.0001
Transformational	1	28.06758122	28.06758122	56.76	<.0001
Transactional	1	8.96718292	8.96718292	18.13	<.0001
transform*transactional	1	3.10492077	3.10492077	6.28	0.0128
Error	280	138.4619042	0.4945068		
Corrected Total	283	333.1866197			

R square = 0.59; satisfaction mean score = 2.62-

Table 5.32: Regression parameters for the model of best fit

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t value	Pr > t
Intercept	-1.000806709	0.34284890	-2.92	0.0038
Transformational	1.057836832	0.14041139	7.53	<.0001
Transactional	0.778420668	0.18279844	4.26	<.0001
transform*transactional	-0.147990841	0.05906031	-2.51	0.0128

The predictive equation (derived from the estimates presented in Table 5.32) describes the relationship between experienced leadership styles of deans and perceptions of teachers' job satisfaction:

$$Y_i = -1.00 + 1.06 x (\text{transformational score}) + 0.78 x (\text{transactional score}) - 0.15 x (\text{transactional} \times \text{transformational score})$$

Where

y_i represents *job satisfaction scores*;

'*transformational*' represents respondents' comprehensive transformational leadership construct scores;

'*transactional*' represents respondents' comprehensive transactional leadership scores; and

'*transformational x transactional*' represents the product of these two scores for a

particular respondent.

The respective *transformational and transactional* leadership style regression-coefficients (1.06 and 0.78) in the above regression equation is positive and relatively large, which implies that *job-satisfaction* of teachers (perceptions) are positively influenced by deans that exhibit the *transformational or transactional* leadership styles in their dealings with students and teachers. (In this equation and the equation of paragraph 5.5.4.1, the negative regression coefficient associated with the interaction effect of the *transformational* and *transactional* styles of deans suggests that if both the transformational and transactional style are used simultaneously, it tends to impact perceptions of *job performance* negatively to a small extent (-0.11 and -0.15 respectively)).

The prediction therefore indicates that perceptions of *job satisfaction* are positively influenced by the *transactional* and *transformational* leadership styles of TVET deans.

The impact of leadership styles on perceptions of *willingness to go the extra mile* is discussed in sub paragraph 5.5.4.3.

5.5.4.3 The impact of leadership styles on perceptions of *willingness to go the extra mile/ extra effort*

The results of the step wise regression analysis to determine the relationship between the *leadership* styles that deans are perceived to exhibit and this impact on *willingness to put in extra effort* by teachers can be interpreted in a similar fashion to that explained for the *performance-effectiveness* and *job satisfaction* models in paragraph 5.5.4.1 and 5.5.4.2.

In this instance, Table 5.33 below - an analysis of variance table - presents the final step of a linear stepwise regression analysis (backwards elimination) performed on the *extra effort* performance scores of students and teachers. This performance-variable forms the dependent variable of the regression model. The three sets of leadership style scores (*transactional, transformational and laissez-faire*), and, the biographical variables of *age* and *gender* are entered into the regression model as the independent/ or explanatory variables in the model.

Table 5.33 indicates that the effects of the *transformational and transactional* leadership styles being present in TVET-college deans' interactions with staff and students statistically significantly influence perceptions of teachers' *willingness to put in extra effort*. (These effects proved to be statistically significant on respectively the 0.1%; and 0.1% levels of significance – indicated in the last column of Table 5.33). Table 5.33 furthermore indicates that this regression model explains 53%

of the variability in the *extra effort* data. Therefore, this figure provides a sound indication of a model of ‘good fit’ for the *extra-effort* data.

Table 5.34 presents the estimates (column 2) of the best fit regression model for this aspect of performance (The significance of the estimates is reported in column 5 of Table 5.34). These estimates assist in compiling the regression equation that describes the relationship/ or impact of deans’ *transformational* and *transactional* leadership styles on perceptions of teachers’ *willingness to put in extra effort*. This equation is presented in the rectangular box below Table 5.34.

Table 5.33: Analysis of variance table of the model of best fit (step-wise linear regression) for willingness-to-put-in-extra-effort scores (dependent variable).

Independent variables include the *transformational- and transactional* leader-style scores effect

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
Model	2	173.0585161	86.5292581	157.46	<.0001
Transformational	1	52.45964600	52.45964600	95.46	<.0001
Transactional	1	6.31217789	6.31217789	11.49	0.0008
Error	281	154.4187922	0.5495331		
Corrected Total	283	327.4773083			

R square = 0.53;

Table 5.34: Regression parameters for the model of best fit

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t value	Pr > t
Intercept	-0.2216366068	0.16073596	-1.38	0.1690
Transformational	0.7649550595	0.07829250	9.77	<.0001
Transactional	0.2956185509	0.08722460	3.39	0.0008

The predictive equation (derived from the estimates presented in Table 5.34) describes the relationship between experienced *leadership styles of deans* and perceptions of *teachers’ willingness to put in extra effort*:

$$Y_i = -0.22 + 0.77 (\text{transformational score}) + 0.30 (\text{transactional score})$$

Where,

y_i represents willingness to go the extra mile,

‘*transformational*’ represents respondents’ comprehensive *transformational leadership construct scores*;

‘*transactional*’ represents respondents’ comprehensive *transactional leadership scores*.

In this regression equation, the fact that the regression coefficient for the *transformational* component is relatively large (0.77) and the regression coefficient for the *transactional leadership style* component is relatively small (0.30), implies that the perceived presence of the *transformational leadership style in deans* will enhance teachers' *willingness to put in extra effort* to a greater extent than will the perceived presence of the *transactional leadership style in deans'* behaviour.

The prediction equation therefore indicates that perceptions of teachers' *willingness to put in extra effort* are positively influenced by the presence of the *transformational leadership style* in TVET deans and to a lesser extent by the *transactional leadership style* TVET deans are perceived to exhibit.

The impact of *leadership styles* on perceptions of *general work performance* (a comprehensive construct that overarches the aspects of *job satisfaction; effectiveness* and *extra effort*) is discussed in sub-paragraph 5.5.4.4.

5.5.4.4 The impact of the leadership styles deans exhibit on perceptions of *general work performance* (performance aspects combined)

A final stepwise regression was conducted (similar to the three regressions discussed in Sub-paragraphs 5.5.4.1 – 5.5.4.3) on a comprehensive *performance* construct. The scores for this construct was calculated as the mean rating value of each respondent (teachers and students) to all questions that probed aspects of *performance* in the MLQ (5X short). As such the construct represents general perceptions of *work performance*: Tables 5.35 and 5.36 below report on the final step of the stepwise regression analysis.

Table 5.35 indicates that the perceived presence of the *transformational, transactional and laissez-faire* leadership styles in TVET-college deans' interactions with staff and students statistically significantly impact perceptions of *performance-as-a-whole*. (These effects proved to be statistically significant on respectively the 0.1%; 0.1% and 1% levels of significance – the last column of Table 5.35 refers). Table 5.35 furthermore indicates that this regression model explains 72% of the variability in the data of the perceived *performance-as-a-whole concept*. Therefore, this is a very good fit for perceptions of general performance. Table 5.36 reports on the estimates (column 2) of the best fit regression model for general performance. (The significance of the estimates is reported in column 5 of Table 5.36). These estimates assist in compiling the regression equation that describes the relationship/ or impact of deans' *transformational, transactional and laissez-faire* leadership

styles on perceptions of *general performance*. This equation is presented in the rectangle below Table 5.36.

Table 5.35: ANOVA table of the model of best fit (step-wise regression) on *general perception of positive outcome of leadership scores* (dependent variable).

Independent variables include the *transformational*-, *laissez-faire* and *transactional* leader-style scores effect and their interaction

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F value	Pr > F
Model	4	183.1208205	45.7802051	1v4.95	<.0001
Transformational	1	17.17243571	17.17243571	65.63	<.0001
Transactional	1	5.51204735	5.51204735	21.06	<.0001
Laissez-Faire	1	2.34803019	2.34803019	8.97	0.0030
transform*transactional	1	0.79928476	0.79928476	3.05	0.0816
Error	279	73.0070886	0.2616742		
Corrected Total	283	256.1279091			
R square =0.72; outcome mean = 2.59					

Table 5.36: Regression parameters for the model of best fit

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t value	Pr > F
Intercept	-0.4855239901	0.25799206	-1.88	0.0609
Transformational	0.8594195011	0.10608883	8.10	<.0001
Transactional	0.6103179473	0.13297809	4.59	<.0001
Laissez-faire	-0.0838659454	0.02799718	-3.00	0.0030
Transformational*transactional	-0.0761845298	0.04359096	-1.75	0.0816

The predictive equation (derived from the estimates presented in Table 5.36) describes the relationship between experienced leadership styles of deans and perceptions of *general work performance*:

$$Y_i = -0.49 + 0.86 x (\text{transformational score}) + 0.61 x (\text{transactional score}) - 0.08x (\text{laissez faire score})$$

Where,

y_i represents a general work performance score

'*transformational*' represents respondents' comprehensive transformational leadership construct scores;

'*transactional*' represents respondents' comprehensive transactional leadership scores; and

'laissez-faire' represents respondents' comprehensive laissez-faire leadership style score.

In the above regression equation, the regression coefficient for the *transformational* and *transactional leadership style* components are relatively large (0.86 and 0.61 respectively), and that of the *laissez-faire* component small and negative (-0.08). This implies that the presence of the *transformational and transactional leadership* styles in deans will enhance perceptions of *performance in general* but the presence of the *laissez-faire* leadership styles in deans will have a small, negative effect on performance-perceptions.

The prediction therefore indicates that perceptions of *general performance* are positively influenced by the presence of the *transformational and transactional* leadership style observed in TVET deans' leadership, but negatively – to a very limited extent – by the presence of the *laissez-faire* leadership style observed in deans' behaviour.

(Comment: please note that in preliminary stepwise regression analyses in this study - not included in the thesis - the type of respondent, namely, student or teacher was also included in the regression model as an explanatory variable to investigate whether *type of respondent* would impact perceptions of performance (for all three aspects). The researcher points out that difference between *teachers and students* (a biographical effect) were not significant in these regressions (the effect was removed by the analysis process in interim steps of the stepwise regression analyses). For this reason, separate regression analyses were not performed for teachers and students).

Before the quantitative findings are summarised in the concluding section, paragraph 5.7, an overview of the qualitative interview responses, and, responses to the open-ended questions included as part of the MLQ (5X-short) questionnaire are presented in paragraph 5.6. This is done to compliment and verify (or disprove) the quantitative analyses. (The interview schedules are attached in Appendix L-M).

5.6 RESULTS OF THE QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW DATA

This section briefly overviews the findings deduced from participant responses to the open-ended questions that were asked of participants while completing the MLQ (5X SHORT) questionnaire (Appendixes H-K), as well as responses to semi-structured interviews conducted with TVET college deans and the TVET bureau head (Appendix L and M). Interviews were conducted at each college, and separately with the bureau head at TVET college head office. The interviews took between one and two hours. All the appointments with interviewees were honoured and all interviews were

conducted at a time convenient for both the officials and the researcher. It is fortunate that these interviews were conducted as incorporated in the research design, as responses to the open ended questions of the MLQ questionnaire were rather limited, especially in the case of students and teachers; therefore no reference is made to them in Table 5-37. The researcher opines that the reason for the limited open ended questionnaire responses can be attributed to the biographical characteristics of respondents indicating that they were mostly young, had limited training and experience and could therefore offer little input concerning management issues that they knew even less about. Moreover, the researcher also found it difficult to obtain quotes to insert because of the poor and inadequate language abilities of most participants.

Table 5.37 provides an overview of the type of questions asked of deans and the bureau head (column one) and summarises the essence of feedback received during interview sessions as well as in open-ended questions. The interviews were aimed at verifying perceptions regarding the following topics: (a) leadership in general and leadership styles that deans practice; (b) teacher and student performance; (c) deans' effectiveness, and job satisfaction. Some questions were shortened/rephrased to fit into the column. The full interview questions can be found in Appendixes L and M.

Table 5.37: An overview of participant responses to semi-structured interview questions/open-ended questionnaire questions of deans

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS included under the different TOPICS covered in the focus group interview	Essence of participants' responses and how/ whether it verifies or contradicts findings of the quantitative analysis
<p>Status quo of TVET deans' leadership style</p> <p>General perception of leadership How do you perceive teachers and students to perceive your leadership?</p> <p>As the bureau head of TVET colleges, what is your leadership philosophy and attitude?</p> <p>Criteria for appointing a TVET dean: As TVET bureau head, what is your opinion of TVET deans' leadership styles?</p> <p>Transformational style How would you describe your leadership style? Do you express satisfaction for work well done? Do you emphasise the importance of a collective mission in your college? Do you speak enthusiastically about raising the level of student achievement to staff? Do you instil pride in your staff and students? Do you spend time coaching teachers? Do you believe that you get teachers to do more than they are supposed to do?</p> <p>Transactional style Do you focus attention on teachers failing to meet standards set for them? Do you keep track of mistakes?</p>	<p>General perception of leadership Deans believe that they are positively perceived by staff and students as transformational leaders</p> <p>Internal / external factors can affect leadership style (bureau head opinion). Transformational style allows flexibility</p> <p>Criteria for deans should include: efficiency, traits of the transactional leadership style, moral values (bureau head opinion)</p> <p>Deans sometimes exhibit 'poor' leadership (bureau head)</p> <p>Transformational style Deans are convinced they use the transformational style. Only three deans indicated they praise staff and seven that staff praise them, which indicated that the question was not well understood. Deans indicate that staff are aware of a collective vision and mission; that they (as deans) radiate enthusiasm, instil pride and motivate, and, coach teachers or arrange coaching sessions for them, which are important characteristics of the transformational leadership style.</p> <p>No answer provided to the last question</p> <p>Transactional style Seven deans confirmed 'control' of teachers and three suggested support. Five deans document mistakes for official purposes and others to mentor teachers and themselves.</p>

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS included under the different TOPICS covered in the focus group interview	Essence of participants' responses and how/ whether it verifies or contradicts findings of the quantitative analysis
<p>((a) - continued) Laissez-faire style Do you generally believe that “if it ain’t broke don’t fix it”? Do you feel that you avoid getting involved when important issues are raised?</p>	<p>Laissez-faire style Deans all negate use of the <i>laissez-faire</i> style and accept responsibility for important cases.</p>
<p>THUS: Interpretation of responses would suggest that deans are aware of the benefits of the transformational style, strive towards this style and believe they practice the style. (Deans perhaps perceive they more often practice the style than do other interest groups, as reflected in the quantitative statistics).</p>	
<p>(b) Performance of teachers and students As bureau head of TVET colleges, would you describe the working culture of the Ethiopian educational (working) society as compatible with transformational leadership styles? As bureau head of TVET colleges, what type of graduate student do you expect for the middle level labour force of Ethiopia?</p>	<p>A transactional leadership style goes hand-in-hand with productivity, but this is not generally what is experienced in Ethiopia. The authoritarian style is most prominent. The country needs technical skills and artisans with commitment and a sense of responsibility.</p>
<p>THUS: the opinion of the bureau head is that the transactional style – if practiced more often - can increase productivity/ effectiveness, but Ethiopia still mostly functions according to an authoritarian style of leadership.</p>	
<p>(c) Performance of deans Do you think your leadership style is effective in achieving the TVET vision and mission? As bureau head of TVET colleges, how do you experience the effectiveness of TVET deans' leadership styles? As bureau head of TVET colleges, how would you describe the commitment of TVET deans?</p>	<p>Deans are convinced that they are effective in their jobs. Deans' effectiveness is improving. Commitment of deans is improving in the sense that former students are incorporated successfully into the work environment.</p>
<p>THUS: improvement in deans' performance was recorded, although to a different extent by the deans themselves and the bureau head.</p>	

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS included under the different TOPICS covered in the focus group interview	Essence of participants' responses and how/ whether it verifies or contradicts findings of the quantitative analysis
<p>(d) Performance: Teachers' job satisfaction Do you believe that your leadership styles satisfy your teachers?</p>	<p>Six deans indicate that they assume that their leadership style results in teachers experiencing satisfaction in their jobs.</p>
<p>THUS: conviction in this regard not clearly expressed. (Could be attributed to more authoritarian/ transactional style still being practiced)</p>	
<p>(e) Challenges deans/ TVET colleges face What specific challenges do you (as a dean) face in achieving the vision and mission of the college? As bureau head of TVET colleges, do you believe colleges have sufficient resources for deans to achieve the objectives of the organization?</p>	<p>Deans mention funding, under-qualified staff, additional tasks assigned to them, quality of students admitted to colleges as challenges. Deans indicate that resources are available but not properly applied or are stolen.</p>
<p>THUS: opinions differ with respect to available resources. However, opinions suggest that educational quality and ethics are problematic.</p>	
<p>In conclusion, it can be stated that, especially deans perceive themselves to practise the transformational style most of the time, and practice less of the transactional leadership style. They consider their effectiveness to be up to standard. On the other hand, the TVET bureau head perceives more of the transactional (even autocratic) leadership style to present itself in deans' leadership and experience that deans' effectiveness sometimes suffer from an attitude of indifference.</p>	

While the interviews assisted somewhat to shed more light on the views of deans and the TVET bureau head, the researcher wants to caution that it seemed to him as if the deans did try to project themselves in a more favourable light than other participants might have done. The researcher also cautions that the view of one TVET bureau head might be interesting and insightful, but that it represents only one voice in this study. The researcher therefore kept in mind that, though this is a mixed methods study, the quantitative part of it carries the most weight.

5.7 SUMMARY OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESULTS

To recap, the findings of the qualitative analysis (Table 5.37) indicated that deans perceived they practise the *transformational* style most of the time. Furthermore, they admitted to using *transactional*-style leadership on occasion. They consider their effectiveness to be up to standard. On the other hand, the TVET bureau head perceived more of the *transactional* (even autocratic) leadership style to present itself in deans' behaviour and experiences that deans' effectiveness sometimes suffer from an attitude of indifference (*laissez-faire* style?).

These findings – with a few exceptions that will be indicated - generally agree with the findings of the quantitative analysis, which are summarised in the bulleted section below. The qualitative findings in this research therefore in broad terms served to enrich the quantitative findings.

The quantitative findings indicated that:

The research process and analyses were able to contextualise the research by indicating that most of the participating staff and deans were males, that teachers had rather limited teaching experience (mostly between 1 and 5 years' experience) and that deans were generally better qualified than teaching staff.

Furthermore, research was able to form a first impression of how often respondents perceived the three leadership styles to present in their deans (by means of composite one-one frequency tables for the *transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* styles). Initial indications were that the *transformational* and *transactional* styles were observed far more frequently than the *laissez-faire* style. This finding addresses research question one. (The qualitative findings indicated that deans believe that they practice the *transformational style* more frequently than the *transactional* style and the *laissez-faire style* not at all)

The research process was also able to verify the internal consistency reliability of the three leadership style constructs. Once verified, research was able to calculate reliable measures of how the respondents perceive their deans' *leadership style* and sub-dimensions of the leadership styles.

Likewise, an overview of respondents' perception of *performance* - the outcome of leadership (*effectiveness; teachers' extra effort; teachers' job satisfaction, and performance in general*) - could be assessed and the internal consistency reliability of these mentioned constructs verified. Initial indications were that respondents expressed positive perceptions regarding *effectiveness* of deans; *teachers' job satisfaction* and *teachers' willingness to put in extra effort*. The aspects of performance were evaluated to be to “a reasonable extent” or *satisfactory* ('3' or *fairly often*).

(The qualitative findings indicated that the bureau head’s opinion was that deans’ leadership style was not always effective. This slight discrepancy between quantitative and qualitative findings might be explained as the scenario that deans evaluate themselves more positively than do other respondents – as reported in the quantitative findings. The researcher cautions that only one bureau head’s opinion was obtained.)

The relationship between *performance indicators* (as quantitative measurable representatives of the outcome of leadership) and *leadership styles* that deans exhibit were investigated in separate stepwise linear regression models. (In each model *either job satisfaction scores; or effectiveness-scores; or willingness-to-put-in-extra-effort scores, or general performance scores* was regarded as the independent variable, and the effects of *biographical properties* (age, gender, type of respondent), the *three sets of leadership style scores* and their interactions as the independent variables).

The results indicated that:

Perceptions of the *effectiveness of deans* were positively and statistically significantly influenced by the presence of the *transformational and the transactional* leadership styles (and to a small extent negatively by the interaction effect of these two styles).

$$Y_i = -0.67 + 0.95 x (\text{transformational score}) + 0.66 x (\text{transactional score}) - 0.11 x (\text{transformational} \times \text{transactional score});$$

Where

y_i represents the respondent perceptions of effectiveness of deans;

“transformational” represents respondents’ transformational leadership score;

“transactional” represents respondents’ transactional leadership score; and

“transformational x transactional” represents the product of these two scores.

Perceptions of *teachers’ job satisfaction* were positively and statistically significantly influenced by the manifestation of the *transformational and the transactional* leadership styles (and to a small extent negatively by the interaction effect of these two styles).

$$Y_i = -1.00 + 1.06 x (\text{transformational score}) + 0.78 x (\text{transactional score}) - 0.15 x (\text{transactional} \times \text{transformational score});$$

1. Where,

2. y_i represents the respondent perceptions of teachers’ *job satisfaction*;

“*transformational*” represents respondents’ transformational leadership score;

“*transactional*” represents respondents’ transactional leadership score; and

“*transformational x transactional*” represents the product of these two scores.

Perceptions of the *willingness of teachers to go the extra mile* were positively and statistically significantly influenced by the manifestation of the *transformational style (to a great extent) and the transactional leadership styles (to a lesser extent)* of deans.

$$Y_i = -0.22 + 0.77 (\text{transformational score}) + 0.30 (\text{transactional score});$$

Where,

y_i represents the respondent perceptions of teachers’ *willingness to put in extra effort*;

“*transformational*” represents respondents’ transformational leadership score;

“*transactional*” represents respondents’ transactional leadership score; and

“*transformational x transactional*” represents the product of these two scores

(Comment: The qualitative findings seem to suggest that the influence/ use of the *transactional leadership style* is less prominent than that indicated in the three *leadership-style-performance* relationship equations of the quantitative findings. In general, however, the quantitative and qualitative findings both include the *transformational* and *transactional* leadership styles as styles that impact *performance* even though, as indicated in the qualitative responses, deans themselves might over-estimate their actual use of the *transformational* leadership style. Thus: the qualitative results compliment and enrich the quantitative results. The researcher furthermore argues that deans might underplay the role of the transactional leadership style based on their theoretical leadership knowledge that propagates the positive effect of the *transformational* leadership style on performance.).

This chapter can conclude by stating that these results answer the five sub-research questions of the main research question. This will be elaborated on in Chapter 6. From these results one can deduce that the *transformational and transactional* leadership styles play an important part in how students and teachers perform, the satisfaction they experience in their jobs (teachers) and their willingness to put in extra effort. Good performance of students and staff in turn signifies their dean’s effectiveness.

5.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter an analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data was reported. This was done in order to be able to do the groundwork to answer to the research questions in the next chapter. The analysis strategy was clearly given at the start of the chapter and meticulously followed in the rest of the chapter. Attention was focused on presenting the results of the statistical analysis on the collected data in a logical order as well as interpreting the results of the analysis.

In the next chapter the conclusions, implications and recommendations of the research are presented.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will interpret the critical findings of the empirical study discussed in Chapter 5 by integrating:

- Existing knowledge gleaned from the literature on the effect of leadership styles on performance.
- Existing theory on leadership style and performance output, and
- Narrative feedback collected during interview sessions and responses to open-ended questions to assess the contribution of this study to existing knowledge regarding the effect of leadership styles of deans on performance (with specific reference to Ethiopian circumstances).

Conclusions will be presented based of quantitative and qualitative findings. This chapter ends with recommendations and suggestions for further research. It also comments on the limitations of the study.

The chapter is structured to firstly discuss the integration of new findings presented by this study with existing knowledge. This is done by sequentially listing each research question/sub-question asked of this study; indicating how the specific question was answered; how the acquired knowledge complements or contradicts existing knowledge or existing theory. Thereafter the discussion will consider the implications of the research: does the research contribute new and valuable knowledge to known knowledge regarding the relationship between leadership and performance that can further education in Ethiopian TVET? An evaluation of the contribution of this research will thus be given. In the next section final conclusions are drawn and recommendations presented regarding practical implementation or adjustments to policies, practices and leadership style that will enhance performance in Ethiopian TVET.

The purpose of this research is again stated as an evaluation of the perceived effectiveness of leadership styles of deans in SNNPR governmental TVET colleges. Leadership effectiveness – an

outcome of leadership style/s used by deans of SNNPR TVET colleges – includes the constructs of *extra effort*, *effectiveness* and *satisfaction*.

The main research question addressed in this study asks:

“To what extent do the leadership styles adopted by deans have a positive effect on the government TVET colleges’ perceived effectiveness as evaluated by deans, teachers and students?”

Derived from the main research question, the sub-research questions ask:

What are the most dominant leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and *laissez-faire*) practised by the deans of the SNNPR TVET colleges?

What is the relationship between the transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire* leadership styles?

To what extent is perception of the *effectiveness* of deans influenced by the leadership style (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit?

To what extent are perceptions of *job satisfaction* influenced by the leadership style/s (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit?

To what extent are perceptions of *performance* influenced by the leadership style/s (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit?

The variables defined and measured for each respondent that participated in the empirical study include:

- Biographical measures (variables of gender, age, qualifications, type of respondent, and experience)
- Leadership style measures that deans are perceived to exhibit (scores for the *transformational*, *transactional*, and *laissez-faire* styles), and
- Measures of leadership-style influence on staff and students (*job satisfaction*, *willingness to put in extra effort*, and *perceived effectiveness* of deans).

6.2 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In the sub-sections of this section a discussion of the interpretation of the findings of the data analysis (discussed in Chapter 5) is briefly presented.

6.2.1 The research background

The demographic background of this Ethiopian study portrayed a picture of Ethiopian research respondents (10 deans, 65 students and 219 teachers), mostly male (84%), with relatively limited teaching experience (53% of the teachers indicated between one and five years teaching experience), young (87% of all respondents were younger than 27 years), and with mostly level I or II TVET qualifications (84% of the teachers had either level I or II qualifications).

Against this background the researcher argues that the lack of experience and limited qualifications (under-qualified teachers) on the part of young TVET teachers may affect teaching and learning practices which may, in turn, affect the academic performance of the students they teach. In effect, being trained by less qualified teachers can make students less effective and less efficient in the world of work.

6.2.2 Sub-research question one: Current status of leadership styles of Ethiopian TVET deans

It is against this background, and the motivation sketched in the introduction, that the findings of the study are evaluated and integrated into the existing body of knowledge on leadership styles and performance. The research focus was on the main research question that asked:

“To what extent do the leadership styles adopted by deans have a positive effect on the government TVET colleges’ perceived effectiveness as evaluated by deans, teachers and students?”

This led to the first sub-research question one:

What are the most dominant leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) practised by the deans of the SNNPR TVET colleges?

This research question was asked to determine which leadership styles TVET deans are currently perceived to use at Ethiopian TVET colleges – the *status quo*. It was argued that, by obtaining a “benchmark” of the current Ethiopian situation, these findings will assist in recommending adjustments to the present use of leadership styles to improve effectiveness and performance should research suggest (from the findings) such actions.

From the literature review in Chapter 2 existing knowledge indicates that the *transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* leadership styles are acknowledged leadership styles amongst academics (Barnes, 2013:1567), with the *transformational* (Avolio, 2010:50) and *transactional* styles (Gill, 2010:51) most commonly used and with the *laissez-faire* style rarely employed (Bass & Riggio, 2006:15). These mentioned independent findings however, do not cover the Ethiopian academic environment and focus mostly on the European/ USA environment.

6.2.2.1 Quantitative results discussion: the *status quo* of leadership in Ethiopia

In this study the findings of exploratory and more advanced analyses (reported in paragraph 5.5.2 of Chapter 5) seem to verify the body of existing knowledge in general. However, - by exception - perceptions in this study indicate that Ethiopian deans appear to less frequently practice the *transformational* leadership style than reported in other literature.

More detail on the above-mentioned finding (Tables 5.8 to 5.16, paragraph 5.5.2.1 and 5.5.2.3 of chapter 5) indicated that:

For the components of the *transformational* leadership style (*idealised influence, idealised behaviour; inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation and individual consideration*) research respondents were of the opinion that these traits were observed *fairly often* or *often* (response scores of '3' or '4') in Ethiopian TVT deans' leadership (staff and student responses).

For two of the three components of the *transactional* leadership style (namely *contingent rewards* and *management-by-exception, active*) the same tendency was reported. For the *transactional* leadership component of *management-by-exception, passive*, results reported a *sometimes* to *fairly often* trend - therefore practiced to a lesser extent than the other *transactional* style components.

A trend of *seldom* was reported for the single *laissez-faire* leadership component.

These results suggested that the *transformational* and *transactional* styles - in that order - were more often observed in Ethiopian TVET deans' leadership, while the *laissez-faire* style was *seldom*, if ever, used. Furthermore, the findings were verified in advanced analyses (sub-paragraphs 5.5.2.2 and 5.5.2.3 of chapter 5), once the internal consistency reliability of the leadership style concepts had been verified (refer to Table 5.17 of Chapter 5). Critical detail of advanced analyses are reflected in Table 6.1 below and summarises the crux of Table 5.18 of Chapter 5:

The mean *transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-faire* perception scores - calculated to detail respondents' perceptions of exhibited dean-leadership styles – report values of:

2.63 (a '3'-rating score understood to imply “fairly often”);

2.33 (a '2' rating-score understood to indicate “sometimes”) and

1.28 (a '1' rating-score understood to indicate “seldom observed”).

The above means scores were calculated for all respondents. The same trend was reported for the subsets of dean, teacher and student responses.

Furthermore, Table 6.2 below - an abstract of Table 5.19 (Chapter 5) – summarises, per TVET college, the perceived current leadership style/s of deans:

The per-college results suggest that deans of the different colleges differ somewhat in their use of the *transformational* and *transactional* leadership styles: for example, the deans of Hossanna-, Aman-, Arba-Minch and Aleta Wondo colleges were perceived to exhibit the *transformational* style *fairly frequently* and those of the Sawla and Butajira colleges a combination of the *transactional* and *transformational* styles *fairly frequently*. These findings compliment the correlational findings of the second research question, namely that the use/ practice of leadership styles are inter-dependent or correlated (See sub-research question two discussed in the next section). For the per-college comparisons it was also reported that the *laissez-faire* style was *very seldom* observed to be used.

The results therefore indicate that the leadership-style-status of TVET college deans mostly favoured the *transformational* style, followed by the *transactional* style and rarely the *laissez-faire* style.

With regard to dominance, Table 6.3 below presents a summary of perceived dominance of deans' leadership styles (paragraph 5.5.2.3 of chapter 5 refers). Results indicated that:

The *transformational* style was observed to be dominant in deans by 42.17% of all respondents (while 57.83% indicated non-dominance); as compared to the *transactional* and *laissez-faire* leadership styles perceived to be dominant by respectively 26.19% and 0.34% of all respondents (with respectively 63.81% and 99.66% non-dominance indicated for these two styles).

The *transformational* leadership style was perceived to be the dominant leadership style of

deans at Ethiopian TVET colleges.

Table 6.1: Mean perception scores (standard deviations) for the leadership styles

Means reported are for all participants: deans, teachers and students

Leadership style	All participant 294		Deans 10		Teachers 219		Students 65	
	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.
Transformational	2.63	0.80	2.99	0.41	2.64	0.84	2.55	0.69
Transactional	2.33	0.71	2.27	0.48	2.39	0.73	2.16	0.67
Laissez-Faire	1.28	1.16	0.60	1.04	1.36	1.19	1.14	1.01

Table 6.2: Mean perception scores for the components of leadership style

Means reported per college for all respondents

College	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire
Hossana	2.52 (0.81)	2.26 (0.81)	1.14 (1.15)
Aman	2.79 (0.73)	2.42 (0.70)	1.48 (1.49)
Arba Minch	2.52 (0.84)	2.18 (0.67)	1.27 (0.89)
Dilla	2.43 (0.86)	2.16 (0.89)	1.35 (1.10)
Sawla	2.95 (0.70)	2.78 (0.52)	1.23 (1.25)
Butajira	3.01 (0.50)	2.54 (0.47)	1.03 (1.10)
Aleta Wondo	2.79 (0.72)	2.37 (0.70)	1.54 (1.49)
Jinka	2.22 (0.79)	2.06 (0.57)	1.46 (1.05)
Halaba	2.68 (0.89)	2.32 (0.70)	0.98 (1.10)
Daye	2.78 (0.69)	2.44 (0.72)	1.59 (1.30)

Table 6.3: Classification of dominance of leadership styles (Bass and Avolio norms (2000))

Means presented for all respondents; deans; teachers and students (N=294). Table derived from Table 5.22, Chapter 5

Sub-dimension leadership style constructs	All respondents (N=294)		Deans (n=20)		Teachers (n=219)		Students (n=65)	
	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%
Transformational, 0-2	170	57.83	4	40.00	124	56.62	42	64.62
Transformational, 3-5	124	42.17	6	60.00	95	43.38	23	35.38
Transactional 0	217	73.81	8	80.00	155	70.78	54	83.08
Transactional 1	77	26.19	2	20.00	64	29.22	11	16.92
Laissez-faire, 0	293	99.66	10	100.00	218	99.54	54	83.08
Laissez-faire, 1	1	0.34	0	0.00	1	0.46	0	0.00

The above discussion illustrates how the first sub-research question was answered, and how these findings informed Ethiopian TVET colleges on the status quo of leadership styles observed under deans at their TVET colleges. Thus, the above findings contribute to adding new information to the body of knowledge on leadership styles and specifically as it pertains to deans in Ethiopian TVET colleges.

6.2.2.2 Interpretation of qualitative interview narratives on the status of Ethiopian leadership (Sub research question one)

If the cultural background of Ethiopia and Africa is taken into consideration, the above-mentioned interpretation of the status of leadership styles link to the qualitative interview data collected from a select few research participants: An excerpt from the summary of the interview-narratives regarding leadership styles - included below – suggests that Ethiopian participants still express mixed opinions regarding the styles they exhibit (although the quantitative results favoured the transformational leadership style):

... some teachers observed an authoritarian type of leadership while others gave their opinion that they observed different attributes of leadership as the result of which they are unable to distinguish a fixed type of leadership. Some of the attributes that they mentioned are the divide and rule method of administration; sometimes an authoritarian type manifested itself by forceful urgent orders; and sometimes special favours were shown to some staff members, even to the extent of not checking their presence at work.

Furthermore, with regard to a strong presence of the *transactional* leadership style reported in the quantitative findings (not ignoring the presence of the *transformational* style found to be present in the quantitative analyses), Nyambegera (2002:1085) states that the *transactional* style of leadership might have far more influence in collectivist societies like African countries than in the individualistic societies of the West (Refer to chapter 3, paragraph 3.7). Bass and Avolio (2000:7) on the other hand emphasise that the "collectivist culture (actually) provides leaders with ready-made opportunities to become *transformational* leaders". Western leadership thought is said to advocate Euro-centrism, individualism and modernity whereas African leadership is said to emphasise traditionalism, communalism, co-operative teamwork and mythology. Leaders in collectivist cultures have a moral responsibility to frequently consider their followers' needs, to help them in their career development and to attend important gatherings.

In Ethiopia (refer to chapter 3, paragraph 3.7.2.1; chapter 2, paragraph 2.6), the Christian faith and the deep rooted feudal-political system emphasise leaders' fulfilment of their individual roles and duties in hierarchically structured societies and this deeply influence leadership style in Ethiopia.

Therefore, in the past, Ethiopians preferred leaders who could define clear tasks and goals for subordinates. Such a person (*chika shum*) was carefully selected by the traditional leaders for his communication abilities and skills at giving clear orders to land tenants. For example, in the Ethiopian feudal system, traditional leaders give orders to their vassals to carry out certain responsibilities such as collecting annual lease-contributions from tenants, order tenants to cultivate communal farmlands (*hudads*) and to fulfil other responsibilities requested by the traditional leaders. (Such leadership incorporates components of authoritarianism and *transactional* leadership styles) (Mesay, 2006: 8).

On the contrary, with the onset of the modern period in Ethiopia, the reformed educational system of Emperor Haile Sellassie did not attempt to merge the curriculum with Ethiopian traditional values and culture (Messay, 2006:4). This confusion regarding traditional values and leadership can still be picked up in the interview-response of a TVET bureau head when asked how he would describe the working culture of Ethiopian society and the role of the transformational leadership style in the workplace. He indicated that:

It is my opinion that the Ethiopian working culture at present can hardly go hand in hand with the transformational leadership style. Although our society is in the post-modernist period, it is not fully free from traditional thinking and as such is accustomed to a traditional leadership style. Our society fears and respects an authoritarian leadership style and on the contrary shows negligence and less respect for the transformational leadership style. Therefore, I am of the opinion that our society waits for some times to come that its working culture become compatible with the transformational leadership.

However, despite these historical circumstances, a collectivist culture - such as in Ethiopia - provides Ethiopian leaders with ready-made opportunities to become transformational leaders. To this effect the quantitative analysis results of this research proved that transformational-awareness exists because analyses results favoured the *transformational* leadership style.

6.2.3 Sub-research question two: What is the relationship between the three leadership styles?

Existing knowledge as reflected in the literature (see paragraph 2.2.3), has indicated that leaders do not practice a single leadership style at all times, but apply different styles in different situations as they see fit. This observed tendency was also touched on in the previous discussion on the status of deans' leadership styles where it was indicated that, for the TVET colleges of Sawla- and Butajira colleges, both the *transformational* and *transactional* leadership styles were reported to be observed *fairly often* in TVET deans' leadership.

6.2.3.1 Interpretation of quantitative research findings on the relationship between leadership styles

The analyses of the MLQ (5X-short) data discussed in Chapter 5 also focused on the correlation/ or dependencies between the three leadership styles by answering to the second sub-research question of the study, namely:

What is the relationship between the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire styles?

This informs another aspect of the main research question, that asks,

“To what extent do the leadership styles adopted by deans have a positive effect on the government TVET Colleges’ perceived effectiveness as evaluated by deans, teachers and students.

Pearson’s correlation coefficients calculated on this data (paragraph 5.5.2.4 of chapter 5) indicated that the *transformational and transactional* leadership styles were positively ($r = 0.49$) and statistically significantly (0.1% significance) correlated; as were the *transactional and laissez-faire leadership* styles, with a small but positive correlation coefficient of 0.19 that was found to be statistically significant at the 0.1% significance level. The correlation between the *transformational leadership style and the laissez-faire leadership style* ($r = -0.05$) was non-significant (indicated by a probability of 0.44).

The significant and positive *transactional-transformational* correlation established, verify earlier exploratory findings of the Sawla and Butajira TVET colleges (Table 5.23, Chapter 5) that indicated that these deans were perceived to *fairly often* exhibit both the *transformational and transactional* leadership styles.

In summary, it can be stated that for the Ethiopian study inter-dependence between leadership styles were established, or, worded differently: deans are perceived to switch between leadership styles or use leadership styles interchangeably. In particular, the *transformational and transactional* leadership styles were used such. Sub-research question two could thus be answered.

As indicated in the introduction to this thesis in paragraph 1.3 of Chapter one, part of the motivation for undertaking this study lay in the issue of whether performance is influenced by the leadership style staff perceive their deans to exhibit. Three measures of perceived performance were identified, namely perceived *effectiveness of deans* (which makes staff more effective); *job satisfaction*

experienced and willingness of staff to put in extra effort. The next three sub-sections (paragraphs 6.2.4 to 6.2.6) list the sub-research questions that address the possible effect of leadership styles on these aspects of perceived performance and summarise how the analysis of response data (reported in paragraphs 5.5.4.1 to 5.5.4.4 of chapter 5) answer these sub-research questions.

6.2.4 Sub-research question three: relationship between perceived effectiveness of deans and the perceived leadership style/s of these deans

The issue of the probable effect of deans’ leadership style/s on their perceived effectiveness is formulated in the following sub-research question:

To what extent are the transformational, transactional and laissez faire leadership styles of deans significant predictors of the perceived effectiveness of deanship among teachers and students?

This sub-research question further informs the main research question that asks,

“To what extent do the leadership styles adopted by deans have a positive effect on the government TVET colleges’ perceived effectiveness as evaluated by deans, teachers and students?”

6.2.4.1 Interpretation of the quantitative findings regarding deans’ effectiveness

Paragraph 5.5.4.1, Chapter 5 indicated that by means of stepwise linear regression techniques a statistically significant relationship (highly significant on the 0.1% significance level and with an R-square value of 0.62) could be established between perceptions of deans’ effectiveness and their leadership styles.

The relevant prediction equation is:

$$Y_i = -0.67 + 0.95 x (\text{transformational score}) + 0.66 x (\text{transactional score}) - 0.11 x (\text{transformational} \times \text{transactional score})$$

Where

y_i represents respondents’ *effectiveness scores*,

“*transformational*” represents respondents’ *comprehensive transformational leadership construct-scores*,

“*transactional*” represents respondents’ *comprehensive transactional leadership score*, and

“transformational x transactional” represents the product of these two scores for a particular respondent.

This equation implies that:

Perceptions of deans’ effectiveness are positively influenced by the perceived presence of the transformational or transactional styles in their leadership.

Bass and Avolio (2004:11), Chen and Baron (2006:406), Rukmani, Ramesh, and Jayakrishnan (2010:365-370), Sung (2007:127), Grosso (2008:94), Erkutlu (2008:714) and Brown and Keeping (2005: 254) in their studies on leadership (see chapter 2 paragraph 2.2.4.4) found that leaders often exhibit a combination of *transformational* and *transactional* leadership styles which have a complementary effect and increases leadership effectiveness. This was the finding of this study as well.

Furthermore, according to Avolio and Bass (2004:12), Bass (2002:112), Lowe *et al.* (1996:394), Hinkin and Schriesheim (2009:508) and Rafferty and Griffin (2004:337) a combination of *transformational* and *transactional* leadership behaviour has a strong predictive effect on leadership *effectiveness* (see Chapter 2 paragraph 2.2.4.4). The results of the current study provide ample empirical evidence to this effect.

The findings of this study are consistent with findings of Jung & Piccolo (2004:762), Erkutlu (2008:715), Avolio & Bass (2004:39), Webb (2003:148), Masson (1998:106, 108), Lowe *et al.* (1996: 401), Bass & Yammarino (1991:442) and Kirby *et al.* (1991:306) who refer to a significant, positive relationship between the *transformational* and *transactional* leadership styles and the outcome of leadership effectiveness (see chapter 2 paragraph 2.2.4.4). The research of this study now indicates that these findings of independent researchers apply to the Ethiopian research environment as well. These findings describe the relationship between the *effectiveness aspect* of performance and deans’ perceived leadership styles and therefore answers to the third sub-research question.

6.2.4.2 Interpretation of the qualitative interviews and comparison with independent research

The research of Obasanjo (2013:18) links to the leadership style-effectiveness issue of this study when Obasanjo attributes the lack of development in most African countries to poor leadership. Obasanjo states that it is only dedicated and selfless leadership (transformational-style) that can “lead Africa to the Promised Land”. He states that the leadership crisis and corruption are the greatest

obstacles to Africa's development. This is echoed in other words in this study in the narrative of the head of the TVET bureau when asked how he perceives the effectiveness of leadership style in TVET colleges:

I perceive that the effectiveness of TVET deans' leadership style is showing gradual improvement from time to time. It is observed that graduates of the TVET colleges are employed in different organisations and some of them are also creating job opportunity not only for themselves but for others as well. This condition is inviting an increasing number of high scoring students to join TVET colleges. (In this way illustrating the ripple effect of sound dean-leadership at TVET colleges).

6.2.5 Sub-research question four: The relationship between teachers' perceptions of job satisfaction and deans' perceived leadership style/s

The sub-research question formulated to investigate the effect of deans' perceived leadership style on teachers' *job satisfaction* reads as follows:

To what extent do teachers and students perceive their deans' leadership styles to be significant predictors of job satisfaction?

The sub-research question informs an aspect of the main research question that asks,

“To what extent do the leadership styles adopted by deans have a positive effect on the government TVET Colleges' perceived effectiveness as evaluated by deans, teachers and students?”

6.2.5.1 Interpretation of the quantitative findings on job satisfaction

In paragraph 5.5.4.2 of chapter 5 it was indicated that by means of stepwise linear regression a statistically significant relationship (highly significant on the 0.1% significance level and with an R-square value of 0.59) could be established between perceptions of job satisfaction and leadership styles TVET deans are perceived to exhibit.

The prediction equation in this instance reads:

$$Y_i = -1.00 + 1.06 x (\text{transformational score}) + 0.78 x (\text{transactional score}) - 0.15 x (\text{transactional} \times \text{transformational score})$$

Where,

y_i represents *job satisfaction scores*;

“*transformational*” represents respondents’ comprehensive *transformational leadership construct scores*;

“*transactional*” represents respondents’ comprehensive *transactional leadership scores*; and

“*transformational x transactional*” represents the product of these two scores for a particular respondent.

The equation implies that:

Perceptions of teachers’ job-satisfaction are positively influenced by deans who exhibit transformational or transactional leadership. The joint presence of the transformational and transactional styles in deans’ leadership tends to negatively affect perceptions of job performance to a limited extent.

Sub-research question four was therefore answered and, in doing so, stressed the positive effect of the *transformational* and *transactional* leadership styles of deans - in the Ethiopian context - on another aspect of performance, namely *job satisfaction*.

Bateh and Heyliger (2014:21) also found that both the *transformational* and *transactional* leadership styles positively affect *job satisfaction*, while Shibru and Darshan (2011:62); Voon, Lo, Ngui and Ayob (2011:28); Chen (2001:108) and Fahr, Poolsakoff and Chang (1987:57) found that the *transformational* leadership style positively effects *job satisfaction*. These references do not mention the transactional leadership style. Arzi and Farahbod (2014:182) again only report the positive outcome of the *transactional* leadership style on perceptions of job satisfaction.

6.2.5.2 Interpretation of interview narratives against findings of independent research

In terms of the Ethiopian culture, if a leader praises (rewards) a subordinate, it indicates approval for the subordinate’s abilities and performance. Transactional leadership in particular reflects this proper custom in the work environment when a leader gives the expected praise (reward) in recognition of effective performance (Bass, 1985:20). This also manifested from the interviews.

The following excerpt (with signs of both transformational and transactional leadership styles) – taken from a summary of TVET deans’ interviews in response to the question of whether deans express satisfaction (towards staff and students) when expectations are met - shows that deans endeavour to do so:

... they believe that they show respect for teachers and students (as an expression of their satisfaction). In addition, they perceive that they work together to fulfil their college's vision and core beliefs, and, constantly remind each other of these aspects. As evidence, they mention that they asked their staff to write letters expressing their opinions of their deans' leadership style to concerned bodies (TVET bureau). ... feedback indicated that faculty (staff) would willingly follow their dean because of his respect towards them and what he has accomplished over the years.

On the other hand, many Ethiopian studies, conducted mostly at MA and undergraduate level on teachers' job satisfaction, revealed that "No one wants to stay in the teaching profession (longer than necessary)" (Ayalew, 2006:1106). This is an indication that teachers in Ethiopia are possibly not happy in their teaching positions. Lockheed and Verspoor (1999:126), and Rust and Dalin (1990:164) state that poor salaries, inadequate economic incentives, poor working conditions and lack of career prospects in comparison to other professions (Thompson, 1995:67) result in lowered job satisfaction which motivate teachers to leave the profession. It is the opinion of this researcher that, at present, this is a reality in Ethiopia as well.

Further interview-feedback echoed this dissatisfaction. In their responses interviewed deans tried to show that the relationship between their leadership and teachers' job satisfaction was positive. However, responses of staff to open-ended questions in the MLQ (5X-short) questionnaire indicate that teachers did not experience this as being true. Teacher responses indicated that because of the administrative authority given to TVET college deans, teachers are afraid of educational administrative bodies and by implication TVET deans. They fear for some reason that deans may "chase them away from their jobs and make them jobless". Therefore, teachers show a "pretentious attitude" towards the will of their dean: by implication "blind obedience to authority."

Although teachers' salaries have increased considerably over the past few years a participant to the open-ended questions (teachers) raised the question whether "money in itself [has] become the main measure of job satisfaction?"

Against the above background, the claim of a positive relationship between deans' leadership style and the job satisfaction of teachers does not seem plausible. This deduction is suggested by the interview and some open-ended questionnaire feedback, but not supported by the quantitative findings that indicated a positive relationship between job satisfaction and a combination of the transactional/ transformational leadership styles. However, because of the dissatisfaction with the teaching profession in general among teachers in Ethiopia, the researcher is inclined to caution that the qualitative findings in this instance not be over-emphasised as against the quantitative findings.

6.2.6 Sub-research question five: The relationship between teachers' willingness to go the extra mile/ extra effort and the leadership style/s deans are perceived to exhibit

The sub-research question formulated to investigate the effect of leadership style on willingness to put in extra effort is stated as follows:

To what extent are perceptions of *performance* influenced by the leadership style/s (*transformational, transactional and laissez-faire*) deans are perceived to exhibit?

This sub-research questions forms part of the overall research question that asks,

“To what extent do the leadership styles adopted by deans have a positive effect on the government TVET Colleges’ perceived effectiveness as evaluated by deans, teachers and students?”

6.2.6.1 Interpretation of the quantitative findings on extra effort

Paragraph 5.5.4.3, chapter 5 indicated that by means of stepwise regression a statistically significant relationship (highly significant on the 0.1% significance level, and with an R-square value of 0.53) could be established between perceptions of teachers' willingness to put in extra effort and the leadership styles deans are perceived to exhibit.

The prediction equation in this instance indicates:

$$Y_i = -0.22 + 0.77 (\text{transformational score}) + 0.30 (\text{transactional score})$$

Where,

y_i represents perception scores of willingness to go the extra mile,

“transformational” represents respondents' comprehensive transformational leadership construct scores, and

“transactional” represents respondents' comprehensive transactional leadership scores.

As indicated in paragraph 5.5.4.3 of chapter 5, the above regression equation implies the following:

The prediction implies that perceptions of *willingness to put in extra effort* are firstly positively influenced by the presence of the *transformational* leadership style in TVET deans and secondly (and to a somewhat lesser extent) by the *transactional leadership style* of TVET deans.

In the regression analyses, the influence of the *laissez-faire* style was insignificant against the transformational and transactional leadership style-effects.

The predictive findings of the advanced regression analyses on the *effectiveness*-, *extra effort*- and *job satisfaction* performance components therefore compliment the earlier suggestions and findings of the exploratory analyses that indicated to the positive effect of firstly the transformational leadership style, and secondly, the transactional leadership style on performance enhancement.

6.2.6.2 Quantitative findings regarding deans' effectiveness

The qualitative interviews did not result in anything worthwhile to add to the above findings.

6.2.6.3 Comparing performance-findings to independent research

The findings of this research on the outcome of leadership styles agree with the earlier research of Singer (1985:143) who found that subordinates were inclined to work with transformational leaders rather than transactional leaders. In addition, Waldman *et al.* (1987:184) in their research state that the transformational and transactional leadership styles positively and significantly affect the extra effort-component of performance.

According to Bass (1985:17) transactional leadership is purported to be a less effective form of leadership than transformational leadership. Transactional leaders are considered to concentrate on compromise, intrigue and control and are therefore seen to be more inflexible, detached, and manipulative than transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006:26).

Independent research has further indicated that transformational leadership has a more positive effect on many leadership outcomes, such as work attitudes and performance (for example, Judge & Piccolo, 2004:755-768; Lowe *et al.*, 1996:418; Wang, Oh, Courtright & Colbert, 2011:261; Lowe *et al.*, 1996; and Yukl, 2010:249) (see chapter 2 paragraph 2.2.4.4).

6.3 IMPLICATIONS

Paragraph 6.2 gave an interpretation of how the findings of the quantitative and qualitative data analyses answered to the various sub-questions of the main research question, which asked:

“To what extent do the leadership styles adopted by deans have a positive effect on the government TVET colleges' perceived effectiveness as evaluated by deans, teachers and students?”

At this stage the question might well be asked what the implications of these research findings are for the various role players within the Ethiopian TVET education system. Do the research findings have the potential to lead to significant suggestions, propositions or interventions that will improve the effectiveness of TVET colleges in Ethiopia? This constitutes the essence of the research objectives of this study.

6.3.1 Role players

Who constitutes the role players of this study? When it comes to the effectiveness of Ethiopian TVET colleges and the betterment thereof, the role players include:

- The Ethiopian government that subsidises colleges;
- The deans of the colleges that have to report back to authorities (their paymasters) on the effective running of the colleges and the duty of TVET deans to manage and lead their teachers to perform effectively and excel in what they do (deans want to use the most effective style to influence their staff);
- The teachers (satisfied and motivated teachers will deliver good/ exceptional services); and
- Registered students of the TVET colleges (qualified and motivated teachers inspire their students to perform and enter the job market).
- In addition, parents and the community have an interest in the efficacy of TVET colleges (an increased throughput rate implies that students sooner become financially independent and start contributing to the country's economy via career appointments).

For the various stakeholders, TVET colleges' effectiveness form an interlinking loop of consequences: the effectiveness of one group of stakeholders affect the effectiveness of a next group at a different level or in a different context.

6.3.2 The implications of the findings of this research for the various stakeholders

Possible implications of effectiveness in this study should therefore be evaluated against the present perceived status of deans' leadership styles (*transformational, transactional and laissez-faire styles*) and perceptions of the impact of leadership styles on performance: leadership styles that enhance performance is sought. The leadership style/s perceived to positively affect performance will ultimately yield deans and teachers who are more effective with a higher student throughput rate. The increased throughput rate in turn, portrays deans as effective leaders of particular TVET institutions. This series of events in turn act as indicators of effectiveness to other stakeholders such as educational authorities, parents, the community and governmental policy makers.

This research identified that performance (perceived effectiveness of deans; willingness to put in extra effort and job satisfaction) was perceived to be positively influenced by deans' behaviour based on the *transformational* and *transactional* leadership style components, but not on the *laissez-faire* style component. The implication for this research is that deans should be sensitised to the fact that, by exhibiting the *transformational* leadership style frequently in their dealings with staff, and also the *transactional* leadership style to a reasonable extent (but not the *laissez-faire* style) – especially when it comes to relatively young and inexperienced staff in Ethiopian TVET colleges - the dean's profile of efficiency will most probably improve, as will teachers' motivation and willingness to put in extra effort. This will result in an increase in teachers' sense of satisfaction with their jobs (which serves as indicators of perceived work performance)

The above furthermore implies that the Ethiopian governments' educational policy should seriously consider awareness campaigns and leadership style courses/training for deans (and aspiring deans) focused on conveying the value of the transformational and transactional leadership styles in dealing with academic staff and students.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Guided by the findings of the study which identified the positive effect of the transformational-transactional leadership style combination on performance, the researcher of this study believes that the following recommendations will contribute towards improving the performance of deans and teachers, and subsequently the educational efficacy of Ethiopian TVET colleges:

Discussion sessions should be organised with TVET college deans to share the findings of this research and other similar studies. The intent should be to create awareness amongst TVET deans of the power and positive effect (increased performance and efficiency) that a transformational-transactional dean leadership approach (with emphasis on the transformational style) has on staff and students.

Leadership training opportunities for TVET deans should be scheduled. The objective should be to strengthen and enhance the appropriate leadership style practice of deans (especially the transformational style). Sessions can take on the form of workshops on leadership; discussion sessions between deans of the various TVET colleges on the effectiveness and outcome of specific styles of leadership practised under specific circumstances; exposure of deans to reading material on leadership; attendance of international conferences to share their experiences of the impact of leadership styles, and, the development and implementation of a

system of performance assessment for deans which can act as a performance-motivator for college deans.

Resources (human, financial and materials) should be made available to TVET colleges to develop desired types of leadership in colleges.

As part of the selection process when appointing new TVET deans, the leadership style/s that applicants use at that stage should be assessed. Such a step will ensure that deans who practice a more transformational leadership style, or who have the potential to develop the transformational component of their leadership, are appointed.

With regard to the appointment of teachers, care should be taken to select qualified teachers, who will be able to work productively in a team-relationship with a college dean towards improving the throughput rate and performance of the college. A staff-dean-team-approach will be productive if the dean practises a transformational-orientated style of leadership.

A reward or performance assessment system for staff (teachers) should be developed and implemented in TVET colleges. Such a system should focus on positive reward for positive performance and teamwork, and serve to motivate teachers to continually up their performance.

Since quantitative findings indicate that the use of a combination of the transformational and transactional leadership styles of deans positively impacts performance, the researcher of this study argues the practical wisdom of the leadership solution as follows: The transformational leadership style incorporates an inspirational component which serves to inspire (especially young) teachers to put in extra effort in their teaching endeavours. The objective of teachers - when they put in extra-effort - should be to improve the throughput rate of students of the college. An element of support is also present in the transformational leadership style: Deans can support and encourage staff (especially young and inexperienced staff – as is the case in this study) by showing respect and appreciation for work done. Appreciation instils self-worth and pride in teachers, which, in turn, boost experiences of job satisfaction. Such a leadership style can lead to a win-win situation for deans, teachers and students. It is particularly applicable to the respondents of this study who are a younger and more inexperienced response-group: people who need guidance and encouragement.

In their research Bass and Avolio (1994) suggest a FRL (transformational, transactional and *laissez-faire* leadership styles) leadership-model. However, this researcher is of the conviction that a more transformational/ transactional leadership style model is applicable in the Ethiopian environment, especially when the teacher population consists of mostly young, inexperienced and not highly qualified staff. The researcher is convinced that a transformational-transactional leadership style

(with more emphasis on the transformational component) will best suit the Ethiopian educational environment in improving TVET colleges.

In conclusion, a couple of recommendations for further research are made.

6.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The researcher suggests that the following research areas be further investigated in future research, namely:

A repeat of the research covered in this study but with a sample that includes both inexperienced and experienced, and aptly and under-qualified teachers over a broader age scope. This will enable future research to compare leadership styles that best influence younger, inexperienced and under-qualified teachers to more experienced and qualified mature teachers. This will serve to verify whether a transformational/ transactional leadership style is appropriate over a broader spectrum of Ethiopian teacher respondents.

In further studies, apart from measuring deans' leadership style and performance indicators, research should also measure throughput rate of students. In this way, it can be validated whether perceived "increased" performance/ or effectiveness actually correlates with a higher throughput rate (apart from the identified leadership-performance relationship). This will verify the assumption of the present study that effectiveness implies higher throughput rates. In other words, whether "improved efficiency" - as measured in this study - is a genuine indicator of increased student throughput; student throughput and success being the ultimate goal of any educational institution.

Future research could go beyond the identification of leadership styles and their effectiveness, to understanding the contextual factors under which different leadership styles are used, including the results thereof.

It is furthermore recommended that teachers (both novice and experienced) and students should be included in the qualitative part of future studies on the same topic, as only deans and a bureau official were included in this study.

Awareness should be created amongst higher education authorities of the contribution that quality research on leadership in especially the Ethiopian context has to play in the efficacy of Ethiopian education, because effective leadership in education is a serious problem in Africa in general and Ethiopia in particular.

6.6 CONCLUSION

This research investigated and answered to the research question concerning the outcome of Ethiopian TVET college deans' leadership-style. Quantitative performance measures were defined and used to assess leadership outcome. Qualitative methods were used to corroborate and enrich quantitative findings. Furthermore, in order to identify measurable styles of leadership, leadership was approached from a universal perspective; an Africa perspective and finally from an Ethiopia perspective. In this way universally known styles of leadership were identified to serve as measure of leadership style (*transformational*, *transactional* and *laissez-fair*). These measurable leadership-style and leadership-outcome variables were measured on a select sample of Ethiopian educational role players (TVET college deans, teachers and students). The purpose was to answer to formulated sub-research questions that informed the main research question on the outcome of TVET college deans' leadership style. The sub research questions investigated:

the status of exhibited leadership styles of college deans (the *transformational* and *transactional* leadership styles - in that order - were perceived to present in deans);
dependencies between these styles (the *transformational* and *transactional* styles were strongly correlated);
and relationships between the leadership styles deans use and performance indicators (A combination of *transformational* and *transactional* leadership had a positive outcome).

By answering to the sub-research questions of the study, the researcher answered the main concern of the study.

Based on the interpretation of the findings of this research, a list of recommendations towards the betterment of Ethiopian TVET colleges was compiled. These recommendations focus on achieving effective leadership in TVET college deans. The reason for the focus on effective leadership relates to the ripple effect that competent leadership brings to the TVET system. In this way, the objective of the study, namely the improvement of the effectiveness of the Ethiopian TVET system through appropriate leadership, is achieved.

The research described in this thesis proved to be an enriching and rewarding journey in the sense that the findings of this research verified that style of leadership has a statistically significant outcome; and, that the research can offer practical recommendations and solutions towards the betterment of the Ethiopian TVET system.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix A

Frequency tables for demographic properties of deans; students and teachers

Demographic properties of deans

Table A1: Tvet colleges				
TCollege	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Hossana	1	10.00	1	10.00
Aman	1	10.00	2	20.00
Arba Minch	1	10.00	3	30.00
Dilla	1	10.00	4	40.00
Sawla	1	10.00	5	50.00
Butajira	1	10.00	6	60.00
Aleta Wondo	1	10.00	7	70.00
Jinka	1	10.00	8	80.00
Halaba	1	10.00	9	90.00
Daye	1	10.00	10	100.00

A2: Age				
Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
21-25	1	10.00	1	10.00
26-30	3	30.00	4	40.00
31-35	4	40.00	8	80.00
36-40	2	20.00	10	100.00

A3: Gender				
gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
male	10	100.00	10	100.00

A4: Qualifications of deans and teachers				
Qual	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
	Deans		Teachers	
Level I, TVET	1	10.00	106	48.40
Level II, TVET	2	20.00	77	35.16
Level III, TVET	3	30.00	3	1.37
Level IV, TVET	1	10.00	31	14.16
Level V, TVET	2	20.00	2	0.91
BSc, TVET	1	10.00		
Totals	10	100.00	219	100.00

A5: Experience of deans and teachers				
Experience	Deans		teachers	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
< 1 year			80	36.53
1-5 years			116	52.97
6-10 years	1	10.00	8	3.65
11-15 years	3	30.00		

A5: Experience of deans and teachers				
	Deans		teachers	
Experience	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
>15 years	6	60.00	15	6.85
totals	10	100.00	291	100.00

Demographic properties of teachers

A6: Tvet College				
TCollege	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Hossana	40	18.26	40	18.26
Aman	20	9.13	60	27.40
Arba Minch	36	16.44	96	43.84
Dilla	23	10.50	119	54.34
Sawla	24	10.96	143	65.30
Butajira	15	6.85	158	72.15
Jinka	22	10.05	180	82.19
Halaba	17	7.76	197	89.95
Daye	22	10.05	219	100.00

A7: Age				
Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
15-20	173	79.00	173	79.00
21-25	25	11.42	198	90.41
26-30	11	5.02	209	95.43
31-35	10	4.57	219	100.00

A8: Gender				
gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
male	190	86.76	190	86.76
female	29	13.24	219	100.00

A9: Qualifications				
Qual	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Level I, TVET	106	48.40	106	48.40
Level II, TVET	77	35.16	183	83.56
Level III, TVET	3	1.37	186	84.93
Level IV, TVET	31	14.16	217	99.09
Level V, TVET	2	0.91	219	100.00

A10: Experience				
Experience	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
< 1 year	80	36.53	80	36.53
1-5 years	116	52.97	196	89.50
6-10 years	8	3.65	204	93.15
>15 years	15	6.85	219	100.00

Demographic properties of students

A11: TVET colleges				
TCollege	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Hossana	7	10.77	7	10.77
Aman	5	7.69	12	18.46

A11: TVET colleges				
TCollege	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Arba Minch	7	10.77	19	29.23
Dilla	7	10.77	26	40.00
Sawla	6	9.23	32	49.23
Butajira	7	10.77	39	60.00
Aleta Wondo	6	9.23	45	69.23
Jinka	7	10.77	52	80.00
Halaba	7	10.77	59	90.77
Daye	6	9.23	65	100.00

A12: Age				
Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
15-20	33	50.77	33	50.77
21-25	25	38.46	58	89.23
26-30	2	3.08	60	92.31
31-35	4	6.15	64	98.46
36-40	1	1.54	65	100.00

A13: Gender				
gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
male	46	70.77	46	70.77
female	19	29.23	65	100.00

A14: Qualifications				
Qual	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Level I, TVET	10	15.38	10	15.38
Level II, TVET	22	33.85	32	49.23
Level III, TVET	19	29.23	51	78.46
Level IV, TVET	10	15.38	61	93.85
Level V, TVET	4	6.15	65	100.00

A15: Experience				
Experience	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
< 1 year	32	49.23	32	49.23
1-5 years	33	50.77	65	100.00

Appendix B

The composite frequency tables that reflects the frequency distributions of the subsets of questionnaire questions that probe the components of leadership style for deans; teachers and students

Deans:

Table B1: Transformational, Attributes						
itemat Frequency Row Pct	Rating response levels					Total
	never	very seldom	sometimes	fairly often	always	
Instill pride	4 40.00	2 20.00	0 0.00	4 40.00	0 0.00	10
Go beyond self interest	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	5 50.00	5 50.00	10
Build respect	2 20.00	2 20.00	2 20.00	3 30.00	1 10.00	10
Display power and confidence	0 0.00	1 10.00	3 30.00	6 60.00	0 0.00	10
Total 27.38 = 0.01**	6	5	5	18	6	40

Table B2: Transformational, Behaviour						
itembe Frequency Row Pct	Rating response level					Total
	never	very seldom	sometimes	fairly often	always	
Talk about values and beliefs	0 0.00	1 10.00	4 40.00	4 40.00	1 10.00	10
Importance of having strong beliefs/ values	0 0.00	1 10.00	0 0.00	3 30.00	6 60.00	10
Consider moral/ ethical consequences	1 10.00	2 20.00	0 0.00	2 20.00	5 50.00	10
Importance of collective sense of mission	0 0.00	0 0.00	1 10.00	4 40.00	5 50.00	10
Total 17.92	1	4	5	13	17	40

Table B3: Transformational, Motivation				
itemmo Frequency Row Pct	Frequency of occurrence			Total
	sometimes	fairly often	always	
Optimistic about future	1 10.00	5 50.00	4 40.00	10
Ethusiatic about goals/objectives	2 20.00	3 30.00	5 50.00	10
Vision of future	1 10.00	3 30.00	6 60.00	10
Confidence in goal achievement	1 10.00	3 30.00	6 60.00	10
Total 1.98 = 0.92	5	14	21	40

Table B4: Transformational, Stimulation					
itemstim	Frequency of occurrence rating				Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	some times	often	always	
Consider critical assumptions to questions, appropriate	1 10.00	0 0.00	8 80.00	1 10.00	10
Different perspectives to problems	0 0.00	0 0.00	8 80.00	2 20.00	10
Others consider problems other angles	0 0.00	0 0.00	8 80.00	2 20.00	10
Suggest new ways for problems	0 0.00	2 20.00	4 40.00	4 40.00	10
Total	1	2	28	9	40

12.83 = 0.18

Table B5: Transformational, Consideration					
itemcon	Occurrence rating				Total
Frequency Row Pct	very seldom	sometimes	fairly often	always	
Time on teaching/ coaching	1 10.00	2 20.00	6 60.00	1 10.00	10
Regard all as individuals	0 0.00	1 10.00	6 60.00	3 30.00	10
Individuals have different needs	0 0.00	0 0.00	4 40.00	6 60.00	10
Help others develop	1 10.00	3 30.00	3 30.00	3 30.00	10
Total	2	6	19	13	40

10.68 = 0.30

Table B6: Transactional, Reward					
itemrew	Occurrence rating				Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	some times	often	always	
Provide others assistance	1 10.00	2 20.00	6 60.00	1 10.00	10
Specify responsibilities	0 0.00	0 0.00	5 50.00	5 50.00	10
Clarify performance expectations	0 0.00	3 30.00	5 50.00	2 20.00	10
Express satisfaction good performance	0 0.00	1 10.00	6 60.00	3 30.00	10
Total	1	6	22	11	40

9.70 = 0.38

Table B7: Transactional, MBE Active						
itemact	Occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometimes	fairly often	always	
Focus attention on mistakes	1 10.00	2 20.00	4 40.00	2 20.00	1 10.00	10
All attention dealing with mistakes	1 10.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	6 60.00	3 30.00	10
Keep track of mistakes	1 10.00	0 0.00	2 20.00	4 40.00	3 30.00	10
Attention on failure, meet standards	0 0.00	0 0.00	4 40.00	5 50.00	1 10.00	10
Total	3	2	10	17	8	40

15.46 = 0.21

Table B8: Transactional, MBE Passive						
itempas	Occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometim es	fairly often	alway s	
Only interfere problem serious	6 60.00	1 10.00	1 10.00	1 10.00	1 10.00	10
Act only when things go wrong	6 60.00	2 20.00	1 10.00	0 0.00	1 10.00	10
Believer only fix, broken	6 60.00	2 20.00	0 0.00	2 20.00	0 0.00	10
Act only problems chronic	1 10.00	3 30.00	2 20.00	4 40.00	0 0.00	10
Total 13.95 = 0.30	19	8	4	7	2	40

Table B9: Laissez-faire					
itemlai	Frequency of occurrence rating				Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	once in while	some times	often	
Avoid involvement in serious issues	8 80.00	0 0.00	1 10.00	1 10.00	10
Absent when needed	8 80.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	2 20.00	10
Avoid decision-making	7 70.00	2 20.00	0 0.00	1 10.00	10
Delay responding to questions	6 60.00	1 10.00	2 20.00	1 10.00	10
Total 8.31 = 0.50	29	3	3	5	40

Teachers

Table B10: Transformational, Attributes						
itemat	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometim es	fairly often	alway s	
Instill pride	34 15.53	28 12.79	52 23.74	59 26.94	46 21.00	219
Go beyond self interest	17 7.76	15 6.85	36 16.44	93 42.47	58 26.48	219
Build respect	28 12.79	21 9.59	30 13.70	88 40.18	52 23.74	219
Display power and confidende	34 15.53	14 6.39	39 17.81	74 33.79	58 26.48	219
Total 30.61 = 0.01**	113	78	157	314	214	876

Table B11: Transformational, Behaviour						
itembe	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometimes	fairly often	always	
Talk about values and beliefs	46 21.00	20 9.13	52 23.74	65 29.68	36 16.44	219
Importance of having strong beliefs/ values	5 2.28	9 4.11	33 15.07	106 48.40	66 30.14	219
Consider moral/ ethical consequences	14 6.39	17 7.76	52 23.74	78 35.62	58 26.48	219
Importance of collective sense of mission	8 3.65	4 1.83	30 13.70	105 47.95	72 32.88	219
Total 108.47 <0.0001***	73	50	167	354	232	876

Table B12: Transformational, Motivation						
itemmo	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometimes	fairly often	always	
Optimistic about future	11 5.02	16 7.31	36 16.44	86 39.27	70 31.96	219
Enthusiatic about goals/objectives	10 4.57	14 6.39	34 15.53	98 44.75	63 28.77	219
Vision of future	9 4.11	14 6.39	27 12.33	97 44.29	72 32.88	219
Confidence in goal achievement	12 5.48	19 8.68	60 27.40	77 35.16	51 23.29	219
Total 24.84 = 0.02*	42	63	157	358	256	876

Table B13: Transformational, Stimulation						
itemstim	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometimes	fairly often	always	
Consider critical assumptions to questions, appropriate	19 8.68	13 5.94	48 21.92	76 34.70	63 28.77	219
Different perspectives to problems	19 8.68	14 6.39	52 23.74	75 34.25	59 26.94	219
Others consider problems other angles	11 5.02	23 10.50	41 18.72	79 36.07	65 29.68	219
Suggest new ways for problems	25 11.42	33 15.07	44 20.09	65 29.68	52 23.74	219
Total 22.56 = 0.03*	74	83	185	295	239	876

Table B14: Transformational, Consideration						
itemcon	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometimes	fairly often	always	
Time on teaching/ coaching	22 10.05	16 7.31	40 18.26	83 37.90	58 26.48	219
Regard all as individuals	19 8.68	23 10.50	47 21.46	76 34.70	54 24.66	219
Individuals have different needs	19 8.68	30 13.70	36 16.44	72 32.88	62 28.31	219
Help others develop	25 11.42	25 11.42	51 23.29	68 31.05	50 22.83	219
Total 11.68 = 0.47	85	94	174	299	224	876

Table B15: Transactional, Reward						
itemrew	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometimes	fairly often	always	
Provide others assistance	10 4.57	24 10.96	38 17.35	90 41.10	57 26.03	219
Specify responsibilities	20 9.13	15 6.85	48 21.92	82 37.44	54 24.66	219
Clarify performance expectations	26 11.93	18 8.26	38 17.43	76 34.86	60 27.52	218
Express satisfaction good performance	18 8.22	21 9.59	43 19.63	81 36.99	56 25.57	219
Total	74	78	167	329	227	875
Frequency Missing = 1 12.59 = 0.40						

Table B16: Transactional, MBE Active						
itemact	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometimes	fairly often	always	
Focus attention on mistakes	16 7.31	15 6.85	34 15.53	92 42.01	62 28.31	219
All attention dealing with mistakes	13 5.94	26 11.87	49 22.37	81 36.99	50 22.83	219
Keep track of mistakes	7 3.20	24 10.96	43 19.63	85 38.81	60 27.40	219
Attention on failure, meet standards	62 28.31	34 15.53	46 21.00	55 25.11	22 10.05	219
Total	98	99	172	313	194	876
119.57 <0.0001***						

Table B17: Transactional, MBE Passive						
itempas	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometimes	fairly often	always	
Only interfere problem serious	63 28.77	35 15.98	44 20.09	50 22.83	27 12.33	219
Act only when things go wrong	87 39.73	16 7.31	45 20.55	47 21.46	24 10.96	219
Believer only fix, broken	26 11.87	22 10.05	49 22.37	79 36.07	43 19.63	219
Act only problems chronic	23 10.55	23 10.55	36 16.51	82 37.61	54 24.77	218
Total	199	96	174	258	148	875
Frequency Missing = 1 99.19 <0.0001***						

Table B18: Laissez-faire						
itemlai	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometim es	fairly often	alway s	
Avoid involvement in serious issues	113 51.60	27 12.33	26 11.87	36 16.44	17 7.76	219
Absebt when needed	86 39.27	51 23.29	35 15.98	25 11.42	22 10.05	219
Avoid decision-making	77 35.16	36 16.44	44 20.09	38 17.35	24 10.96	219
Delay responding to questions	90 41.10	31 14.16	31 14.16	45 20.55	22 10.05	219
Total	366	145	136	144	85	876

28.92 = 0.01**

For students

Table B19: Transformational, Attributes						
itemat	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometim es	fairly often	alway s	
Instill pride	12 18.46	10 15.38	13 20.00	16 24.62	14 21.54	65
Go beyond self interest	7 10.77	7 10.77	6 9.23	31 47.69	14 21.54	65
Build respect	10 15.38	7 10.77	14 21.54	21 32.31	13 20.00	65
Display power and confidende	10 15.38	4 6.15	14 21.54	25 38.46	12 18.46	65
Total 13.08 = 0.36	39	28	47	93	53	260

Table B20: Transformational, Behaviour						
itembe	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometim es	fairly often	alway s	
Talk about values and beliefs	16 24.62	12 18.46	15 23.08	17 26.15	5 7.69	65
Importance of having strong beliefs/ values	2 3.08	10 15.38	6 9.23	34 52.31	13 20.00	65
Consider moral/ ethical consequences	4 6.15	7 10.77	10 15.38	31 47.69	13 20.00	65
Importance of collective sense of mission	2 3.08	7 10.77	8 12.31	34 52.31	14 21.54	65
Total 40.77 <0.0001***	24	36	39	116	45	260

TableB21: Transformational, Motivation						
itemmo	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometim es	fairly often	alway s	
Optimistic about future	3 4.62	3 4.62	11 16.92	29 44.62	19 29.23	65
Enthusiastic about goals/ objectives	6 9.23	6 9.23	10 15.38	35 53.85	8 12.31	65
Vision of future	3 4.62	5 7.69	7 10.77	36 55.38	14 21.54	65
Confidence in goal achievment	3 4.62	7 10.77	8 12.31	27 41.54	20 30.77	65
Total 12.37 = 0.42	15	21	36	127	61	260

Table B22: Transformational, Stimulation						
itemstim	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	some- times	fairly often	always	
Consider critical assumptions to questions, appropriate	2 3.08	8 12.31	18 27.69	24 36.92	13 20.00	65
Different perspectives to problems	2 3.08	11 16.92	8 12.31	30 46.15	14 21.54	65
Others consider problems other angles	6 9.23	7 10.77	21 32.31	17 26.15	14 21.54	65
Suggest new ways for problems	5 7.69	5 7.69	8 12.31	31 47.69	16 24.62	65
Total 21.00 = 0.05*	15	31	55	102	57	260

Table B23: Transformational, Consideration						
itemcon	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometim es	fairly often	alway s	
Time on teaching/ coaching	8 12.31	6 9.23	13 20.00	26 40.00	12 18.46	65
Regard all as individuals	6 9.23	6 9.23	13 20.00	27 41.54	13 20.00	65
Individuals have different needs	2 3.08	10 15.38	16 24.62	25 38.46	12 18.46	65
Help others develop	1 1.54	4 6.15	11 16.92	37 56.92	12 18.46	65
Total 14.88 = 0.28	17	26	53	115	49	260

Table B24: Transactional, Reward						
itemrew	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometim es	fairly often	alway s	
Provide others assistance	10 15.38	5 7.69	11 16.92	28 43.08	11 16.92	65
Specify responsibilities	3 4.62	8 12.31	13 20.00	29 44.62	12 18.46	65
Clarify performance expectations	3 4.62	9 13.85	15 23.08	31 47.69	7 10.77	65
Express satisfaction good performance	6 9.23	9 13.85	10 15.38	32 49.23	8 12.31	65
Total 10.71 = 0.55	22	31	49	120	38	260

Table B25: Transactional, MBE Active						
itemact	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometim es	fairly often	alway s	
Focus attention on mistakes	9 13.85	7 10.77	14 21.54	23 35.38	12 18.46	65
All attention dealing with mistakes	2 3.08	5 7.69	15 23.08	33 50.77	10 15.38	65
Keep track of mistakes	6 9.23	15 23.08	12 18.46	22 33.85	10 15.38	65
Attention on failure, meet standards	4 6.15	9 13.85	24 36.92	21 32.31	7 10.77	65
Total 21.59 = 0.04*	21	36	65	99	39	260

Table B26: Transactional, MBE Passive						
itempas	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometim es	fairly often	alway s	
Only interfere problem serious	20 30.77	11 16.92	10 15.38	12 18.46	12 18.46	65
Act only when things go wrong	22 33.85	11 16.92	15 23.08	11 16.92	6 9.23	65
Believer only fix, broken	31 47.69	3 4.62	13 20.00	13 20.00	5 7.69	65
Act only problems chronic	18 27.69	5 7.69	14 21.54	22 33.85	6 9.23	65
Total 21.77 = 0.04*	91	30	52	58	29	260

Table B27: Laissez-faire						
itemlai	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	sometim es	fairly often	alway s	
Avoid involvement in serious issues	37 56.92	13 20.00	7 10.77	6 9.23	2 3.08	65
Absent when needed	29 44.62	10 15.38	13 20.00	9 13.85	4 6.15	65
Avoid decision making	26 40.00	10 15.38	17 26.15	10 15.38	2 3.08	65
Delay responding to questions	29 45.31	11 17.19	10 15.63	5 7.81	9 14.06	64
Total	121	44	47	30	17	259
Frequency Missing = 1 17.40 = 0.14						

Appendix C

Means leadership components scores for deans; teachers; and students calculated for each of the ten TVET colleges

Deans, Table C1

	Hossana 1		Aman 1		Arba Minch 1		Dilla 1		Sawla 1		Butajira 1		AletaWondo 1		Jinka 1		Halaba 1		Daye 1	
Variable	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.
IIAttributes	2.25	.	1.25	.	2.25	.	2.75	.	2.75	.	1.75	.	2.00	.	3.00	.	3.25	.	2.00	.
IIBehaviour	2.25	.	3.00	.	3.75	.	2.75	.	2.75	.	4.00	.	2.75	.	3.50	.	3.00	.	2.00	.
Motivation	2.75	.	2.50	.	3.25	.	3.25	.	3.25	.	4.00	.	4.00	.	3.75	.	3.75	.	2.75	.
Stimulation	2.00	.	3.00	.	3.00	.	3.25	.	3.25	.	3.00	.	2.75	.	3.00	.	3.50	.	3.50	.
Consideration	2.25	.	2.50	.	3.50	.	3.00	.	3.00	.	4.00	.	2.75	.	3.00	.	3.00	.	3.00	.
Reward	2.25	.	2.75	.	3.00	.	3.25	.	3.25	.	3.25	.	3.25	.	3.25	.	3.00	.	3.00	.
MBEPassive	1.25	.	0.50	.	0.50	.	2.25	.	2.25	.	0.75	.	0.25	.	1.25	.	1.25	.	3.00	.
MBEActive	2.75	.	2.25	.	0.50	.	2.75	.	2.75	.	3.00	.	2.75	.	3.00	.	2.25	.	3.00	.
Transformatinal	2.30	.	2.45	.	3.15	.	3.00	.	3.00	.	3.35	.	2.85	.	3.25	.	3.30	.	2.65	.
Transactional	2.08	.	1.83	.	1.33	.	2.75	.	2.75	.	2.33	.	2.08	.	2.50	.	2.17	.	3.00	.
Laissez-Faire	0.00	.	0.00	.	0.50	.	3.00	.	3.00	.	0.00	.	0.25	.	0.00	.	0.25	.	2.00	.

Teachers, Table C2

	Hossana 40		Aman 20		Arba Minch 36		Dilla 23		Sawla 24		Butajira 15		AletaWondo 7		Jinka 22		Halaba 17		Daye 22	
Variable	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.
IIAttributes	2.48	0.83	2.66	1.15	2.23	1.01	2.42	0.96	2.85	1.10	2.95	0.42			2.08	0.80	2.72	1.17	2.48	0.99
IIBehaviour	2.66	0.80	2.89	0.92	2.53	0.86	2.79	0.91	3.08	0.86	2.75	0.63			2.11	0.79	2.99	0.83	2.80	0.74
Motivation	2.89	0.97	2.98	0.92	2.51	0.92	2.55	1.12	3.30	0.57	3.17	0.53			2.26	0.89	3.07	0.73	2.99	0.71
Stimulation	2.59	1.12	2.85	0.94	2.51	1.01	2.32	1.16	3.08	0.76	2.98	0.75			1.88	0.98	2.78	1.07	2.82	0.92
Consideration	2.54	1.12	2.70	0.90	2.26	0.98	2.33	0.95	3.11	0.72	3.32	0.59			1.69	1.00	2.71	1.19	2.75	0.73
Reward	2.77	1.11	2.68	0.96	2.30	0.98	2.41	1.04	3.07	0.69	3.07	0.64			2.19	0.78	2.63	1.10	2.82	0.72
MBEPassive	1.93	1.02	2.20	1.08	1.86	0.85	2.20	0.86	2.54	0.80	2.22	0.97			1.72	0.74	1.91	0.73	2.25	0.85
MBEActive	2.34	0.87	2.53	0.74	2.29	0.79	2.36	1.05	2.95	0.63	2.50	0.58			2.34	0.81	2.62	0.75	2.48	0.73
Transformation	2.63	0.81	2.82	0.82	2.41	0.87	2.48	0.92	3.09	0.64	3.03	0.46			2.00	0.74	2.85	0.91	2.77	0.73
Transactional	2.35	0.83	2.47	0.76	2.15	0.68	2.32	0.85	2.85	0.53	2.59	0.52			2.08	0.64	2.39	0.70	2.52	0.68
Laissez-Faire	1.18	1.20	1.55	1.57	1.44	0.86	1.24	1.05	1.27	1.29	1.13	1.22			1.67	1.07	1.12	1.25	1.63	1.39

Students, Table C3

	Hossana 7		Aman 5		Arba Minch 7		Dilla 7		Sawla 6		Butajira 7		AletaWondo 6		Jinka 7		Halaba 7		Daye 6	
Variable	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.
IIAttributes	1.68	0.85	2.55	0.86	2.82	0.53	1.86	0.50	2.38	1.01	2.93	0.75	2.67	0.94	2.50	1.04	1.89	1.13	2.42	0.92
IIBehaviour	1.86	0.98	2.75	0.47	2.93	0.28	2.43	1.08	2.08	1.19	2.75	0.35	2.71	0.84	2.46	0.99	2.18	0.61	2.63	0.77
Motivation	2.32	0.57	2.85	0.45	3.21	0.39	2.54	0.83	2.63	0.82	3.04	0.76	2.79	0.93	3.11	0.69	2.11	1.02	3.08	0.74
Stimulation	1.71	0.78	2.90	0.45	3.04	0.81	2.11	0.83	2.21	1.10	3.07	0.84	2.88	0.82	2.61	0.86	2.36	0.99	3.25	0.79
Consideration	2.00	0.65	2.70	0.27	3.04	0.57	1.93	0.79	2.33	0.63	2.82	0.75	2.88	0.59	3.00	0.63	2.29	0.76	3.00	0.67
Reward	1.96	1.27	2.80	0.54	2.89	0.57	1.71	1.06	2.67	0.63	2.68	0.75	2.79	0.80	2.36	0.91	2.39	0.63	2.58	1.22
MBEPassive	1.46	0.93	1.95	1.29	1.43	1.37	1.25	1.07	2.33	0.94	1.89	1.01	1.75	1.21	1.46	0.81	1.64	1.46	1.29	1.16
MBEActive	2.04	0.65	2.30	0.41	2.96	0.17	1.68	1.01	2.54	0.70	2.82	1.25	2.71	0.84	2.00	0.79	2.46	0.96	2.33	1.17
Transformation	1.91	0.59	2.75	0.27	3.01	0.39	2.17	0.69	2.33	0.62	2.92	0.65	2.78	0.79	2.74	0.67	2.16	0.71	2.88	0.65
Transactional	1.82	0.66	2.35	0.46	2.43	0.57	1.55	0.87	2.51	0.44	2.46	0.40	2.42	0.75	1.94	0.31	2.17	0.75	2.07	0.85
Laissez-Faire	1.10	0.89	1.50	1.27	0.50	0.58	1.50	1.18	1.25	1.20	0.96	0.88	1.75	1.51	1.00	0.76	0.75	0.68	1.38	1.10

All, excluding deans, Table C4

	Hossana 47		Aman 25		Arba Minch 43		Dilla 30		Sawla 30		Butajira 22		AletaWondo 6		Jinka 29		Halaba 24		Daye 28	
Variable	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.	Mean	Std dev.
IIAttributes	2.36	0.87	2.64	1.09	2.33	0.97	2.29	0.90	2.76	1.08	2.94	0.53	2.67	0.94	2.67	0.94	2.48	1.20	2.46	0.96
IIBehaviour	2.54	0.86	2.86	0.84	2.60	0.80	2.71	0.95	2.88	1.00	2.75	0.55	2.71	0.84	2.71	0.84	2.75	0.85	2.76	0.73
Motivation	2.80	0.94	2.95	0.84	2.63	0.89	2.55	1.04	3.17	0.67	3.13	0.60	2.79	0.93	2.79	0.93	2.79	0.92	3.01	0.71
Stimulation	2.46	1.12	2.86	0.86	2.60	0.99	2.27	1.08	2.91	0.89	3.01	0.76	2.88	0.82	2.88	0.82	2.66	1.04	2.91	0.90
Consideration	2.46	1.07	2.70	0.81	2.38	0.96	2.23	0.92	2.96	0.76	3.16	0.67	2.88	0.59	2.88	0.59	2.58	1.08	2.80	0.71
Reward	2.65	1.16	2.70	0.88	2.40	0.95	2.25	1.07	2.99	0.69	2.94	0.69	2.79	0.80	2.79	0.80	2.56	0.98	2.77	0.83
MBEPassive	1.86	1.01	2.15	1.10	1.79	0.95	1.98	0.98	2.50	0.82	2.11	0.97	1.75	1.21	1.75	1.21	1.83	0.97	2.04	0.99
MBEActive	2.29	0.84	2.48	0.68	2.40	0.76	2.20	1.06	2.87	0.65	2.60	0.83	2.71	0.84	2.71	0.84	2.57	0.80	2.45	0.82
Transformation	2.52	0.82	2.80	0.74	2.51	0.84	2.41	0.87	2.94	0.70	3.00	0.51	2.78	0.79	2.78	0.79	2.65	0.90	2.79	0.70
Transactional	2.27	0.82	2.44	0.70	2.20	0.66	2.14	0.90	2.79	0.53	2.55	0.48	2.42	0.75	2.42	0.75	2.32	0.71	2.42	0.72
Laissez-Faire	1.16	1.15	1.54	1.49	1.28	0.89	1.30	1.07	1.27	1.25	1.08	1.10	1.75	1.51	1.75	1.51	1.01	1.11	1.57	1.32

Appendix D

The mean scores of each leadership components used to determine the dominance of leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) using the norms provided by Bass & Avolio (2000)

The table of norms cited in Chapter 4 is attached to indicate how the three variables with eventual values of '0' and '1' (non-dominant or 'dominant') was established

Table D1: Norms for classifying dominant leadership styles as derived from Bass and Avolio, 2000.			
Leader-ship constructs	Leadership traits	Questionnaire statement	Resultant leadership classification
Transformational construct	t1: Individualised influence (attributed) t2: Individualised influence (behaviour) t3: Individualised consideration t4: Inspirational motivation t5: Intellectual stimulation (IS)	At least 3 of construct scores (t1-t5) ≥ 3 ('a'-e' below)	Transformational style
Transactional construct	ts1: Contingent reward (CR) ts2: Manage by exception (passive) ts3: Manage by exception (active) ts4: <i>Laissez faire</i>	Constr. score (ts1) ≥ 3 , & constr. score (ts2) ≥ 2 , & constr. Score (ts3) ≥ 2 ('f' to 'h' below)	Transactional style
		Constr. score (ts2 'g') ≥ 3 , & constr. score (ts3 'h') ≥ 3 , & constr. score (ts4 'I') ≥ 3 , & constr. score (t1-t5, ts1) < 2	Laissez-faire

Table D2: participants' leadership style dimension scores

Obs	Attributes	Behaviour	Motivation	Stimulation	Consideration	Transf	transact	Reward	MBE Passive	MBE Active	Laissez	Laissez-Faire
1	1.75	4.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	4	0	3.25	0.75000	3.00	0	0.00000
2	1.25	3.00	2.50	3.00	2.50	2	0	2.75	0.50000	2.25	0	0.00000
3	2.25	3.75	3.25	3.00	3.50	4	0	3.00	0.50000	0.50	0	0.50000
4	2.00	2.75	4.00	2.75	2.75	1	0	3.25	0.25000	2.75	0	0.25000
5	3.00	3.50	3.75	3.00	3.00	5	0	3.25	1.25000	3.00	0	0.00000
6	2.75	3.25	4.00	4.00	3.75	4	0	3.50	0.25000	4.00	0	0.00000
7	2.25	2.25	2.75	2.00	2.25	0	0	2.25	1.25000	2.75	0	0.00000
8	3.25	3.00	3.75	3.50	3.00	5	0	3.00	1.25000	2.25	0	0.25000
9	2.75	2.75	3.25	3.25	3.00	3	1	3.25	2.25000	2.75	0	3.00000
10	2.00	2.00	2.75	3.50	3.00	2	1	3.00	3.00000	3.00	0	2.00000
11	3.25	3.25	2.75	2.50	2.50	2	0	1.50	1.50000	2.00	0	2.00000
12	1.00	1.50	1.00	0.25	0.00	0	0	0.50	1.75000	1.25	0	2.00000
13	2.75	2.00	2.50	3.00	3.00	2	0	3.00	1.50000	2.25	0	0.25000
14	2.50	2.00	3.00	2.50	1.25	1	0	2.50	1.50000	2.00	0	0.50000
15	3.00	1.75	3.00	1.50	2.00	2	0	2.00	1.75000	2.50	0	0.75000
16	3.00	3.50	3.50	3.75	3.50	5	1	3.50	2.75000	2.75	0	1.25000
17	3.00	3.00	2.00	2.75	3.50	3	1	3.25	3.50000	3.25	0	3.00000
18	2.50	2.75	2.75	3.00	2.75	1	0	3.00	0.75000	2.25	0	0.00000
19	2.75	1.75	2.50	3.00	3.00	2	0	3.00	1.50000	2.25	0	0.25000
20	3.00	3.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	0	4.00	0.50000	2.00	0	0.00000
21	3.75	3.75	3.75	4.00	4.00	5	0	4.00	1.00000	3.00	0	0.00000

Obs	Attributes	Behaviour	Motivation	Stimulation	Consideration	Transf	transact	Reward	MBE Passive	MBE Active	Laissez	Laissez-Faire
22	3.25	2.75	3.00	2.50	3.75	3	1	3.00	2.50000	2.00	0	1.25000
23	3.25	2.75	3.00	2.50	3.75	3	1	3.00	2.50000	2.25	0	1.25000
24	3.25	2.75	3.00	2.50	3.75	3	1	3.00	2.50000	2.25	0	1.25000
25	2.25	2.75	3.25	3.00	3.00	3	0	2.25	3.00000	1.50	0	0.50000
26	2.25	2.75	3.25	2.75	3.00	2	1	3.00	3.00000	3.00	0	0.50000
27	2.75	2.00	3.00	2.00	3.00	2	0	2.00	2.25000	2.00	0	2.75000
28	2.75	2.25	3.75	3.75	2.75	2	1	3.00	2.00000	2.75	0	0.25000
29	3.50	3.75	3.75	3.75	4.00	5	1	4.00	3.75000	3.75	0	4.00000
30	4.00	3.75	4.00	3.75	3.75	5	1	4.00	2.00000	2.75	0	0.00000
31	0.75	2.25	3.00	3.00	2.25	2	0	3.00	0.75000	2.25	0	0.00000
32	3.25	2.00	2.50	1.75	2.25	1	0	2.00	1.25000	2.25	0	0.50000
33	3.50	3.00	3.75	4.00	3.75	5	1	4.00	2.00000	3.00	0	0.00000
34	3.50	4.00	3.75	3.25	3.25	5	1	3.50	2.50000	3.25	0	3.50000
35	1.50	3.00	2.75	2.75	3.00	2	0	3.00	1.75000	2.75	0	0.00000
36	1.00	2.75	3.00	2.00	1.75	1	0	1.50	2.00000	2.75	0	1.00000
37	3.25	3.00	3.25	3.50	3.00	5	0	2.75	1.00000	2.75	0	0.00000
38	4.00	4.00	3.75	4.00	3.75	5	0	3.00	1.50000	3.50	0	0.00000
39	3.25	3.50	3.00	2.75	3.50	4	1	3.50	3.00000	3.00	0	1.00000
40	1.50	3.50	3.25	2.50	2.00	2	0	2.25	1.50000	2.25	0	3.25000
41	1.50	2.00	2.00	0.50	1.00	0	0	1.75	1.50000	1.50	0	2.25000
42	3.50	1.75	2.75	1.50	1.25	1	0	2.50	2.50000	2.75	0	0.50000
43	1.25	1.75	1.00	0.00	0.25	0	0	1.00	1.25000	1.00	0	1.00000
44	0.75	1.50	1.25	1.75	1.75	0	0	2.25	2.00000	1.75	0	2.75000
45	2.50	2.75	3.25	2.75	3.25	2	1	3.00	2.00000	2.50	0	2.25000
46	1.25	3.25	3.00	2.75	2.25	2	0	2.25	1.75000	3.25	0	1.50000
47	2.50	2.50	2.25	2.75	2.50	0	0	2.75	1.00000	1.50	0	0.25000
48	2.00	3.00	2.75	2.75	1.75	1	0	2.00	2.25000	3.00	0	1.75000
49	3.00	1.50	2.50	2.25	2.75	1	0	2.75	2.75000	2.25	0	3.00000
50	3.00	2.75	2.25	2.00	1.00	1	0	2.00	0.75000	3.25	0	1.00000
51	1.75	1.50	2.50	0.75	0.00	0	0	0.25	0.50000	0.25	0	0.50000
52	3.00	2.00	2.75	2.50	2.25	1	1	3.25	2.25000	2.50	0	0.00000
53	1.50	2.00	1.25	0.50	0.25	0	0	1.75	1.50000	3.00	0	0.00000
54	1.75	1.00	0.50	1.25	1.00	0	0	2.25	1.00000	1.25	0	2.00000
55	2.75	3.50	2.50	2.50	3.25	2	1	3.00	3.25000	2.75	0	0.00000
56	2.75	3.00	1.75	2.75	2.25	1	1	3.25	2.50000	3.00	0	3.00000
57	3.25	4.00	4.00	3.25	3.25	5	0	3.25	1.75000	2.25	0	1.25000
58	2.00	2.50	3.25	3.50	3.00	3	0	3.25	1.75000	2.50	0	0.50000
59	4.00	3.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	1	4.00	2.00000	3.00	0	0.00000
60	3.00	3.75	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	1	3.00	2.00000	3.00	0	1.00000
61	3.75	4.00	3.50	3.50	3.25	5	1	3.00	3.00000	3.75	0	2.00000
62	2.75	2.75	2.75	1.75	2.50	0	0	2.50	2.50000	3.50	0	1.50000
63	3.00	3.50	3.25	3.50	3.25	5	0	3.25	1.50000	3.00	0	0.00000
64	2.00	4.00	3.75	2.50	3.50	3	1	3.00	2.25000	3.00	0	1.25000
65	3.50	2.50	2.75	2.25	3.00	2	0	2.50	2.00000	2.50	0	0.50000
66	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	1	4.00	2.00000	3.25	0	1.00000
67	2.75	2.25	3.00	3.00	3.00	3	0	2.75	3.00000	3.00	0	0.00000
68	2.00	0.50	2.75	1.50	1.50	0	0	1.25	2.50000	1.25	0	1.50000
69	3.00	2.75	1.75	2.50	1.50	1	0	2.50	1.75000	3.00	0	0.25000
70	2.50	2.50	3.00	2.00	2.25	1	1	3.25	3.00000	2.75	0	2.00000
71	3.50	3.25	3.75	3.25	3.25	5	0	1.75	3.75000	2.75	0	1.00000
72	0.00	2.25	3.00	3.00	3.00	3	1	3.00	3.00000	3.00	0	3.00000
73	0.00	2.50	3.75	3.50	2.50	2	0	2.75	2.50000	3.00	0	0.75000
74	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	3.75	5	1	4.00	4.00000	4.00	0	4.00000
75	2.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	2.50	2	0	3.00	1.75000	3.00	0	3.00000
76	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	1	3.75	4.00000	4.00	0	4.00000
77	4.00	4.00	3.50	3.75	4.00	5	1	4.00	3.50000	3.75	0	4.00000
78	3.50	3.50	3.25	3.75	3.00	5	0	3.75	1.25000	2.50	0	0.50000
79	3.00	3.50	3.50	2.75	3.25	4	0	3.00	2.00000	1.75	0	0.00000
80	2.25	2.00	3.25	2.75	2.50	1	0	3.00	1.50000	2.75	0	0.75000
81	4.00	4.00	3.50	3.50	3.75	5	1	4.00	3.75000	4.00	0	0.00000
82	1.25	2.75	2.75	1.75	1.25	0	0	1.00	1.50000	2.00	0	2.50000
83	4.00	4.00	4.00	3.75	3.50	5	0	3.75	1.00000	2.75	0	0.00000
84	3.25	3.75	2.75	2.75	1.25	2	0	2.00	2.25000	2.50	0	2.00000

Obs	Attributes	Behaviour	Motivation	Stimulation	Consideration	Transf	transact	Reward	MBE Passive	MBE Active	Laissez	Laissez-Faire
85	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.25	5	0	3.00	0.75000	2.25	0	0.25000
86	0.75	2.25	2.25	1.25	2.25	0	0	1.25	2.75000	1.00	0	2.50000
87	4.00	3.75	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	1	3.75	4.00000	3.75	0	3.75000
88	2.00	2.00	3.00	2.25	1.50	1	0	1.50	3.00000	2.00	0	3.50000
89	4.00	3.75	4.00	4.00	3.50	5	1	3.75	4.00000	3.75	0	3.75000
90	2.75	2.50	2.50	3.75	2.75	1	0	3.25	1.50000	2.75	0	0.00000
91	3.00	3.00	2.50	2.25	3.00	3	0	2.75	0.75000	2.25	0	0.00000
92	2.25	1.25	3.00	2.50	2.25	1	0	1.75	1.75000	2.00	0	0.00000
93	0.25	1.50	2.00	2.00	2.00	0	0	2.00	2.50000	2.75	0	2.25000
94	1.50	1.75	2.25	1.50	2.50	0	0	2.50	2.50000	2.75	0	1.50000
95	2.00	4.00	3.75	3.75	3.25	4	1	3.00	2.25000	2.75	0	0.00000
96	3.00	2.50	2.50	2.75	2.75	1	0	2.25	3.50000	3.25	0	4.00000
97	4.00	3.75	4.00	4.00	3.50	5	0	3.75	1.75000	2.75	0	0.00000
98	3.75	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	1	4.00	4.00000	3.50	0	4.00000
99	2.50	3.00	0.50	1.50	0.75	1	0	0.75	1.00000	1.00	0	1.75000
100	2.25	1.25	2.25	1.00	0.75	0	0	2.50	1.25000	3.00	0	2.25000
101	1.50	2.00	2.25	1.25	1.75	0	0	1.25	1.00000	2.25	0	2.25000
102	0.75	0.25	0.50	0.75	0.50	0	0	1.00	1.00000	2.75	0	1.25000
103	2.50	2.75	3.25	2.75	3.00	2	0	2.50	2.25000	3.00	0	2.50000
104	3.25	2.50	3.50	3.25	3.25	4	0	2.75	3.50000	2.50	0	0.50000
105	2.25	2.00	2.50	2.50	1.50	0	0	2.25	2.25000	2.00	0	2.00000
106	3.50	3.50	3.25	3.75	3.75	5	1	3.75	2.25000	3.25	0	1.25000
107	3.00	3.50	3.75	3.75	2.50	4	0	2.25	0.50000	3.00	0	0.00000
108	3.75	3.50	3.50	3.50	3.00	5	0	2.75	2.50000	2.50	0	2.25000
109	2.25	3.00	2.00	2.25	2.75	1	0	1.75	2.25000	0.75	0	1.75000
110	1.25	2.25	3.25	3.00	3.00	3	0	3.25	1.00000	2.25	0	0.00000
111	1.25	1.00	1.00	1.50	1.75	0	0	1.00	1.25000	1.75	0	1.75000
112	1.50	2.00	2.00	2.50	2.25	0	0	1.50	1.75000	2.25	0	2.00000
113	1.00	2.25	2.00	1.50	1.50	0	0	2.25	1.75000	2.50	0	2.25000
114	3.25	3.50	3.75	4.00	3.50	5	1	4.00	2.25000	3.25	0	0.75000
115	3.25	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	5	0	3.75	1.75000	3.00	0	0.00000
116	3.00	3.00	3.25	3.25	2.25	4	0	3.25	1.50000	2.25	0	1.00000
117	2.25	3.25	3.50	3.25	3.00	4	0	2.75	2.50000	3.25	0	1.75000
118	3.25	2.50	2.25	2.75	3.00	2	1	3.50	2.50000	2.75	0	2.25000
119	1.25	2.50	2.00	1.75	1.50	0	0	1.50	2.25000	2.25	0	0.75000
120	3.50	3.75	3.50	3.50	2.00	4	0	2.25	3.25000	3.50	0	2.25000
121	1.75	1.50	2.25	1.25	0.75	0	0	2.25	0.75000	2.75	0	1.25000
122	1.75	1.25	2.25	1.50	1.00	0	0	1.00	0.50000	2.00	0	1.50000
123	1.75	1.50	1.50	2.25	1.25	0	0	0.75	2.25000	2.25	0	1.25000
124	1.75	2.75	2.25	2.75	3.25	1	1	3.00	3.50000	3.25	0	2.50000
125	2.00	1.25	1.50	2.75	2.50	0	0	2.00	3.00000	2.75	0	1.00000
126	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	3.75	5	1	4.00	4.00000	4.00	0	0.00000
127	3.50	3.75	4.00	4.00	3.75	5	1	4.00	3.75000	3.75	0	0.00000
128	3.25	3.00	3.50	3.00	2.75	4	0	3.25	1.75000	3.00	0	0.50000
129	1.50	0.75	0.00	0.00	0.00	0	0	0.00	1.50000	0.75	1	3.00000
130	2.75	3.50	2.75	3.00	3.50	3	1	3.75	4.00000	3.25	0	3.75000
131	1.50	2.50	2.75	0.50	1.75	0	0	1.50	3.00000	1.75	0	1.75000
132	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	1	4.00	2.00000	3.00	0	0.00000
133	2.25	3.25	2.50	1.50	1.50	1	0	2.75	0.75000	2.25	0	1.75000
134	1.50	3.00	3.00	3.50	2.50	3	1	3.50	3.50000	3.00	0	0.25000
135	3.00	2.50	2.75	2.25	1.75	1	0	3.00	0.75000	1.25	0	0.00000
136	3.25	2.75	4.00	2.75	2.75	2	0	3.25	1.50000	1.75	0	2.25000
137	3.25	3.25	3.00	3.50	3.25	5	1	3.00	3.50000	3.00	0	0.75000
138	2.75	2.25	3.00	2.50	3.00	2	0	3.00	1.00000	2.75	0	0.75000
139	2.25	4.00	2.25	0.25	0.25	1	0	0.50	0.50000	0.75	0	0.25000
140	2.50	1.75	3.25	1.75	2.25	1	0	3.50	3.25000	1.50	0	1.75000
141	3.25	2.75	3.00	3.25	1.75	3	0	2.75	1.50000	1.00	0	0.50000
142	1.00	3.25	3.25	1.75	3.25	3	0	2.00	1.00000	2.00	0	0.50000
143	2.50	1.75	3.50	2.00	2.50	1	0	3.25	0.75000	3.00	0	0.50000
144	2.50	3.00	2.00	2.25	2.00	1	0	1.25	1.25000	1.25	0	2.00000
145	2.00	1.75	2.75	2.75	2.50	0	0	2.75	3.00000	2.50	0	1.25000
146	2.25	3.00	3.25	2.75	1.50	2	0	2.00	1.50000	2.25	0	1.50000
147	2.50	2.00	2.25	3.25	3.25	2	1	3.25	3.50000	3.00	0	3.50000

Obs	Attributes	Behaviour	Motivation	Stimulation	Consideration	Transf	transact	Reward	MBE Passive	MBE Active	Laissez	Laissez-Faire
148	3.00	3.75	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	0	4.00	1.00000	3.00	0	0.00000
149	2.75	3.00	3.00	1.75	2.25	2	0	2.00	1.75000	3.50	0	1.75000
150	3.25	3.00	3.25	3.00	4.00	5	1	4.00	2.50000	3.00	0	0.00000
151	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	1	4.00	3.50000	3.75	0	2.00000
152	0.50	0.75	0.50	1.25	1.00	0	0	1.50	1.33333	1.00	0	0.00000
153	0.75	2.50	3.50	3.75	3.50	3	0	4.00	1.75000	3.00	0	0.00000
154	1.50	2.00	1.50	1.25	1.75	0	0	1.00	1.75000	1.75	0	2.25000
155	2.25	2.25	3.75	3.25	3.50	3	0	3.50	0.75000	2.50	0	0.00000
156	2.25	2.50	4.00	3.75	3.50	3	1	3.75	2.50000	3.25	0	0.00000
157	2.00	3.00	2.25	1.75	1.25	1	0	2.00	1.50000	1.75	0	2.25000
158	3.00	2.50	3.00	3.00	3.00	4	0	3.00	1.50000	2.25	0	1.75000
159	2.50	2.25	2.75	2.75	1.75	0	0	3.00	0.75000	2.25	0	0.00000
160	3.00	2.50	2.75	2.75	3.00	2	0	2.75	1.25000	2.75	0	0.00000
161	2.25	2.25	1.75	2.00	2.00	0	0	1.75	2.00000	1.00	0	1.50000
162	1.50	1.25	1.25	0.50	0.50	0	0	0.50	0.75000	1.00	0	0.75000
163	2.50	2.75	1.75	2.25	1.25	0	0	2.25	2.50000	2.00	0	0.75000
164	3.75	3.25	4.00	3.75	3.50	5	1	3.75	3.50000	3.75	0	0.50000
165	3.00	3.00	3.75	3.75	3.00	5	1	3.00	3.00000	3.25	0	3.50000
166	3.25	3.75	3.75	3.50	4.00	5	0	4.00	1.00000	2.75	0	0.00000
167	2.00	2.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	3	1	4.00	3.00000	3.00	0	4.00000
168	3.50	3.50	4.00	3.75	3.75	5	1	3.50	2.25000	2.75	0	0.50000
169	3.50	3.50	3.50	3.25	3.75	5	1	3.75	3.25000	3.25	0	3.75000
170	3.00	2.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4	1	4.00	3.00000	3.00	0	0.00000
171	2.50	3.00	2.75	2.25	2.75	1	0	1.75	1.75000	2.00	0	3.50000
172	0.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	0	0	3.00	1.75000	2.50	0	0.50000
173	3.25	1.75	3.00	3.25	2.50	3	0	2.50	1.00000	2.25	0	0.00000
174	1.75	2.75	2.75	2.50	2.75	0	1	3.00	3.00000	3.00	0	1.50000
175	2.25	2.25	3.25	3.00	2.50	2	0	2.75	3.25000	2.50	0	2.00000
176	2.75	3.25	3.25	2.50	2.75	2	1	3.50	2.00000	3.50	0	0.00000
177	3.00	3.50	3.75	3.75	3.50	5	1	3.50	2.00000	3.00	0	0.00000
178	1.75	1.75	2.00	1.50	0.75	0	0	2.50	2.00000	2.50	0	0.25000
179	1.50	2.25	2.25	1.00	1.75	0	0	1.25	2.25000	1.50	0	2.50000
180	3.00	2.75	2.75	1.75	2.25	1	0	2.25	1.50000	1.50	0	1.50000
181	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.00	1.75	0	0	2.25	1.50000	1.75	0	1.00000
182	3.00	3.00	2.25	3.00	3.25	4	0	0.75	1.50000	3.25	0	0.50000
183	3.00	2.75	3.25	3.00	3.25	4	1	3.00	3.00000	2.50	0	0.50000
184	2.50	2.00	0.00	1.00	1.25	0	0	2.25	2.00000	0.25	0	1.50000
185	0.50	0.00	1.00	0.25	1.00	0	0	1.00	0.75000	0.00	0	2.75000
186	3.00	3.00	2.75	2.50	2.25	2	0	2.50	1.50000	2.50	0	1.00000
187	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	1	3.75	3.25000	3.75	0	3.00000
188	2.50	3.00	2.50	2.25	1.00	1	0	2.50	2.00000	2.75	0	1.75000
189	0.50	1.25	1.00	0.00	1.25	0	0	0.75	2.00000	1.00	0	2.50000
190	1.50	3.00	0.50	1.00	2.25	1	0	1.75	1.75000	2.25	0	0.75000
191	1.50	3.50	2.00	1.75	2.50	1	0	2.75	3.00000	2.00	0	3.00000
192	1.50	3.50	2.00	2.25	1.50	1	0	2.00	2.25000	1.75	0	0.50000
193	2.50	3.00	3.25	3.00	2.25	3	0	2.75	2.75000	2.75	0	2.50000
194	2.00	3.00	2.75	2.75	2.25	1	0	0.50	0.75000	2.50	0	0.50000
195	2.75	3.25	3.00	3.00	3.00	4	0	2.50	1.25000	2.50	0	1.00000
196	3.25	2.75	3.25	2.50	2.00	2	1	3.75	2.00000	2.75	0	1.50000
197	2.25	2.25	3.00	1.75	1.75	1	0	2.00	1.75000	2.75	0	2.75000
198	2.50	3.00	3.25	3.00	3.00	4	0	2.25	3.00000	2.00	0	2.00000
199	1.25	2.25	2.25	1.25	1.25	0	0	1.25	1.00000	1.25	0	1.25000
200	1.25	2.25	1.75	2.25	1.75	0	0	1.25	2.50000	1.50	0	1.00000
201	0.00	1.25	0.50	0.75	0.00	0	0	0.50	2.25000	1.50	0	0.75000
202	0.25	1.00	0.50	0.00	0.50	0	0	1.25	0.50000	0.50	0	0.50000
203	2.25	2.75	2.00	2.50	2.75	0	0	2.75	2.25000	1.75	0	1.75000
204	0.75	1.75	1.25	0.75	0.75	0	0	0.50	1.00000	0.75	0	2.00000
205	3.00	3.00	2.50	2.50	3.00	3	1	3.00	3.50000	3.25	0	3.75000
206	3.25	4.00	3.75	4.00	3.50	5	0	3.00	0.75000	1.00	0	0.50000
207	3.00	2.00	2.75	3.75	2.50	2	0	2.50	1.50000	2.50	0	0.00000
208	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	0	3.50	0.75000	3.00	0	1.00000
209	2.00	3.00	2.50	2.25	2.50	1	0	2.00	1.50000	2.00	0	2.50000
210	1.25	2.00	1.75	2.00	1.50	0	0	2.25	2.00000	1.50	0	1.75000

Obs	Attributes	Behaviour	Motivation	Stimulation	Consideration	Transf	transact	Reward	MBE Passive	MBE Active	Laissez	Laissez-Faire
211	2.00	3.00	3.75	1.75	1.75	2	0	1.25	2.00000	2.50	0	2.25000
212	3.75	3.75	3.25	3.75	3.00	5	0	3.50	1.75000	3.00	0	0.50000
213	2.75	2.50	2.75	2.75	2.75	0	0	2.75	2.25000	2.00	0	0.50000
214	2.50	2.75	2.50	2.75	2.75	0	0	2.75	3.00000	2.75	0	2.00000
215	2.75	2.50	2.75	2.75	2.75	0	0	2.75	2.25000	2.75	0	0.50000
216	3.50	3.50	3.50	3.75	2.75	4	0	2.75	2.50000	2.25	0	3.50000
217	2.50	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	4	1	3.00	3.00000	3.00	0	3.00000
218	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	1	4.00	4.00000	4.00	0	4.00000
219	1.25	2.50	2.50	1.75	2.00	0	0	2.00	1.75000	1.50	0	1.75000
220	1.25	2.50	2.25	2.50	2.00	0	0	2.00	1.25000	2.00	0	1.75000
221	2.25	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	4	0	2.25	1.50000	2.00	0	0.00000
222	0.75	0.75	1.25	0.00	1.50	0	0	3.00	0.50000	1.50	0	1.00000
223	3.50	3.50	3.75	3.50	3.25	5	1	3.50	3.50000	3.75	0	3.50000
224	2.25	3.00	3.00	3.00	2.25	3	0	2.75	2.25000	1.25	0	0.00000
225	3.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	5	1	4.00	2.00000	4.00	0	0.00000
226	3.50	2.25	3.00	3.25	4.00	4	1	3.75	2.25000	2.25	0	2.00000
227	3.00	2.25	3.00	3.00	3.00	4	1	3.00	2.25000	2.75	0	1.50000
228	0.75	2.50	2.50	0.75	1.25	0	0	1.25	1.50000	2.00	0	0.25000
229	4.00	3.50	3.75	3.50	3.75	5	0	2.75	3.25000	2.25	0	3.50000
230	0.50	3.00	3.00	2.50	1.75	2	0	0.75	1.00000	2.25	0	0.00000
231	2.00	0.50	2.25	0.75	1.50	0	0	0.50	1.75000	1.50	0	2.00000
232	1.00	1.25	1.50	1.50	1.25	0	0	1.50	1.00000	1.25	0	1.00000
233	2.75	3.00	3.00	2.25	2.75	2	0	3.25	0.25000	3.00	0	0.25000
234	1.00	1.50	1.75	1.00	1.50	0	0	1.75	1.00000	1.75	0	0.50000
235	2.00	1.25	2.50	1.25	2.75	0	0	4.00	3.00000	1.75	0	2.25000
236	2.50	2.50	2.25	2.75	2.50	0	0	2.00	2.25000	2.75	0	1.66667
237	2.00	1.50	1.75	1.75	1.75	0	0	2.75	1.25000	1.25	0	1.75000
238	4.00	2.50	3.75	3.75	3.75	4	0	4.00	1.50000	2.75	0	1.50000
239	1.25	2.00	2.75	3.25	3.25	2	0	2.50	0.00000	3.25	0	0.00000
240	2.25	3.50	3.50	3.25	3.25	4	0	1.75	0.25000	3.25	0	0.25000
241	2.75	3.00	3.25	4.00	3.00	4	0	0.75	1.50000	0.50	0	1.75000
242	2.25	3.25	3.50	3.50	3.00	4	1	3.75	3.25000	3.00	0	3.00000
243	1.25	3.50	2.00	2.75	2.25	1	0	2.75	1.00000	2.50	0	2.50000
244	2.75	1.00	2.00	0.25	1.50	0	1	3.25	2.00000	3.00	0	0.25000
245	1.00	0.50	4.00	1.75	1.75	1	0	1.50	3.50000	1.25	0	3.00000
246	2.75	2.25	2.25	3.00	3.00	2	1	3.00	2.50000	2.75	0	0.50000
247	3.50	3.25	3.25	3.25	3.00	5	1	3.00	3.25000	3.25	0	1.00000
248	3.00	2.00	2.25	2.25	2.50	1	0	2.50	1.75000	2.50	0	0.25000
249	3.50	2.75	3.50	2.75	2.50	2	0	2.00	1.75000	2.50	0	2.75000
250	3.00	2.25	2.25	2.25	2.50	1	0	2.50	1.75000	2.00	0	0.25000
251	1.25	2.75	2.75	3.00	3.00	2	0	3.00	0.00000	2.75	0	0.00000
252	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.00	2	0	3.25	3.00000	1.75	0	2.25000
253	2.75	3.50	3.00	3.50	2.50	3	1	3.25	3.25000	2.50	0	2.25000
254	3.50	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	5	0	3.00	1.25000	3.00	0	0.00000
255	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.25	3.00	5	1	3.00	2.75000	3.00	0	0.00000
256	3.50	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	5	0	2.75	2.25000	3.00	0	2.50000
257	2.75	3.25	3.75	3.50	3.50	4	1	3.50	3.25000	3.00	0	3.50000
258	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.25	1.75	0	0	1.25	1.00000	1.00	0	1.50000
259	2.25	3.00	3.00	3.25	3.00	4	0	3.25	0.00000	3.25	0	3.00000
260	2.75	3.50	3.25	2.25	2.25	2	0	2.25	1.00000	1.25	0	2.50000
261	1.50	2.25	3.00	2.50	1.50	1	0	2.00	0.50000	2.00	0	0.00000
262	1.50	2.25	3.00	2.50	1.50	1	0	1.75	0.50000	2.00	0	0.50000
263	1.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	3.25	1	1	3.25	2.25000	2.50	0	2.50000
264	2.25	3.25	2.75	2.25	2.25	1	0	0.00	1.50000	0.00	0	2.25000
265	2.00	3.00	2.50	2.50	2.00	1	0	2.00	3.00000	3.00	0	2.50000
266	1.50	0.25	0.75	0.25	0.75	0	0	0.75	0.00000	1.00	0	0.25000
267	1.50	1.00	0.50	0.50	0.75	0	0	1.50	0.50000	0.50	0	1.50000
268	0.00	2.25	3.00	3.50	2.25	2	0	2.25	3.50000	3.25	0	0.00000
269	2.50	2.25	3.00	2.00	2.50	1	0	3.00	0.00000	2.25	0	0.50000
270	3.25	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	5	0	3.00	0.00000	3.00	0	0.00000
271	2.25	2.50	2.25	2.50	3.00	1	0	2.25	2.25000	3.25	0	1.75000
272	1.00	2.00	1.00	2.00	2.25	0	1	3.00	3.00000	2.75	0	0.75000
273	2.75	2.25	2.00	3.00	2.25	1	0	1.75	2.25000	2.25	0	0.75000

Obs	Attributes	Behaviour	Motivation	Stimulation	Consideration	Transf	transact	Reward	MBE Passive	MBE Active	Laissez	Liaissez-Faire
274	0.75	2.25	3.00	2.50	3.00	2	0	2.50	2.00000	2.25	0	2.00000
275	4.00	4.00	3.75	3.75	4.00	5	0	3.75	0.00000	0.75	0	0.00000
276	2.00	1.50	2.25	1.25	2.25	0	0	1.50	2.25000	1.50	0	1.50000
277	2.75	3.00	3.00	3.25	3.00	4	0	3.00	0.75000	2.50	0	0.00000
278	2.00	1.00	4.00	1.75	3.00	2	0	1.00	2.00000	2.00	0	1.00000
279	2.75	2.75	3.50	3.00	3.50	3	0	2.25	1.50000	3.25	0	1.50000
280	3.25	2.75	2.25	2.75	2.25	1	0	2.50	1.75000	1.75	0	1.00000
281	2.75	3.00	3.50	3.50	3.00	4	0	2.75	1.50000	2.75	0	0.50000
282	3.00	2.75	2.75	3.00	3.25	3	0	3.25	0.75000	3.00	0	0.00000
283	3.50	3.25	3.75	3.75	3.50	5	0	3.50	0.00000	3.00	0	0.00000
284	2.25	3.25	3.25	2.25	2.25	2	0	2.00	1.25000	2.75	0	1.50000
285	2.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.50	4	1	3.25	3.00000	3.00	0	0.00000
286	3.00	2.50	2.75	1.75	2.25	1	0	2.25	0.00000	3.00	0	0.50000
287	3.25	2.75	3.50	4.00	3.50	4	1	3.25	3.50000	3.25	0	1.00000
288	3.50	3.00	3.75	3.75	3.50	5	0	3.25	1.75000	4.00	0	0.25000
289	4.00	3.25	3.75	4.00	3.75	5	0	3.25	1.75000	4.00	0	0.50000
290	3.50	3.00	3.50	4.00	3.50	5	0	3.25	0.00000	4.00	0	0.00000
291	2.25	2.75	3.25	3.00	2.50	2	0	1.50	1.50000	2.75	0	0.75000
292	2.00	2.50	3.00	2.25	2.50	1	0	1.75	2.50000	2.50	0	1.75000
293	2.75	2.25	2.00	2.25	2.00	0	0	3.00	2.75000	1.00	0	2.50000
294	2.50	2.50	2.00	2.25	2.00	0	0	2.75	3.00000	1.50	0	1.00000

Appendix E

Classification of dominance ('non-dominant'; 'dominant') according to the norms of Bass & Avolio for the scores of the components of the three leadership styles per college for the teachers; deans; students

Tables E1-E2: All staff, excluding deans and deans

	Hossana 47		Aman 25		ArbaMinh43		Dilla 30		Sawla 30		Butajira 22		AletaWond6		Jinka 29		Halaba 24		Daye 28	
Variable	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%
All, excluding deans																				
Tot N=284	Hossana 47		Aman 25		Arba Minch 43		Dilla 30		Sawla 30		Butajira 22		AletaWondo 6		Jinka 29		Halaba 24		Daye 28	
Transf, 0-2	29	61.70	15	60.00	24	55.81	22	73.33	13	43.33	10	45.45	1	16.67	25	86.21	14	58.33	13	46.43
Trans, 3-5	18	38.30	10	40.00	19	44.19	8	26.67	17	56.67	12	54.55	5	83.33	4	13.79	10	41.67	15	53.57
Transc, 0	35	74.47	19	76.00	35	81.40	23	76.67	15	50.00	14	63.64	4	66.67	26	89.66	18	75.00	20	71.43
transcl	12	25.53	6	24.00	8	18.60	7	23.33	15	50.00	8	36.36	2	33.33	3	10.34	6	25.00	8	28.57
Laissez, 0	46	97.87	25	100.00	43	100.00	30	100.00	30	100.00	22	100.00	6	100.00	29	100.00	24	100.00	28	100.00
Laissez, 1	1	2.13	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Deans																				
Tot N = 10	Hossana 1		Aman 1		Arba Minch 1		Dilla 1		Sawla 1		Butajira 1		AletaWondo 1		Jinka 1		Halaba 1		Daye 1	
Transf, 0-2	1	100.0	1	100.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	100.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	100.00
Trans, 3-5	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	0	0.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	0	0.00
Transc, 0	1	100.0	1	100.00	1	100.00	0	0.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	0	0.00
transcl	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	100.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	100.00
Laissez, 0	1	100.0	1	100.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	1	100.00	1	100.00
Laissez, 1	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00

Table E3 and E4: Teachers and students

Variable	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%	f _i	%
Teachers																				
Tot N =219	Hossana 40		Aman 20		Arba Minch 36		Dilla 23		Sawla 24		Butajira 15		AletaWondo 0		Jinka 22		Halaba 17		Daye 22	
Transf, 0-2	22	55.00	11	55.00	22	61.11	15	65.22	8	33.33	6	40.00			21	95.45	8	47.06	11	50.00
Trans, 3-5	18	45.00	9	45.00	14	38.89	8	34.78	16	66.67	9	60.00			1	4.55	9	52.94	11	50.00
Transc, 0	28	70.00	15	75.00	30	83.33	17	73.91	12	50.00	7	46.67			19	86.36	12	70.59	15	68.18
transc1	12	30.00	5	25.00	6	16.67	6	26.09	12	50.00	8	53.33			3	13.64	5	29.41	7	31.82
Laissez, 0	39	97.50	20	100.00	36	100.00	23	100.00	24	100.00	15	100.0			22	100.00	17	100.00	22	100.00
Laissez, 1	1	2.50	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00			0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Students																				
Tot N =65	Hossana 7		Aman 5		Arba Minch 7		Dilla 7		Sawla 6		Butajira 7		AletaWondo 6		Jinka 7		Halaba 7		Daye 6	
Transf, 0-2	7	100.0	4	80.00	2	28.57	7	100.00	5	83.33	4	57.14	1	16.67	4	57.14	6	85.71	2	33.33
Trans, 3-5	0	0.00	1	20.00	5	71.43	0	0.00	1	16.67	3	42.86	5	83.33	3	42.86	1	14.29	4	66.67
Transc, 0	7	100.0	4	80.00	5	71.43	6	85.71	5	83.33	7	100.00	4	66.67	7	100.00	6	85.71	5	83.33
transc1	0	0.00	1	20.00	2	28.57	1	14.29	1	16.67	0	0.00	2	33.33	0	0.00	1	14.29	1	16.67
Laissez, 0	7	100.0	5	100.00	7	100.00	7	100.00	6	100.00	7	100.00	6	100.00	7	100.00	7	100.00	6	100.00
Laissez, 1	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00

Appendix F

Composite tables of frequency response patterns to the subsets of questions that probe the three outcome-of-leadership measures (satisfaction, extra effort, effectiveness) for deans, students, teachers

DEANS:

Table F1: extra effort				
itemef	Frequency of occurrence rating			Total
	seldom	often	very often/always	
Frequency Row Pct				
Motivate do more than expected	1 10.00	5 50.00	4 40.00	10
Motivate other to succeed	0 0.00	7 70.00	3 30.00	10
Motivate willingness, try harder	1 10.00	8 80.00	1 10.00	10
Total	2	20	8	30
3.45 = 0.49				

Table F2: deans perceived effectiveness				
itemeff	Frequency of occurrence rating			Total
	very seldom	seldom	often	
Frequency Row Pct				
Meet others' job-related needs	6 60.00	3 30.00	1 10.00	10
Represent others higher authority	4 40.00	3 30.00	3 30.00	10
Effective in leading group	4 40.00	5 50.00	1 10.00	10
Meet organizational requirements	2 22.22	6 66.67	1 11.11	9
Total	16	17	6	39
8.59 = 0.47				

Table F3: job satisfaction					
itemsat	Frequency of occurrence rating				Total
	never	very seldom	seldom	often	
Frequency Row Pct					
Use satisfactory leadership methods	0 0.00	4 40.00	4 40.00	2 20.00	10
Motivate, willingness try harder	1 10.00	2 20.00	5 50.00	2 20.00	10
Total	1	6	9	4	20
1.78 0.61					

Teachers

Table F3: extra effort						
itemef	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	seldom	often	very often/always	
Motivate do more than expected	30 13.70	20 9.13	45 20.55	79 36.07	45 20.55	219
Motivate other to succeed	27 12.33	21 9.59	50 22.83	70 31.96	51 23.29	219
Motivate willingness, try harder	23 10.50	20 9.13	32 14.61	79 36.07	65 29.68	219
Total	80	61	127	228	161	657
9.67 = 0.28						

Table F5: deans effectiveness						
itemeff	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	some- times	fairly often	always	
Meet others job-related needs	20 9.13	29 13.24	44 20.09	69 31.51	57 26.03	219
Represent others higher authority	21 9.59	25 11.42	36 16.44	79 36.07	58 26.48	219
Effective in leading group	17 7.76	23 10.50	37 16.89	76 34.70	66 30.14	219
Meet organizational requirements	12 5.48	15 6.85	32 14.61	85 38.81	75 34.25	219
Total	70	92	149	309	256	876
14.33 = 0.28						

Table F6: teachers' job satisfaction						
itemsat	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	some- times	fairly often	always	
Use satisfactory leadership methods	15 6.85	28 12.79	36 16.44	83 37.90	57 26.03	219
Motivate, willingness try harder	23 10.55	23 10.55	36 16.51	82 37.61	54 24.77	218
Total	38	51	72	165	111	437
Frequency Missing = 1 2.26 = 0.69						

Students

Table F7: extra effort						
itemef	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	seldom	often	very often/always	
Motivate do more than expected	15 23.08	9 13.85	11 16.92	23 35.38	7 10.77	65
Motivate other to succeed	6 9.23	9 13.85	13 20.00	23 35.38	14 21.54	65
Motivate willingness, try harder	3 4.62	9 13.85	5 7.69	34 52.31	14 21.54	65
Total	24	27	29	80	35	195
19.17 = -.01**						

Table F8: deans' perceived effectiveness						
itemeff	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	some- times	fairly often	always	
Meet others job-related needs	5 7.69	10 15.38	10 15.38	31 47.69	9 13.85	65
Represent others higher authority	3 4.62	16 24.62	5 7.69	32 49.23	9 13.85	65
Effective in leading group	2 3.08	5 7.69	11 16.92	38 58.46	9 13.85	65
Meet organizational requirements	2 3.08	8 12.31	7 10.77	39 60.00	9 13.85	65
Total 12.833 = 0.38	12	39	33	140	36	260

Table F9: teachers' job satisfaction						
itemsat	Frequency of occurrence rating					Total
Frequency Row Pct	never	very seldom	some- times	fairly often	always	
Use satisfactory leadership methods	3 4.62	5 7.69	11 16.92	40 61.54	6 9.23	65
Motivate, willingness try harder	2 3.08	4 6.15	10 15.38	36 55.38	13 20.00	65
Total 3.15 = 0.53	5	9	21	76	19	130

Appendix G

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<p>Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Instrument (Leader and Rater Form) and Scoring Guide (Form 5X-Short) English and French versions</p>

by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass

Published by Mind Garden, Inc.

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www.mindgarden.com

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To whom it may concern,

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Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Robert Most", written over a horizontal line.

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
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Appendix H

English version of the questionnaire for deans, teachers and students

QUESTIONNAIRE FILLED BY DEANS

Dear Respondents,

The aim of this questionnaire is to rate your own leadership style for the purpose of doctoral study entitled as **“Evaluating the Perceived Effectiveness of The Leadership Styles of Deans in Ethiopian Governmental Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Colleges”**. Participation in the study is voluntarily and I welcome your input. Confidentiality and anonymity are guaranteed. The findings of the study will be used for research purposes only.

Thank you for your cooperation!!

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Please give us your frank and honest opinion.
2. Please complete the section on personal biographical information before completing the behavior rating section
3. Statements listed are to describe your leadership style as perceived by you. You are requested to rate your perception of how frequently you display the listed behaviour.
4. A legend to the frequency rating scale indicates the perception options.
5. Please select only one option per listed statement by placing an X in one of the boxes.
6. You are going to evaluate your own leadership style.

Section A: Demographic Data of TVET Deans											
Direction I: Please put a tick mark besides the response that most closely relates to you and your TVET operation.											
Serial no										Official Use <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 4	
1	Your gender:									<input type="checkbox"/> 5	
	1. male	2. female									
2	Your age:									<input type="checkbox"/> 6	
	1. 15-20	2. 21-25	3. 26-30	4. 31-35	5. 36-40	6. 40+					
3	Years of experience as a dean in the current position									<input type="checkbox"/> 7	
	1. one year	2. 2-5 years	3. 6-10 years	4. 11-15 years	5. > 15 years						
4	Please indicate your highest level of education										<input type="checkbox"/> 8
	1. Level I graduate in TVET	2. Level II graduate in TVET	3. Level III graduate in TVET	4. Level IV graduate in TVET	5. Level V graduate in TVET	6. B.Sc in TVET	7. B.A in (Voc.Mgt)	8. BA (Educ. Plan & Manage)	9. MA (Educ. Plan & Mgt)	10. Others	
5	Total years of experience in the field of education (in teaching and others)									<input type="checkbox"/> 9	
	1. <1 Year	2. 1-5 years	3. 6-10 years	4. 11-15 years	5. > 15 years						

Section B: Leadership Attributes: in the tables below, list of descriptive statements are given.

Please judge how frequently each of the items fits your leadership style as you perceive it.

N.B: 1. The word ‘others’ in the items may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

2. If you think that an item is irrelevant or has no concrete answer, you can leave it blank.

3. Numbers from 0-4 representing forwarded ideas are put on the column below; forward your idea on the bases of this. Example, ” 0” means never.

Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always			
0	1	2	3	4			
I			0	1	2	3	4
1	instill pride in others for being associated with me.						
2	go beyond self-interest for the good of the group						
3	act in ways that build others' respect for me						
4	display a sense of power and confidence.						
5	talk about my most important values and beliefs						
6	specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.						
7	consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.						
8	emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.						
9	talk optimistically about the future.						
10	talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.						
11	articulate a compelling vision of the future.						
12	express confidence that goals will be achieved.						
13	re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.						
14	seek different perspectives when solving problems.						
15	get others to look at problems from many different angles.						
16	suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.						
17	spend time teaching and coaching.						
18	treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group.						
19	consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.						

20	help others to develop their strengths.					
21	provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.					
22	discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.					
23	make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.					
24	express satisfaction when others meet expectations					
25	focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.					
26	concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures.					
27	keep track of all mistakes.					
28	direct my attention toward failures to meet standards.					
29	fail to interfere until problems become serious.					
30	wait for things to go wrong before I take action.					
31	show that I am a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."					
32	demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action.					
33	avoid getting involved when important issues arise.					
34	am absent when needed.					
35	avoid making decisions.					
36	delay responding to urgent questions.					

Section C: Outcomes of Leadership: Please judge how frequently each of the items fits your leadership style results as you perceive it. You are requested to rate your perception according to the frequency legend supplied below.

Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

I.....		0	1	2	3	4
37	get others to do more than they are expected to do.					
38	heighten others' desire to succeed.					
39	increase others' willingness to try harder.					
40	am effective in meeting others' job-related needs.					
41	am effective in representing others to higher authority					
42	am effective in meeting organizational requirements					
43	lead a group that is effective					
44	use methods of leadership that are satisfying					
45	increase others' willingness to try harder					

SECTION D: This section has open-ended questions. Please respond as accurately and completely as possible.

1. How does the culture of the organization influence your leadership style in terms of opportunities and constraints?

2. How does the full range leadership model fit with your own beliefs about what constitutes effective leadership in your organizational role and situation?

3. Are there any particular scenarios that impede you to exercise the preferred / required optimal leadership style?

4. Could you explain how the leadership style that you have adopted in your college leads to academic excellence?

5. What are your key leadership challenges?

QUESTIONNAIRE FILLED BY TEACHERS

Dear Respondents,

The aim of this questionnaire is to rate your dean leadership style for the purpose of a doctoral study entitled as **“Evaluating the Perceived Effectiveness of The Leadership Styles of Deans in Ethiopian Governmental Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Colleges”**. Participation in the study is voluntarily and I welcome your input. Confidentiality and anonymity are guaranteed. The findings of the study will be used for research purpose only.

Thank you for your cooperation!!

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Please give us your frank and honest opinion.
2. Please complete the section on personal biographical information before completing the behavior rating section.
3. Statements listed below describe “the leadership style employed by the college dean”. You are requested to rate your perception of how frequently your dean displays the listed behavior.
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Section B: Leadership Attributes: in the tables below, lists of descriptive statements are given.

Please judge how frequently each of the items fits your deans' leadership style as you perceive it.

N.B: 1. The word 'others' in the items may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

2. If you think that an item is irrelevant or has no concrete answer, you can leave it blank.

3. Numbers from 0-4 representing forwarded ideas are put on the column below; forward your idea on the bases of this. Example: "0" means never.

Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always				
0	1	2	3	4				
My dean				0	1	2	3	4
1	instills pride in others for being associated with him/her.							
2	goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.							
3	acts in ways that build others' respect for him/her.							
4	displays a sense of power and confidence.							
5	talks about his/her most important values and beliefs.							
6	specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.							
7	considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.							
8	emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.							
9	talks optimistically about the future.							
10	talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.							
11	articulates a compelling vision of the future.							
12	expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.							
13	re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.							
14	seeks different perspectives when solving problems.							
15	gets others to look at problems from many different angles.							
16	suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.							
17	spends time teaching and coaching.							
18	treats others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group.							
19	considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.							

20	helps others to develop their strengths.					
21	provides others with assistance in exchange for their efforts .					
22	discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.					
23	makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved					
24	expresses satisfaction when others meet expectations					
25	focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.					
26	concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures.					
27	keeps track of all mistakes.					
28	directs his/her attention toward failures to meet standards.					
29	fails to interfere until problems become serious.					
30	waits for things to go wrong before taking action.					
31	shows that he/she is a firm believer in “If it ain’t broke, don’t fix it.”					
32	demonstrates that problems must become chronic before he/she takes action.					
33	avoids getting involved when important issues arise					
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35	avoids making decisions.					
36	delays responding to urgent questions					

Section C: Outcomes of Leadership: please judge how frequently each of the items fits your deans’ leadership style result as you perceive it. You are requested to rate your perception according to the frequency legend supplied below.

Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
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The person I am rating.....		0	1	2	3	4
37	gets others to do more than they are expected to do.					
38	heightens others' desire to succeed.					
39	increases others' willingness to try harder.					
40	is effective in meeting others' job-related needs.					
41	is effective in representing others to higher authority.					
42	is effective in meeting organizational requirements.					
43	leads a group that is effective.					
44	uses methods of leadership that are satisfying.					
45	increases others' willingness to try harder.					

SECTION D: This section has open-ended questions. Please respond as accurately and completely as possible.

1. How would you describe the leadership style of your college?

2. In your opinion, what are the factors that affect the style of leadership in your college context?

3. Why do you think that this is the best kind of leadership style that should be used?

4. How does the dean's leadership impact the effectiveness of the college?

5. What leadership challenges does your college face?

QUESTIONNAIRE FILLED BY STUDENT COUNCIL MEMBERS

Dear Students,

The aim of this questionnaire is to rate your dean's leadership style for the purpose of a doctoral study entitled as **“Evaluating the Perceived Effectiveness of The Leadership Styles of Deans in Ethiopian Governmental Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Colleges”**. Participation in the study is voluntarily and I welcome your input. Confidentiality and anonymity are guaranteed. The findings of the study will be used for research purpose only.

Thank you for your cooperation!!

INSTRUCTIONS:

7. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Please give us your frank and honest opinion.
8. Please complete the section on personal biographical information before completing the behaviour rating section.
9. Statements listed below describe ‘the leadership style employed by the college dean’. You are requested to rate your perception of how frequently your dean displays the listed behaviour.
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SECTION D: This section has open-ended questions. Please respond as accurately and completely as possible.

1. Does the college administration involve student councils in management of academic and non-academic affairs in this college?

2. In your opinion, do you think the type of leadership style employed by the dean of your college influences performance in this college? If so, how does this leadership style influence the effectiveness of the college?

3. With your experience and observation, what methods of leadership does your college dean use?

4. Are college deans who exert authority over academic staff and students effective in ensuring academic standards?

5. In your opinion, do you think that the most appropriate leadership style depends on a particular environment context?

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Appendix K

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Appendix L
TVET College Deans interview guide questions

Dean Name

_____.

Name of College (Confidential)

_____.

How long have you been in this position as a college dean? ___ Month(s) ___ Year(s).

1. How would you describe your leadership style?
2. How important do you think your leadership style is in achieving the:
 - a. vision of your college?
 - b. mission of your college?
3. As a dean of a TVET College, what specific challenges do you face regarding achieving the vision and mission of your college?
4. How do you believe:
 - a. teachers perceive you as a leader in this college?
 - b. students perceive you as a leader in this college?
5. Do you express your satisfaction to:
 - a. teachers when they meet your expectations? If so, in what way?
 - b. students when they meet your expectations? If so, in what way?
6. Do you generally believe that “if it ain’t broke, don’t fix it”?
7. Do you focus your attention on teachers failing to meet the standards you have been set for them, especially when someone is not doing his or her job?
8. Do you keep track of mistakes? If so, for what purposes (Is it to catch people doing something wrong or developing people)?
9. Do you feel that you avoid getting involved when important issues arise?
10. Do you emphasize the importance of having a collective mission in your college?
11. Do you speak enthusiastically with:
 - a. teachers about raising student achievement on the world of work?
 - b. students about raising their achievement on the world of work?
12. Do you instill pride in:
 - a. teachers for working with you to raise students’ creativity and innovation?
 - b. students for working with you to raise their creativity and innovation?
13. Do you spend time coaching:
 - a. teachers regarding ways to improve student scores?
 - b. students regarding ways to improve their scores?
14. Do you believe that you get teachers to do more than they are expected to do regarding preparing students for the world of work?
15. Do you believe that you are effective in meeting college and Bureau requirements? If so, why? Give reasons and explain.
16. Do you believe that your leadership styles satisfy your:
 - a. teachers? and
 - b. students? If so, why? Give reasons and explain.

Appendix M
TVET Bureau official interview guide questions

TVET Official Name (Confidential) _____.

Designated Bureau/office name _____.

How long have you been in this position as a TVET Bureau head/expert? ___ **Month(s)** ___
Year(s).

1. What is your philosophy towards leadership?
2. What is your attitude towards leadership?
3. What are the most important criteria, in your opinion, to appoint/assign for the position of deanship?
4. How would you describe the leadership style of TVET deans?
5. What are the key aspects that deans should be able to do in order to be effective leaders?
6. How do you perceive TVET deans' leadership style effectiveness?
7. How would you describe the commitment and competence of the TVET deans?
8. How can you describe the working culture of our society compatible with transformational leadership?
9. Do you believe the Bureau facilitates the necessary resources for the TVET deans in order to accomplish the objective of the organizations?
10. What type of TVET graduates would you expect for the middle level manpower for the country? Explain/Motivate your answer.
11. Do you believe that your Region (SNNPR) TVET deans' leadership style practice has attained the intended objective of the country? Explain/Motivate your answer.

Appendix N
Informed Consent Request Form

Dear Sir/Madam

I am Mesfin Molla Demissie, a lecturer in education at a public university of Ethiopia, currently working towards the degree of ‘Doctor of Education’ at UNISA, South Africa.

I’ll greatly appreciate if you could co-operate in developing understanding of this topic by contributing to it as a research participant. I assure you that all responses will be kept confidential and anonymous, and will be used for academic purposes only. On your demand I can share the findings of this study with you.

The **topic** of my study is:

Evaluating the perceived effectiveness of leadership styles of deans in Ethiopian Governmental Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Colleges.

If you have any query please contact me at: 45434328@mylife.unisa.ac.za ; or +251926302630

I thank you for your contribution and valuable time.

With Regards
Mesfin Molla Demissie

Appendix O

Permission letter to do research


SNNPR TVET Bureau

Ref No: 19/09-248/h/35
Date: 24/03/05

Hear Mesfin Yolla Denteste

Topic: Permission to a research

We acknowledge receipt of your request to conduct a research in SNNPR (Ethiopia) TVET Colleges that will provide information about the perceived effectiveness of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles practiced by TVET deans.

You have been granted permission to a research your research entitled: **Evaluating the perceived effectiveness of leadership styles of deans in SNNPR governmental TVET Colleges.**

You are however reminded that since you will be collecting data from the deans, teachers, students and TVET officials; you are requested not to inconvenience all of the respondents particularly the students as much as possible.

You are also reminded that the findings of your research should be used in general in Ethiopia and particularly in SNNPR; and for the requirements in fulfill the award of Ph.D at University of South Africa (UNISA), Pretoria, South Africa.

Thank You


Dr. Mesfin Yolla Denteste
Deputy Director General
SNNPR TVET Bureau
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia
E-mail: mesfin.yolla@snpr.gov.et
Phone: +251 11 551 2000
Mobile: +251 91 111 1111



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Quality Education & Training For All

Appendix P

Ethical Clearance Certificate



Research Ethics Clearance Certificate

This is to certify that the application for ethical clearance submitted by

Demissie MM [45434328]

for a D Ed study entitled

**Evaluation of the perceived effectiveness of leadership styles of
deans in SNNPR (Ethiopia) governmental TVET colleges**

has met the ethical requirements as specified by the University of South Africa
College of Education Research Ethics Committee. This certificate is valid for two
years from the date of issue.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "CS le Roux". The signature is stylized and cursive.

Prof CS le Roux
CEDU REC (Chairperson)
lrouxcs@unisa.ac.za

1 August 2013

Reference number: 2013 Aug/45434328/CSLR