

Sheffield Hallam University

Perceived leadership styles of faculty deans in Libyan public universities.

NASR, Massoud S. A.

Available from the Sheffield Hallam University Research Archive (SHURA) at:

<http://shura.shu.ac.uk/20110/>

A Sheffield Hallam University thesis

This thesis is protected by copyright which belongs to the author.

The content must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the author.

When referring to this work, full bibliographic details including the author, title, awarding institution and date of the thesis must be given.

Please visit <http://shura.shu.ac.uk/20110/> and <http://shura.shu.ac.uk/information.html> for further details about copyright and re-use permissions.

102 019 768 4



Sheffield Hallam University
Learning and Information Services
Assets Centre, City Campus
Sheffield S1 1WB

REFERENCE

ProQuest Number: 10697417

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



ProQuest 10697417

Published by ProQuest LLC (2017). Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author.

All rights reserved.

This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code
Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC.
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 – 1346

**Perceived Leadership Styles of Faculty Deans in Libyan Public
Universities**

Massoud Salem Ali Nasr

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the
Sheffield Hallam University
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

August 2013

CONFERENCES PRESENTATIONS

- ♦ NASR M (2012). Perceived Leadership Styles of Faculty Deans in Libyan Public Universities. Sheffield Doctoral Conference, Sheffield Hallam University, 23rd May 2012.
- ♦ NASR M (2011). Perceived Leadership Styles of Faculty Deans in Libyan Public Universities. Sheffield Doctoral Conference, University of Sheffield, 20th April 2011.

ABSTRACT

This research develops a process for understanding faculty leadership in the Libyan contexts, the Libyan Collective Leadership process (LCL). This process makes substantial contributions to knowledge especially as regards: a) deeper understanding of situated leadership styles and performances of faculty leaders; b) the knowledge that faculty deans enact a family-oriented leadership through mainly transformational and transactional leadership styles, and exhibit characteristics of related leadership styles such as distributed, democratic and collaborative leadership.

This research uses semi-structured interview of faculty deans in addition to Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)-based surveys of faculty staff regarding the leadership practices and performances of the deans, to explore the perceived leadership styles of faculty deans in selected Libyan universities. The field study consists of 20 deans/faculties in 3 universities. The research methodology is mainly qualitative and is based on the interpretivist paradigm, since the research aims to elicit the subjective opinions and understandings of faculty deans and staff regarding the leadership styles and performances of the deans.

The data analyses consist of two main approaches: a) a qualitative analysis of the deans' responses to the interview questions, using NVIVO software to implement a General Inductive Approach for analysing qualitative data; and b) use of arithmetic mean scores of faculty staff Likert ratings of the deans' leadership characteristics to analyse the MLQ responses from the faculty staff, using SPSS software.

These findings have important implications for leadership theory, practice and development in Libya and similar Arab countries, which are explained in detail in the thesis. Importantly, the findings show that the LCL process links the leadership practices of deans with the specific influences which the Libyan context imposes on the leadership dynamic in the universities, such as the Islamic religion, the collectivist culture of the country, the socialist political ideology, and resource constraints in a third-world country.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Firstly and foremost, I would like to sincerely express great appreciation for the One deserving the thanks, on Whose Will everything depends, who helped me to do my best in this thesis – Almighty Allah.

It has been my dream to complete my education and obtain a PhD to satisfy my educational aspirations. Now this dream has come true with help and unlimited support from my Director of studies, Dr. Murray Clark, with grateful thanks for his co-operation who made it possible and encouraged me through my studies to completion of this thesis. I would like also to extend my sincere appreciation to my second supervisor, Professor Liz Doherty for her suggestions and continued support; as well as special thanks to my third supervisor, Professor John McAuley for his suggestions and support.

I would like also to take the opportunity to extend my gratitude to the following people for their invaluable help to completing this thesis: - Libyan people and government for their sponsorship my studies in the UK. Also UK's people and government for their welcome and for giving me student Visa to study PhD. Also to the staff at Sheffield Hallam University, administrators, libraries staff, IT services, Sheffield public Library for their services. A special thanks to the participants to my field studies who agreed to be interviewed and allowed me to get any data I need.

I would like to express my great thankful and appreciation to my dear parents, and claimed them forgiveness and mercy from God. Also special thanks to my brothers, sisters for their unlimited love, prayer, support and encouragement; as well as my sincere appreciation to my wonderful wife and my children who supported, encouraged, and always praying for me to achieve this important goal in my life. Great thanks to my colleagues in for being open and sharing the ideas.

DEDICATION

This Thesis is dedicated to:-

All humanity around the world

My all wonderful Libyan People

My wonderful late Mother & Father

My wonderful wife

My lovely children

My lovely brothers & Sisters

My all lovely relatives & friends

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	I
CONFERENCES PRESENTATIONS.....	II
ABSTRACT.....	III
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	IV
DEDICATION	V
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	VI
LIST OF TABLES.....	XII
LIST OF FIGURES	XIII
ABBREVIATIONS.....	XIV
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 The Rationale for the Study.....	3
1.3 Research Context	5
1.4 Theoretical Framework	6
1.5 Research Aims	7
1.6 Research Objectives	8
1.7 Research Design and Methodology.....	8
1.8 Significance of the Study	9
1.9 Contribution to Knowledge	10
1.10 Structure of the Thesis	11
CHAPTER 2: LIBYA - BACKGROUND	13
2.1 Introduction	13
2.2 Location and Population	14
2.3 Religion	15
2.3.2 Comparative leadership perspectives in Islamic versus Western contexts	18
2.4 Economy	19
2.5 Libyan Political System.....	20
2.5.1 Stage one (1951-1969): - The monarchy regime	21
2.5.2 Stage two (1969-2011): (The regime of Jamahiriya).....	21
2.5.2.1 Popular Congresses and People's Committees	24
2.5.2.2 Further critique of the influence of direct democracy ideas on (higher education) leadership.....	27

2.5.2.3	Libyan socio-political ideology	31
2.5.3	Stage three: (After 2011) new political system	32
2.6	Education in Libya	33
2.6.1	Programs and Degrees.....	35
2.6.2	Public Universities in Libya	37
2.7	The organizational structure of universities and institutions of higher education in Jamahiria's regime	38
2.7.1	Top Academic Leadership structure in Libyan Universities	39
2.7.1.1	The People's Committee of the University (University Council)	39
2.7.1.2	The People's Committee of the Faculty (Faculty Council)	39
2.8	Libyan National Culture and Higher Education	40
2.9	Collective culture and leadership.....	42
2.10	Conclusion.....	44
CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW ON GENERAL LEADERSHIP THEORIES AND PRACTICES		46
3.1	Introduction	46
3.2	Review of the literature on theories and practices of leadership	47
3.3	Historical overview of leadership	48
3.4	Perceptions and definitions of leadership	49
3.5	Leadership approaches	54
3.5.1	Great Man Theory	54
3.5.2	The Trait Approach	55
3.5.3	Situational Approach	57
3.5.4	The Behavioural Approach	59
3.5.5	Path-Goal Theory.....	60
3.5.6	Power-Influence Approach.....	61
3.6	Leadership styles	62
3.6.1	Autocratic leadership style	63
3.6.2	Bureaucratic Leadership Style	63
3.6.3	Democratic leadership style.....	64
3.6.4	Collaborative Leadership Style	64
3.6.5	Distributed Leadership Style	65
3.6.6	Transformational, Transactional and laissez-faire Leadership styles	66
3.7	Leadership and higher education institutions	68
3.8	Conclusion.....	70
CHAPTER 4: CRITICAL PERSPECTIVES ON LEADERSHIP APPLIED TO THE LIBYAN CONTEXT		72
4.1	Analytical frameworks for leadership studies.....	72

4.2	Functions and dimensions of leadership	72
4.3	Analytical frameworks for understanding shared and individual leadership styles	74
4.3.1	Relational leadership styles in an organizational setting	74
4.3.2	Transformational and transactional leadership in an organisational setting	77
4.4	Full-Range Leadership Model using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)	84
4.4.1	Transformational leadership factors	85
4.4.2	Transactional leadership factors	86
4.4.3	Non-leadership, Laissez-faire:	86
4.4.4	The Outcome factor of the model measures three components: satisfaction; extra effort; and effectiveness.	87
4.4.5	The construct validity of all versions of the MLQ:	87
4.5	Academic Deans as Transformational Leaders	88
4.6	Further ideas towards a more context-rich understanding of relational leadership styles	89
4.7	Leadership literature in Islamic perspective	93
4.8	Contextual influences on leadership in Libya	101
4.8.1	Leadership and state requirements in a country run by a leader with a socialist ideology	101
4.8.2	Leadership and resource poverty in a third world country	101
4.8.3	How the concept of shared leadership adds to existing ideas of leadership and how it differs from Western approaches (collective Leadership angle – common versus differentiating attributes)	102
4.8.4	Implications of the above ideas for leadership practice in Libya and other Arab countries	103
4.9	Research Questions	104
4.10	Conclusion.....	105
CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY		107
5.1	Introduction	107
5.2	Mapping research aims, objectives and questions to interview questions and MLQ items	107
5.3	Research approach	109
5.3.1	The philosophy of the approach and positionality of the researcher	109
5.3.2	Further notes on the methodological commitments of the research	112
5.3.3	Rationale for using General Inductive Approach for analyzing qualitative data in this research	113
5.3.4	Criteria for evaluating qualitative research findings (hence findings from this research).....	115
5.4	Interview questions and their links to research questions (RQs).....	116
5.5	Additional linkages between the research questions, interview and MLQ items	118
5.6	Research instruments and strategies	119
5.6.1	Choice of research instruments	119
5.7	Dean’s interview guide.....	120

5.8	Sample selection	121
5.8.1	Selection of universities.....	122
5.8.2	Selection of faculties.....	122
5.8.3	Selection of staff.....	122
5.9	Limitations of the research findings related to the sampling scheme	125
5.10	Detailed description of the data collection process	125
5.10.1	Interview	126
5.10.2	Questionnaire survey of faculty staff using the MLQ.....	127
5.10.2.1	Background notes on the MLQ	127
5.10.2.2	The rationale for using MLQ in this study	128
5.10.3	Pilot study	130
5.11	Detailed description of the data analysis process	132
5.11.1	Main qualitative analysis of deans' interview responses (A general inductive approach for qualitative data analysis, Thomas, 2006)	132
5.11.1.1	Detailed description of interview analysis techniques	133
5.11.1.2	Building Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) Model.....	138
5.11.2	Questionnaires Survey (MLQ).....	140
5.12	Conclusion.....	141
CHAPTER 6: DATA ANALYSIS		142
6.1	Introduction	142
6.2	Part I: Results from Analyses of Deans' Responses (interviews)	143
6.2.1	Respondents' information: educational background and experience	143
6.2.2	Deans' perception of their responsibilities	150
6.2.3	Visions of Deans.....	153
6.2.4	Deans' perception of the importance/role of leadership in universities	156
6.2.5	Motivation strategies of deans	160
6.2.6	Communication strategies of deans.....	163
6.2.7	Leadership styles of deans	166
6.2.8	Leadership constraints of deans.....	171
6.2.8.1	Limited formal training in leadership and management.....	171
6.2.8.2	Lack of Qualified Staff.....	172
6.2.8.3	Lack of infrastructure.....	172
6.2.8.4	Tenure and environmental factors.....	173
6.2.8.5	Socio-cultural constraints.....	174
6.2.9	Deans' perceptions about internal and external influences which affect leadership performance	175
6.2.10	Characteristics of effective leaders.....	176
6.2.11	Success criteria for faculties and universities	177
6.2.12	Deans' views on how to improve leadership effectiveness and performance	178
6.2.13	Summary of Part I.....	178
6.3	Part II: Results from Analyses of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)	179
6.3.1	Interpretation of the MLQ scores.....	179

6.3.2	Detailed analyses of staff opinion of deans' leadership	180
6.3.3	Detailed analyses of MLQ results for sampled Universities	192
6.3.4	Implication of the MLQ Results for Research Objectives and Leadership Development	196
6.4	Conclusion.....	197
CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION OF KEY FINDINGS		199
7.1	Introduction	199
7.2	Meanings of collective leadership in Western and Libyan contexts	202
7.2.1	Collective leadership in traditional leadership literature	202
7.2.2	The meaning of the Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) concept.....	204
7.3	The value of the LCL process to other researchers	208
7.4	Aspects of the LCL process (Figure 7.1).....	210
7.4.1	Key aspects of the LCL model.....	210
7.5	Relationship between LCL and other styles of leadership	211
7.6	Link between LCL, transformational and transactional leadership ideas	212
7.7	Detailed discussion of the different aspects of the LCL process	213
7.7.1	Leadership practices	213
7.7.1.1	Motivation strategies	213
7.7.1.2	Communication strategies.....	216
7.7.1.3	Consideration, creating a family environment and collective decision making	217
7.7.2	Characteristics of leadership.....	219
7.7.2.1	Traits and characteristics of leadership	219
7.7.2.2	Vision.....	221
7.7.2.3	Deans' perceptions of leadership and successful leaders	222
7.8	Contextual Influences on Libyan Collective Leadership.....	223
7.8.1	Governance of University/Faculties	224
7.8.2	Leadership constraints.....	225
7.8.3	The political system.....	226
7.8.3.1	State requirements in a country run by a political system with a socialist ideology	229
7.8.4	Cultural environment	229
7.9	Collectivist culture	230
7.9.1	Islamic culture (Influence of Islam on CL)	231
7.10	Contributions of the study to leadership theory and practice	232
7.11	More critical perspectives on leadership styles and practices.....	235
7.12	Further notes on shared, transformational and transactional leadership concepts for this study	236
7.13	Directions for future work suggested in the literature and further rationales for this study.	240
7.14	Conclusion.....	241

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION	242
8.1 Introduction	242
8.2 Main results from analysis of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)	243
8.3 Significance of the contributions for leadership theory and practice	244
8.3.1 Implications of LCL model for leadership practice in Libya and other Arab countries..	244
8.4 Evaluation of the research findings in light of the research questions, objectives and aims	246
8.4.1 Research Question 1 (RQ1):	246
8.4.2 Research Question 2 (RQ2):	247
8.4.3 Research Question 3 (RQ3):	248
8.4.4 Research Question 4 (RQ 4):	249
8.4.5 Research Question 5 (RQ5):	250
8.5 Evaluating the research findings.....	250
8.5.1 Criteria for evaluating qualitative research findings (hence findings from this research)	251
8.6 Conclusion.....	253
REFERENCES	254
APPENDICES	270
Appendix 1: List of interviewee responders (Deans & Chancellors)	270
Appendix 2: Multifactor-Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)	271
Appendix 2.1 Permission for using (MLQ).....	271
Appendix 2.2 (MLQ) Questionnaire.....	273
Appendix 2.3 (MLQ) Questionnaire (Arabic Version)	277
Appendix 3: The interview guide	282
Appendix 3.1 Interviews Questions.....	282
Appendix 3.2 Interviews Questions (Arabic Version)	284
Appendix 4: Copies of the Authorization letters	286
Appendix 4.1 Sheffield Hallam University Authorization letter	286
Appendix 4.2 Libyan Embassy Authorization letter	287
Appendix 4.3 University (A) Authorization letter	288
Appendix 4.4 University (B) Authorization letter	289
Appendix 4.5 University (C) Authorization letter	290
Appendix 5: Sample interview guide from a dean (anonymised).....	291
Appendix 5.1 Interview record.....	291
Appendix 6: Analysis of the (MLQ) Questionnaire	299
Appendix 6.1 University (A):	299
Appendix 6.2 University (B):	302
Appendix 6.3 University (C):	305
Appendix 6.4 Leadership styles of Faculty Deans	308
Appendix 6.5 The Outcome factors of Deans' leadership styles	310

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Libyan public universities.....	37
Table 4.1: Links among the concepts of community, DL and this study (Adapted from Edwards, 2011, p. 308)	90
Table 4.2: Leadership approaches and Libyan perspectives - rooted in Islam	98
Table 5.1: Sample description.....	124
Table 6.1: Educational background and experiences of Deans.....	144
Table 6.2: Deans' qualifications by country of award.....	149
Table 6.3: Interpretation of the MLQ scores.....	179
Table 6.4: Detailed Analysis Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) scores	182
Table 6.5: Overall performance scores for the Deans.....	190
Table 6.6: MLQ scores for all Deans in all the sampled Universities (A & B & C)	193
Table 6.7: MLQ results for University A.....	195
Table 6.8: MLQ results for University B	195
Table 6.9: MLQ results for University C.....	196

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2-1: Map of Libya.....	14
Figure 4-1: The spectrum of DL leadership variants (adapted from Figure 1 of Currie and Lockett, 2011, p. 288)	74
Figure 5-1: Detailed NVivo coding.....	135
Figure 5-2: Further NVivo coding	136
Figure 5-3: Further NVivo coding	137
Figure 5-4: A Schematic of the Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) Model	138
Figure 5-5: Final NVivo categories.....	139
Figure 6-1: Comparative Bar Charts of Dean’s Scores on Different Leadership Styles	191
Figure 6-2: Dean’s Scores on Different Leadership dimensions – Extra Effort, Effectiveness and Satisfaction.....	194
Figure 7-1: Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) process situated within Libyan socio-cultural contexts	201

ABBREVIATIONS

AI	Analytic Induction
DL	Distributed leadership
EWP	Executive Wilderness Programmes
GIA	General Inductive Approach
GMT	Great Man Theory
GPC	General People's Congress ="Parliament"
HODs	Heads of Departments
LCL	Libyan Collective Leadership
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
RCC	Revolutionary Command Council
RQs	Research Questions
SHU	Sheffield Hallam University
SL	Shared Leadership
UNSD	United Nations Statistical Division

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This research examines the leadership styles of Faculty Deans in Libyan public universities and to examine the understanding of educational leadership in higher education in Libya. Higher academic institutions such as universities are complex organisations with distinctive cultures that require effective management to achieve success. Bass (1985) argued that effective leadership is essential to the growth and development of institutions. He added that in higher education, effective leadership is imperative to success. “Leaders of higher education, such as deans, need to be aware of their role and understand effective leadership to simulate learning and change and how intricately intertwined their own behaviour is with management” (Schein, 1992).

Academic deans, as administrative officers are expected to lead the transformation of their university and are often responsible for sustaining an environment that encourages excellence in teaching, research, program development and active collaboration across the university (Land, 2003). The economic importance of higher education is now well recognised and the contribution that it can make to the development of both national and regional economies is attracting significant policy attention in Libya (Vallougi, 2009). Higher education is considered to have an important impact on the social and cultural environment in Libya (Akkari, 2009). Higher education is seen as being of key importance in the creation and transfer of knowledge to the Libyan economy through its teaching, research and other activities.

Higher education in Libya is provided by universities (both general and specialised) and higher technical and vocational institutions (Vallougi, 2009). The higher education system is financed by and under the authority of the state. Policymakers have in recent years allowed the establishment of private institutions of higher education through what are known as educational co-operatives such as higher institutes which provide certificates of Higher Diploma (Akkari, 2009). Clearly, the extent to which faculty deans are able to succeed in helping their universities to achieve the above goals would depend on how effective their leadership styles are within the wider socio-cultural and policy contexts as exist in Libya. It is, therefore, important to explore the perceived leadership styles of Faculty Deans in Libyan public universities in terms of how they see their leadership styles and how successful the faculty staff members perceive these

leadership styles to be. The resulting knowledge will help the researcher to understand the dynamics of faculty leadership in Libyan public universities, their links to the specific organisational, societal and policy contexts in Libya, and thus provide a basis for examining how university leadership could be enhanced in order to deliver the above benefits more successfully within these contexts.

Universities worldwide are undergoing profound changes through increased growth and competition. They face new challenges as economic changes coupled with developments in science and technology are creating a dynamic environment which impacts on Leadership issues in universities. This is because these change factors determine to some extents the amount of funding available to universities, how up-to-date the available equipment and ICT resources in the universities are for teaching, learning and research. A successful university is one that has an effective leadership, supports innovation, learning, and creativity and utilizes the maximum potential of its resources. Universities ultimately invest in individuals and successful leadership is necessary to motivate, develop and focus on the global trends of converging social, culture, and organizational environments (Land, 2003; Schein, 1992; and Bass, 1985).

This research focuses on Academic Deans in public universities in Libya and explores the leadership styles at academic institutions in order, as mentioned above, to provide the knowledge base upon which successful higher education leadership and development could be pursued within the Libyan socio-cultural and policy contexts. It is noteworthy that whilst an attempt is made in the research to link leadership styles and performance in general, the primary focus of the research is to provide an understanding of higher leadership practices in Libyan universities viewed from the perspective of the perceived leadership styles of faculty deans.

It is expected that further studies would build on this understanding to examine in more detail the issues of leadership performance, which could be conceived of and measured in suitable ways including for example excellence in teaching, research and community service. Hence, this research will provide more insight into what might be effective leadership styles for faculties in Libyan public universities. Furthermore, the research will examine theories of leadership in the context of public universities in Libya and how the theories shape the leadership styles of faculty deans. This way, the research makes a contribution to leadership theory.

This chapter sets the scene for this research and discusses the context, rationale, aims and objectives of the research. Additionally, it introduces the theories and concepts that will guide the conduct of the research. It outlines the research methodology and how data will be collected and analysed and introduces the structure of the thesis.

1.2 The Rationale for the Study

This study focuses on the perception of faculty deans and their leadership styles in Libyan public universities. As a lecturer at one of the Libyan public universities, the researcher has perceived that different deans seem to adopt different leadership practices and there has not been a focused study of the leadership styles and practices involved. Indeed, the majority of lecturers and faculty deans in Libyan universities are trained overseas for their higher degrees, mostly in Western countries, but lead the faculties within a Libyan context. It is, therefore, important to conduct a research such as this which explores how these academic deans enact faculty leadership in this context, and how their leadership styles relate to the policy and resource affordances and constraints imposed on the faculties by the Libyan higher educational and socio-cultural contexts.

This research is the first study known to the author to examine this leadership perspective in a non-Western and Arab country context. Moreover, most studies on leadership styles have been conducted in the developed West (Bryman, 2007; Hodgkinson, 1991; Porter, Lawler & Hackman, 1975) for example. However, it has been argued by Hodgkinson (1991) that some aspects of leadership are universal and practiced across cultures.

This research explores the traditional literature on leadership theories and styles particularly to understand how these aspects of leadership apply to the leadership styles of deans in Libyan public universities. That is, to what extent the leadership styles of university deans could be characterised by traditional leadership concepts such as transformational and transactional leadership, and more importantly in what ways the leadership styles are differently manifested or situated in the Libyan contexts, including socio-cultural, political and higher education policy perspectives. This provides the opportunity to test out the validity of Hodgkinson (1991)'s argument in the Libyan and more generally Arab country context.

In effect, the research makes an important theoretical contribution to leadership theory by way of building an understanding of the process of faculty leadership in Libyan universities which has not been explored before. This theoretical contribution expands on the received theories of leadership in the literature by relating these theories and styles of leadership, where appropriate, to a non-Western and Arab country context, therefore providing the intellectual foundations on which further studies can begin to develop related aspects of higher education leadership in Libya and other Arab countries, for example higher education leadership success (including achievement of key goals of teaching, learning, research and community service), and staff development which is optimal for the said success and coherent with the local context in which the universities are situated.

Additionally, the research contributes to knowledge of leadership in higher education in Libya using university faculties as lenses through which to view university leadership in general. Given the importance of higher education to national development summarised above, the understanding of the nexus among leadership styles, leadership performance and Libyan context, which the research provides for the first time in this way, is practically relevant for effective higher education leadership development in Libya and other Arab countries.

The above point is supported by the fact that there is little emphasis on the training and development of leaders in Faculties in Libya. As at the time of this research, no formal institutions exist to train aspiring deans in leadership and management skills in the Libyan higher education systems. As a result, the researcher considers the research to be fundamental to future higher education leadership development in Libya, which again makes the research practically important for enhancing effective higher education leadership practices in Libyan universities and by extension those of other Arab countries with broadly similar characteristics as Libya.

In conclusion, leadership theories are the focus of this study because of the above reasons, the researcher's own interest in the topics as a student of organization and management, and also because the initial review of the literature for the study suggested that leaders generally play a key role in determining the success or failure of organisations, which could be assumed to be the case in Libyan universities faculties.

The need for more insights into leadership practices in universities in Libya prompted this research on perceived leadership styles of faculty deans at Libyan public universities. The research now happens to be even more relevant as a baseline understanding of higher leadership in Libya which will inform related studies in higher education leadership performance, given possible changes in the Libyan higher education landscape consequent upon the 2012 post- Al-Gaddafi revolution in the political governance of the country.

1.3 Research Context

This research was commenced when Libya was governed by the socialist regime of late Colonel Muammar Al-Gaddafi¹. Hence, the socialist orientation of the government is one of the influences on higher education leadership in Libya, in addition to the Islamic and collectivist culture of the country. During the research there has been a people's revolution which ended the Al-Gaddafi regime in 2011. It is too early to consider the impact of this revolution on Libyan Higher Education and its leadership processes.

However, given that the socialist orientation of the Al-Gaddafi regime which, as discussed in Chapter 2 and later chapters of the thesis uses Peoples' Committees to facilitate peoples' participation in governance, is strongly informed by the strong family feeling fostered by Islam and Libya's collectivist culture, the researcher feels that the findings from the research will be relevant to future higher education leadership developments in Libya.

As explained more fully in Chapter 2 of this thesis, Libya is a developing country located in the North of Africa and has mainly an Islamic culture. Education is free at all levels and forms one of the pillars of national and human capital which provides required human resources for development projects and supports the rights of citizenship. It produces intellectuals who are aware of the issues of their time and society, who work through understanding interaction to achieve the highest return possible through adaptation of their capacity to achieve progress and prosperity for themselves and their community (Libyan General Authority for Documentation and Information).

¹ Colonel Muammar Al-Gaddafi is the Leader of Libya from 1969 to 2011

Education in Libya is free to everyone from elementary school right up to university; post-graduate study is free for distinguished students, at home or abroad. Higher education in Libya is provided by universities (both general and specialised) and higher technical and vocational institutions. The higher education system is financed by and under the authority of the state. Policymakers have in recent years allowed the establishment of private institutions of higher education through what are known as educational co-operatives.

The university sector in Libya dates back to independence in 1951 and the establishment of the “Libyan university” with campuses in Benghazi and Tripoli. Due to the increasing number of students enrolling in higher education since 1981, the university was restructured and the number of universities expanded to 13 in 1995, consisting altogether of 76 specialized faculties and more than 344 specialized scientific departments (El-Hawat, 2003).

Again, as will be explained in Chapter 2 of the thesis, academic leadership structures in Libyan universities consist of the People's Committee of the University and the People's Committee of the Faculty. The main part of the success of universities in Libya depends on the leadership styles of secretaries of the People's Committees of faculties which is the Libyan term for faculty deans. It is therefore important, as argued above, to explore the current leadership styles of the faculty deans and suggest possible ways to enhance the leadership effectiveness and styles.

1.4 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical concepts for this research will focus on leadership styles and how they relate to the success of higher education institutions in Libya. Many researchers have concluded that transformational leadership motivates subordinates to do more than is expected and raises the level of awareness of followers about the importance of achieving valued outcomes (Avolio et al., 1991; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Northouse, 2007), having a strong vision of an organisation's future progress, and the required strategy for achieving the same (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Rickards & Clark, 2006; Northouse, 2004). Hence, an important aspect of this study is to understand to what extent faculty leadership in Libyan public universities is transformational.

The researcher thus aims to include the transformational and transactional leadership models as some of the acceptable and widely used theories of leadership which may be applicable to the Libyan higher education context. The relevance of the transformational leadership approach generally is that together with appropriate use of transactional leadership styles it enables leaders to effect needed change in an organisation especially in situations where a strong vision of future progress is formulated and requires successful mobilisation of the workforce. The challenges of Libyan higher education which strives to excel in core university areas of teaching, research and community service amidst institutional and resource constraints fits this scenario, thus making the exploration of the possible roles of transformational and transactional leadership styles in this context intellectually stimulating.

The research therefore uses transformational and transactional leadership styles in addition to a number of shared leadership styles, including distributive and democratic leadership styles as tools for understanding the perceived leadership styles of faculty deans in Libyan public universities. Some of the concepts associated with these leadership styles and with leadership theory in general, which are therefore examined in the research, are motivation of the faculty workforce, level of awareness, vision and strategy, and leadership effectiveness.

To reiterate earlier remarks, some leadership styles such as transformational leadership style have been noted more suitable for impacting more positively on change-driven educational settings than other leadership behaviours (Glanz, 2007). These leadership styles are combined with insights from existing literature on the various leadership approaches and styles in educational settings in order to have a better understanding of how they relate to the Libya context.

1.5 Research Aims

In light of the rationale for and significance of the study discussed above, the main aims of this research are:

1. To identify the leadership styles of deans in Libyan public universities.
2. To expand the understanding of leadership styles of faculty deans in the Libyan public universities in light of the particular socio-cultural and policy contexts in which the leadership styles are enacted.

1.6 Research Objectives

To achieve research aims, the following research objectives are pursued in this thesis:

1. To review current literature on leadership in general and specifically leadership in education institutions within the context of Libya.
2. To examine leadership style of faculty deans in Libyan public universities.
3. To examine the perceptions and challenges of leadership in Libyan universities through a primary qualitative research study.
4. To explore the leadership role of faculty deans and the characteristics of a good academic institutional leader.

1.7 Research Design and Methodology

A descriptive and interpretative research approach is used in this study. The researcher adopted this approach to shed light on what kind of leadership approach or approaches deans of public universities in Libya are using. The research design is informed by the general literature about leadership principles, approaches, and practices in both Islamic and Western literature.

The research includes interviews with twenty deans and two university chancellors of three public universities in Libya (see Appendix 1 for list of Deans). The rationale behind choosing the sample is that it is a representative sample of universities in Libya. The researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis. The qualitative data was collected through individual, face-to-face, semi structured interviews.

The interviews were conducted in the Arabic language at the offices of the deans. To make the documentation of the data independent of the perspectives of the researcher and the subjects of the study (Flick, 1998), the interviews were digitally recorded. Each interview lasted approximately one hour and consisted of open-ended questions. The development of the questions was based on a review of the literature relative to principles, approaches, traits, roles, and practices of leadership in Islam and the West (see Chapter 4). The research design and methodology is discussed in detail in chapter five.

In summary, as discussed in Chapter 5 of the thesis on Research Methodology, the research is primarily qualitative, interpretative and descriptive. Consequently the research analysis procedure is qualitative and uses a general inductive approach as the main framework for data analysis of interview responses from faculty deans, supported by quantitative analysis of average scores obtained from staff responses to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).

1.8 Significance of the Study

Organisational culture and how it influences leadership practices in different organisational and cultural settings has been examined from different perspectives including sociology and management science (Collins and Porras, 1994). However, based on the initial literature review conducted by the researcher for this study, there is scarcity of research on the relationship between higher education leadership practices and the socio-cultural, higher education policy and political contexts in Libya. This study attempts to examine this relationship. Understanding this relationship will help senior management of universities as well as individual higher education leaders to develop more effective leadership practices that are suitable for those contexts as opposed to Western contexts, say, from which most of the leaders received their higher degrees.

As examined more closely in Chapters 2, 3 and 6 of this thesis, the political systems and the Islamic culture in Libya have profound influence on leadership practices in almost all Libyan institutions. For example educational systems are structured to promote the political ideologies of the Libyan Leader. Higher education in Libya is seen as very important for raising the educational attainment of its citizens. However, the national and political culture has created unique features in Libyan universities. Schneider (1994) notes that organisational culture provides consistency for the organisation and its members and offers leaders a reliable system of leadership; hence, the need for studying how the Libyan socio-cultural including the Islamic religion and collectivist culture of the country situate higher education leadership practices of faculty deans in Libyan universities. Again, the importance of this situated leadership practices is that they will inform efforts to develop effective higher education leadership and thereby enhance leadership performance in Libyan universities.

As noted in the study rationale above, this research examines the relationship between perceived leadership styles and success of faculties and makes an important contribution to understanding leadership outside of the Western context where most research has been conducted to date. This knowledge will hopefully inform future efforts to enhance the effectiveness of higher education leadership styles and performance among faculty deans in general.

In addition, the research will draw more insight into the effective Leadership styles for leading faculties. In other words, by explicating the preferred leadership styles of faculty deans and the relative leadership successes of sampled faculty deans on some selected leadership objectives, the research has the capacity to be a basis for faculty deans to improve their leadership styles and for suitable leadership development training to be put in place in the future in order to enhance higher education leadership performance in Libya and other Arab countries particularly.

1.9 Contribution to Knowledge

This research seeks to contribute to the existing body of knowledge in leadership theory and practices by exploring perceived leadership styles of faculty deans in Libyan public universities as affected by such contexts as the Islamic religion, collectivist culture of Libya, the socialist political ideology of the Al-Gaddafi era, higher education policy, and resource constraints in a developing country.

This research will contribute to understanding of the characteristics of a good leader, the relationship between leadership style, faculty success, the cultural environment in which they operate, and how leadership styles of deans could be affected by this relationship. This knowledge will inform the effective use of leadership styles among faculty deans in other universities and underpin higher education leadership development efforts within the Libyan university system aimed at this objective.

1.10 Structure of the Thesis

This research is organised in eight chapters as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter outlines the rationale, context, aims and objectives for the study, and summarises the expected contribution of the research findings to knowledge.

Chapter 2: Background about Libya

This chapter explains the Libyan context of this research including religion, the Libyan political system and the current education system in Libya as main parts of this research. Moreover, Libyan context is important because Libya is the country where the field study had been done.

Chapter 3: Literature review on general leadership theories and practices

This chapter explores the foundational thinking and practices of leadership including extant and current literature on leadership theories, styles and approaches and how these may be related to higher education leadership practises. The chapter therefore provides the general theoretical framework for the research.

Chapter 4: Literature review of some critical perspectives on leadership

This chapter augments the general literature on leadership with some critical perspectives on leadership such as shared, distributed, transformational and transactional leadership styles, which encompass the analytical concepts of leadership that are relevant to the discussion of the research findings in the thesis.

Chapter 5: Research Methods and Methodology:

Chapter 5 describes the methodology used in the research. The chapter provides a discussion of the philosophical foundations of the research in terms of its epistemological and ontological commitments to the qualitative research paradigm, the sampling approach to selecting study units, the analytic induction procedures and the treatment of data. It also discusses in detail the pre-field work journey, the fieldwork and the process of data collection, reflection and analysis.

Chapter 6: Data Analysis:

Chapter 6 presents the research results and analysis of the data collected and how key themes were derived. The analysis covers and relates both the responses from faculty deans' interview on perceived leadership styles and the supporting responses from their faculty staff on related aspects of the deans' leadership styles and performances. This triangulates the research results and examines other interesting aspects of faculty leadership which contribute to an enriched understanding of higher education leadership in Libya and other Arab countries.

Chapter 7: Discussion of findings:

This chapter pulls the research results in Chapter 6 into a critical discussion that surfaces the character of a leadership process which emerges from all the findings as a unique style of leadership that obtains in Libyan universities. This leadership style is seen in the chapter to actually represent a particular way Libyan faculty deans enact transformational and transactional styles of leadership collectively. It is therefore called Libyan Collective Leadership and is a major contribution of this research to leadership theory in the Libyan and generally Arab countries' contexts. Also, the researcher discusses the key findings of the study in light of the literature review.

Chapter 8: Recommendations and Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher discusses the main results of the research and critically examines to what extent the research objectives and questions are achieved and explored effectively. The researcher therefore discusses the significance of the main results by way of contributions of the thesis to knowledge of (higher education) leadership theory and practices.

CHAPTER 2: LIBYA - BACKGROUND

2.1 Introduction

This chapter develops the Libyan background to this research particularly the Libyan political system and Islamic faith aspects which influence higher education leadership. The chapter discusses in Sections 2.2-2.4 the geographical location, population, religion, and general background about economy of Libya. Section 2.5 explores the Libyan political system while Sections 2.6-2.9 describe the Libyan national culture and higher education system under the regime of Jamahiriya. Section 2.10 concludes the chapter. As mentioned in Chapter 1, it is too early to understand ways in which the post-Al-Gaddafi revolution and change in the political system of Libya will affect the significance of the research findings in this thesis. It is likely that the principal leadership approaches which are related to the Islamic religion and collectivist culture of the country will remain the same. For now, the reader should remember that the socialist political system of Al-Gaddafi provides a broad context for the research, among other influences summarised below.

These background notes are important in the sense that they situate the higher education leadership practices in Libyan universities within a context of possible influences on the practices which contribute to the success or failure of higher education leadership in achieving targeted goals of effective higher education. For example, ideas related to the geographical location and population explain to what extent one can argue that there are pressures on the Libyan university system for admission places; Islamic religious practices inform the values that leaders including university faculty deans bring to leadership of organisations and their workforces, and issues about the economy define the resource availabilities and constraints on leadership of Libyan universities.

Similarly, the Libyan national culture and political systems determine the social relationships between leaders and followers and the nature of expectations which both faculty staff members and those of wider communities in which universities are located bring to bear on faculty deans. Hence, it is important for a better understanding of leadership styles of faculty deans to establish these wider contexts in which the leadership styles are enacted by faculty deans.

2.2 Location and Population



Figure 2-1: Map of Libya

Libya, as one of the developing countries (as explained in Section 2.4 below), occupies a strategic geopolitical location in North Africa with a Mediterranean coastline of close to 2,000 kilometres. Libya has frontiers with six Arabic and African countries; to the north, the country is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea; to the east by Egypt and Sudan; to the south by Niger, Chad and Sudan; and to the west by Algeria and Tunisia (See figure 2.1). In terms of size it occupies nearly 1,759,000 square kilometres, Libya is the fourth-largest country in Africa. It is approximately one-half the size of Europe. However, 90% of the land is either desert or semi-desert (Wallace and Wilkinson, 2004).

According to the United Nations Statistical Division (UNSD), Libyan Population is estimated over the past 50 years with a maximum value of 6,355,000 in (2010) and the minimum value of 1,349,004 in (1960). The value for Population growth (annual %) in Libya was 1.47 as of 2010. Population is based on the de facto definition of population, which counts all residents regardless of legal status or citizenship--except for refugees not permanently settled in the country of asylum, which are generally considered part of the population of the country of origin.

The female population (% of total) in Libya was 49.29 as of 2010. Its highest value over the past 50 years was 49.29 in 2010, while its lowest value was 46.56 in 1980. The population is young - almost 50 % are under 20 years old - and 86% urban, one of the highest urbanization rates in the world. According to the UNDP's 1995 Human Development Report, Libyan's urban population grew on average by 4.2% annually between 1960 and 1992.

A young and growing population such as this will require a very effective (higher) education system to produce skilled graduates who will competently service the Libyan economy. It is not easy to determine within the scope of this study how much pressure there is for admission places in the country based on the above population trend and available university places, but it is clear that effective faculty leadership and management of overall university resources are important foundations for training highly skilled graduates from the Libyan university system, hence this study.

The study will also provide a good foundation for formulating suitable leadership development training that will prepare younger faculty and personnel in other organizations to master leadership skills within the specific contexts which apply to the country. For this purpose, it is expected that an explanatory model of the process of faculty leadership in Libyan universities which this research investigates will clarify the way faculty leadership is shaped by the Libyan context.

2.3 Religion

All Libyan people are Sunni Muslims of the Malikite rite and are fundamentally attached to their Islamic faith. Religion permeates all facets of life. Thus, Libya differs from many other Arab countries that have more than one religion and more than one rite. However, there are more than one million foreigners living in Libya, many of whom belong to different Christian sects and to many Indo-Chinese religions. There are churches and places of worship for the majority of these religious groups (Metz, 1987).

Islam provides both a spiritual guide for individuals and government policy. Its tenets stress a unity of religion and state and even those Muslims who have ceased to believe fully in Islam retain Islamic habits and attitudes. Since the 1969 coup, Muammar Al-Gaddafi²'s regime has explicitly endeavoured to reaffirm Islamic values, enhance

² Muammar Al-Gaddafi is Libya's leader from 1969-2011

appreciation of Islamic culture, elevate the status of Quranic law and, to a considerable degree, emphasize Quranic practice in everyday Libyan life. Al-Gaddafi said in his Third Universal Theory³ "Quran the law of society".

2.3.1 Islamic influences on leadership in Libya

The literature review in this and subsequent chapters show that effective leadership in Islamic schools incorporates Islamic principles. This point has been emphasized in this chapter in the idea that university leadership in general is coherent with the idea of oneness and the family feeling which Islam evokes. Islam means "Peace through submission to God" and Prophet Mohammed is both a vessel of revelation and an example of leadership in accord with the Qur'an. The five pillars of Islam which guide Muslim practices in Libya and other Islamic countries are 'acts of worship with broad implications for the individual and the community.

In simple terms these pillars are: a) the acceptance of God as supreme with Mohamed as the prophet of God; b) praying five times a day; c) almsgiving whereby wealthy Muslims are required to help those who are poor and less fortunate; d) fasting in the month of Ramadan; and e) pilgrimage to the holy city of Meccah. These facts emphasize that Islam is a comprehensive system of life based on Divine guidance for humanity and the development of culture and civilization. Hence, a university dean will be motivated to see consideration in the welfare of workers as stemming from their obligation as better-off individuals to help faculty staff who are less privileged.

The five pillars effectively subordinate individual decision making to the will of God (Allah) such that university deans see their roles as providing opportunities for all workers to grow individually and professionally in their work. This is a sense in which Islamic principles reinforce leadership practices in Libyan universities and in other Libyan institutions. Ali (1998) notes also that Islam views God as having 'endowed man with the capacity of cognition, reflection and understanding, with the ability to distinguish between good and evil, with freedom of choice and volition, and with the power to exercise his latent potentialities to perform his role as a vicegerent'. Perhaps, this is a support for the fact that Islamic leadership allows individual workers to advance suggestions about the best way faculty business will help fulfil their potentials

³ Third Universal Theory is Al Gaddafi's theory in his Green Book "direct democracy", " The Authority of People" of the People's Congresses and People's Committees, which he tried to apply it during his reign from 1969-2011)

and that of the university through Peoples' Committees of the Faculty; see further notes below on the use of People's Committees in Faculty management.

The above points of view are reinforced by the Islamic paradigm of leadership which does not encourage centralization of authority, but advocates the sharing of power particularly through delegation and distribution of responsibilities. Hence, through Peoples' Committees faculty workers share in the decision making that enhances faculty progress as well as their welfare in the university; through delegation the deans allow heads of departments to manage leadership tasks coming from the decisions made according to their skills and roles. To this extent, faculty leadership is democratic, collaborative and distributive as argued in later chapters of the thesis.

The following principles of Islamic Leadership explored in (Beekun & Badawi 1999) further buttress the leadership approach in Libyan institutions. Servant-leader and guardian-leader roles are the two main Islamic concepts of leadership which in the context of this research compel faculty deans to see themselves as servants of the people, faculty and university, and also as guardians of the peoples' welfare, personal and career development, a deeper level of consideration of faculty workers not seen in traditional Western styles of leadership, whatever the leadership styles used.

Other Islamic leadership principles mentioned in Beekun & Badawi (1999) and discussed in some depth in this thesis are as follows: a) communicating leaders' visions in ways that generate commitment; b) creating and maintaining organizational culture; c) maintaining unity and cooperation among followers; d) inviting constructive criticisms from followers (this is facilitated by democratic and collective decision making through Peoples' Committees); and e) having leadership qualities such as conviction, justice and trust.

The leadership ideas in Chowdbury (2001) reiterate the above notions of Islamic leadership at the higher education level similarly to the current research discussed in this thesis. An additional perspective that is worth considering here includes the fact that Islamic and particularly Middle Eastern cultures are perceived as strong and coherent since they are infused with a system of beliefs, values and ideals which are 'well understood and adhered to by all the members' as required Islamic practices in the case of Islamic cultures such as Libya (Chowdbury, 2001). Hence, for this research it seems safe to say that use of Islamic leadership principles is somewhat binding on

faculty deans as it is who they are and what the Islamic faith mandates them to practise, even as they deploy different leadership styles in producing effective leadership by drawing out much fuller cooperation and commitment from staff who also share the same Islamic beliefs.

2.3.2 Comparative leadership perspectives in Islamic versus Western contexts

Whilst most of the traditional leadership concepts examined in this thesis relate to Western culture, some researchers have examined leadership in the Islamic and Arabic contexts and the following points discuss the differences and similarities and how these concepts apply in the different contexts. There is no consensus among researchers on what leadership is. This is because leadership is a complex phenomenon involving the leader, followers, and the situation (Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy, 1999). The concept becomes more complex when examined in religious contexts. Since the research on leadership styles of deans in Libyan public universities is conducted in an Islamic context, this section examines leadership from an Islamic context in order to give insights to the phenomenon from the Islamic perspective.

In Islam, leadership is a process of inspiring and coaching voluntary followers in an effort to fulfil a clear as well as shared vision (Chowdbury, 2002). In Islam, a leader is not free to act as he chooses, nor must he submit to the wishes of any group; he must act only to implement Allah's laws on earth. Allah said in His Qur'an, "And We made them leaders guiding men by Our command and We sent inspiration to do good deeds, to establish regular prayers, and to practice regular charity; and they constantly served Us only" (Qur'an 21:73). "Leadership is a *trust*; it represents a psychological contract between a leader and his followers that the leader will try their best to guide them, to protect them and to treat them justly" (Beekun & Badawi, 1999, p. vii). Hence, the focus of leadership in Islam is doing good deeds for the sake of Allah, the Muslim community, and humankind (Kader, 1973).

Finally, these differences in Islamic and Western perspectives on leadership are further explored in subsequent chapters of this thesis (see for example Chapters 4 and 7) and inform the character of the Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) process discussed in greater detail in Chapter 7 of the thesis.

2.4 Economy

As noted earlier, Libya is a developing country. The terms 'developing' and 'third world' refer mainly to economically underdeveloped countries of Asia, Africa, Oceania, and Latin America, with common characteristics such as poverty, and distorted and highly dependent economies devoted to producing primary products for the developed world and providing markets for their finished goods (Chaliand, 2012). In line with these characteristics, Libya is an oil rich country with an economy that is not industrialised, depends mainly on the oil for its revenues and has significant rural poverty. See further points related to these ideas below.

The development of modern societies in the third world is due to an increase in the scope of government activity. Libya is no exception. Therefore, from its earliest days, the Libyan government made the search for economic resources its major priority. Libya is rich in natural and mineral resources that can be considered the basis for many potential industrial, agricultural and tourism projects. Libya also has a variety of significant natural tourist attractions, including stunning landscapes, virgin beaches, green mountains with natural caves, oases, deserts. Libya's most important natural resources are oil and natural gas reserves. The search for oil began during the early 1950s. A development council was created in 1956 as a consulting agency to suggest ideas for development. Oil was discovered in large quantities and by 1961 the development council was transformed into a planning body ready to implement national policies. The first five-year plan was prepared for the years 1963-1968, followed by a three-year plan and another five years plan (ST John, R B in Vandewalle, 2011).

After September 1, 1969, the Revolutionary command council (RCC), headed by Muammar Al-Gaddafi, began to implement a socioeconomic and political revolution in Libya. In early 1970, the RCC opened negotiations with the oil companies working in Libya, eventually gaining a majority control in all of them through modified participation agreements or outright nationalization and consequently the resultant revenues were increased by the new oil policy, which made the new Government to succeed in introducing major changes related to the quality of the individual life. These included education, health, electricity, housing, communication facilities, mechanization of agriculture, industry and a variety of consumer goods. This also encouraged the RCC to set expanded foreign policy objectives.

The oil sector is considered the backbone of the Libyan economy, and the fundamental fund resource to all development projects operating in all other sectors (ST John, R B in Vandewalle, 2011). Oil export revenues are extremely important to the economic development of the country as they represent 90% of the total revenue (Central Bank of Libya 2008). The Libyan economy is considered as one of the developing oil economies which suffer from the structural imbalances of its economic sectors caused by the nature of economic resources, as it largely relies on oil production and exportation, and largely relies on the public sector to manage the economic activities.

The government revenues come from a single sector and that is oil. Other causes of imbalances are the negative patterns of use of the economic resources, as there is recognized ignorance of productivity and efficiency in the non-oil sector. Also, the inability to diversify the productive base is caused by these imbalances in the Libyan economy whereby the Libyan economy is still controlled by a single sector of oil over the other sectors. This general background on the Libyan economy will be related in later chapters of this thesis to the findings on factors and constraints which influence faculty leadership and success in Libyan universities.

2.5 Libyan Political System

Prior to 1951, Libya was under the colonial influence of Italy (Vandewale, 2006). Libya has undergone three stages of the political system since 1951: stage one (1951-1969) where the system of government was a monarchy; stage two (1969-2011) where the system of government was public (Jamahiriya regime); and stage three (2011 onwards) during which the system of government might be a Parliamentary system.

This research has been done in the second stage which was from (1969-2011) and the data collection of this research was in 2009. Hence, the research will provide findings about faculty leadership in Libyan universities which are directly relevant to the Gaddafi era and which could be revisited in future research according to how the future system of government as well as university administration develops. It is expected, however, that the research findings, being linked to the Islamic leadership principles explained above and to the influence of Libyan national culture explained below, will be relevant also in the third stage of the political system (the post-Gaddafi era).

2.5.1 Stage one (1951-1969): - The monarchy regime

According to Vandewalle (2006), the monarchy regime was established with British backing; Idris As-Senussi proclaimed an independent Emirate of Cyrenaica in 1949. He was also invited to become Emir of Tripolitania, another of the three traditional regions that now constitute modern Libya (the third being Fezzan). By accepting he began the process of uniting Libya under a single monarchy. A constitution was enacted in 1949 and adopted in October 1951. A National Congress elected Idris as King of Libya, and as King he proclaimed the independence of the United Kingdom of Libya as a sovereign state on 24 December 1951 (Vandewalle, 2006). Hence, Libya had passed from colonialism to independence at the behest of the great powers, without a unifying ideology or a movement whose goals and aspirations were shared throughout the country (Vandewalle, 2006).

Vandewalle (2006) also states that Libya adopted a federal system of governance that left wide powers to the different provinces, which was indicative of the weakness of the central state at the time. With few institutions to regulate its economy and with an emerging political system that was primarily driven by the Sanusis and affiliated tribes and families, the monarchy largely restricted the state's intervention in the economy to distribute - albeit in a highly unequal fashion - the revenues flowing into the country.

Vandewalle (2006) argues that the independence of Libya in 1951 and its subsequent economic development also politically pulled the country inexorably into the western camp. The country was created at the behest of the western powers that provided all of the country's expertise and aid during the first decade after independence. In particular, warm relations between the United States and Libya served the interests of both parties, and US companies would assume a leading role in developing the country's oil industry.

2.5.2 Stage two (1969-2011): (The regime of Jamahiriya)

The first of September, 1969, the political system of the country was changed by the coup on the monarchy regime in the first of September 1969, which is called the 1969 revolution; a twelve-member directorate designated itself the Revolutionary Command Council (RCC) and led the revolution. The RCC declared the country to be a free and sovereign state called the Libyan Arab Republic. Muammar Al Gaddafi, who was then only 27 years old, became the head of Revolutionary Command Council.

The revolution swept away the remote monarchy, the self-seeking opportunists, the cabinet and the senior officers of the military forces (Allan, 1981). The first several years of the new government were consumed with efforts to rid the country of corruption and symbols of imperialism (Anderson, 1987). According to Vandewalle (1998), Muammar Al Gaddafi, the head of the Revolutionary Command Council who is referred to as "Revolution's Leader" produced in the 1970s a book of three parts known as The Green Book, setting forth his political, economic and social programmes, and the official name of the country was changed to "The Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya". Vandewalle (1998, p. 91) stated;

"The Green Book clearly represented a turning point for the Libyan revolution: it was the guideline to a new political and economic system for the country".

In this research, the author notes that the socialist orientation of the country post-1969 influences the relationships between leaders and followers in the sense that decision making in any organization is done through People's Committees. For example, People's Committees of the Faculty⁴ decide actions to be undertaken in faculties which are then implemented by the Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty⁵. This reality, as argued in Chapters 6 and 7, underpins the Libyan collective leadership model, which describes the style of leadership evident in the sampled universities. The following details are therefore in order.

According to (Abuarrosh, 1996), the Green Book⁶ was divided into three parts. The first part (1976) was, "The solution of the problem of democracy", the second part (1978) is "The solution of the economic problem" and finally, the third part (1979) was "The solution of the social problem".

The first part provides a solution to the problem of democracy. The solution suggests that in a direct democracy, people must participate in the decision-making process through "The People's Authority"; the authority of the people, as outlined in the Green Book is reflected in the Libyan people's ability to exercise their freedom through the Basic People's Congresses⁷ and Popular Committees⁸ at the local level and the General

⁴ People's Committees of the Faculty: is Faculty Council

⁵ Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty: is the Faculty dean.

⁶ Green Book is a book setting out the political philosophy of Mummer Al-Gaddafi

⁷ The Basic People's Congresses: is the Basic legislature of the structure of Local government in the Jamahiriya regime

⁸ Popular Committees is the Basic executive of the structure of Local government of Jamahiriya regime

People's Congress⁹, and General People's Committee¹⁰ at the state level (Abuarrosh, 1996).

The second part of the Green Book relates to a solution to economic problems. The main concern in this part is that political freedom is meaningless without economic freedom, but the latter can only be achieved through socialism. Many social and economic changes occurred in the country after the publication of the second part; in particular, investment in private sector housing and the private building industry was ended, while wage earners were now to be treated as partners through the institution of mandatory profit-sharing and workers' committees. The change in the way in which the reward for labour was characterised encouraged workers to become involved in the day-to-day management of the enterprise in which they worked (Abuarrosh, 1996).

The final part of the Green Book attempted to offer a solution to social problems, and dealt primarily with questions relating to social equality and education freedom (Abuarrosh 1996). Al Gaddafi (1979) concluded that "Education is not a purpose in itself; he said, *"The purpose is to created human in the new Model"*.

It goes without saying therefore that education in the Libyan Jamahiriya is free to everyone from elementary schooling right up to university and post-graduate study, at home or abroad. Pre-university schooling is divided into three sections, primary, preparatory and secondary. Schools are positioned throughout the country. For those people living a nomadic life, there are mobile classrooms and teachers, (Abuarrosh 1996).

During his rule, Gaddafi took increasing control of the government, but he also attempted to achieve greater popular participation in local government. In 1973, he announced the start of a "cultural revolution" in schools, universities, businesses, industries, and public institutions to oversee administration of those organizations in the public interest. The March 1977 establishment of "people's power" with mandatory popular participation in the selection of representatives to the General People's Congress (GPC) was the culmination of this process (Vandewalle, 2011).

⁹ The General People's Congress: is the national legislature of the structure of the government in the Jamahiriya regime = "Parliament"

¹⁰ General People's Committee: is the national executive of the structure of the government in the Jamahiriya regime = "Ministry"

2.5.2.1 Popular Congresses and People's Committees

The term "direct democracy", sometimes called "pure democracy," is a form of democracy and usually refers to citizens making policy and law decisions in person, without going through representatives and legislatures (Trueman, 2012). Al Gaddafi (1976) argued that direct democracy is the opposite of the more common "representative democracy," under which the people elect representatives empowered to create laws and policies. Ideally, the laws and policies enacted by the elected representatives in a representative democracy reflect the will of the people. So the solution is direct democracy through the establishment of "People's Congresses" in which all society members participate in shaping policy. The masses select their administrative leaders, who then represent the direct will of the people and are answerable directly to the people. Al Gaddafi (1976) said;

"Popular Conferences are the only means to achieve popular democracy. Any system of government contrary to this method, the method of Popular Conferences, is undemocratic. All the prevailing systems of government in the world today will remain undemocratic, unless they adopt this method. Popular Conferences are the end of the journey of the masses in quest of democracy". Direct democracy, if put into practice, is indisputably the ideal method of government.

An interesting question is whether the direct democracy idea posited by Al-Gaddafi is a form of pure democracy such as would not be achieved by Westerns-style representative democracy. As argued further below, the direct democracy idea is essentially different from indirect Western-style democracy in the sense that it is constructed from the bottom up, and is configured to have Peoples' Committees making and implementing decisions at various stages in the polity, instead of elected officials.

The researcher feels that the extent to which it will make for pure democracy in the sense of people fully being in charge of governance issues is the extent to which it is successfully implemented. In any case, the idea that these committees do not and cannot involve all the people implies that the direct democracy idea is somewhat a variant of representative democracy. Perhaps what is helpful in the model is that the people are more regularly involved in making and authorising the decisions implemented at committee levels.

In Western democracies it could be argued that an equivalent effect could be achieved through consultations of the citizens by elected politicians and administrators, albeit

indirectly. Hence, while these critiques could be pursued further in the chapter, what is important for this research is to understand the affordances or constraints that this form of democracy provides for and imposes on faculty leadership in Libyan universities, that is, how it contextualises higher education leadership in Libya.

Al Gaddafi thought that his green book guides the masses to an unprecedented practical system of direct democracy. His view was that the authority of the people has but one face which can only be realized through People's Congresses and People's Committees, there can be no democracy without People's Congresses and Committees everywhere.

Firstly, the people are divided into basic popular congresses. Each congress chooses its secretariat. The working committees together form popular congresses for each district. Then the masses of those basic People's Congresses choose administrative People's Committees to replace government administration. Thus all the public institutions are run by People's Committees which will be accountable to the basic popular congresses which dictate the policy and supervise its execution. Thus, both the administration and supervision become popular, and the out-dated definition of democracy - "democracy is the supervision of the government by the people" - comes to an end. It will be replaced by the true definition: Democracy is the supervision of the people by the people (Al Gaddafi, 1976).

All citizens who are members of these Popular Congresses belong vocationally and functionally to various sectors and therefore form themselves into their own professional People's Congresses in addition to being, by virtue of citizenship, members of the Basic People's Congresses or People's Committees. Subjects dealt with by the Popular Congresses and People's Committees will eventually take their final shape in the General People's Congress, which brings together the Secretariats of the Popular Congresses and People's Committees. Resolutions of the General People's Congress, which meets annually or periodically, are passed on to the Popular Congresses and People's Committees, which undertake the execution of those resolutions through the responsible committees, which are, in turn, accountable to the Basic Popular Congresses (Al Gaddafi, 1976).

In other words, the popular congresses and committees represent the legislative and executive branches, respectively. At the top are the General People's Congress (GPC) and The General People's Committee - the equivalent of a Cabinet. The latter, in

principle, has no independent authority. Members of both branches are appointed through consultation or through choice. Basic People's Congresses (BPCs) appoint Basic People's Committees that are in charge of the local administration. Their representatives report to counterparts at the national level, therefore ensuring that each of the country's districts remains autonomous and possesses the ability to channel local demands up to the national level. Thus, the political system is constructed from the bottom up, rather than from the top down (Vandewalle, 2006).

Continuing the researcher's critique of the above direct democracy ideas compared to indirect Western democracies, both consultation and appointment by choice obtain in other democracies as with when a Prime Minister or President chooses a cabinet. What is not clear in the Libyan case is whether the People's Committees always do all the appointments on behalf of the government for there to be a profound difference in the dynamics of the two types of democracies. For example, if some members of the GPC were directly appointed by Gaddafi, then it would be argued that there are still opportunities for dictatorial tendencies in the direct democracy model, contrary to the opposing view stated below.

These varieties of similarities and differences in the two models of democracy show that it is a complex issue to what extent the direct and non-representative democracy model is in practice actually a purer form of democracy than Western-style representative democracy, for which reason the focus of this research is on how the direct democracy model relates to higher education leadership in Libya as perceived by university faculty deans. Al Gaddafi (1976) concludes that the General People's Congress is not a gathering of persons or members such as those of parliaments but, rather, a gathering of the Popular Congresses and People's Committees. Thus, the problem of the instrument of government is naturally solved and all dictatorial instruments disappear. The people become the instrument of government, and the dilemma of democracy in the world is conclusively solved. See the above points which cast doubt on whether these points truly hold in practice.

The Green Book contends that the congresses enable democratic rights to be truly and actively enforced by the people in different organizations in Libya so that the power to make decisions and even the material actions to be undertaken as part of the decision making process is not concentrated in the hands of an elite group of leaders. Hence, an

important aspect of this study is to understand the extent of staff involvement in faculty leadership in Libyan universities.

2.5.2.2 Further critique of the influence of direct democracy ideas on (higher education) leadership

The researcher notes that the above ideas of direct democracy in Libya through Peoples' Committees resonate with other forms of Western consultation and employee involvement, including direct and indirect employee voice. An attempt is hereby made to preview these ideas and use them as foundations for discussing the potential influence of direct democracy on higher education leadership.

Generally, direct democracy is linked to the concept of deliberative legitimacy for which Dryzek (2012) poses the following interesting questions: 'How can deliberative legitimacy be achieved in large-scale societies where face-to-face deliberation [by all concerned citizens] is implausible? What can and should representation mean in such systems? What kinds of communication should be valued and why? How can competing appeals of pluralism and consensus in democratic politics be reconciled?

These questions provoke the following thoughts about the implications of the Peoples' Committees-based direct democracy on governance in Libya in general and particularly higher education leadership. Clearly, it is not possible in any country for all citizens to participate face-to-face in decision making, since that arrangement would be chaotic apart from not having enough room for all. Hence, interest centres on how citizens should be aided to participate in democratic decision making through opportunities to contribute their voices to issues that matter to them. This could be through effective communications including soliciting their views in writing, urging them to debate the issues in smaller mini publics from which the chosen views are then forwarded to implementation committees or assemblies.

One can argue that this problem is not severe in university faculties where all staff can assemble in large auditoria for such meetings. Indeed, this is probably what the Peoples' Committees of faculties in Libya achieve. But there is a still a problem of whether a large gathering of faculty workers with different levels of needs and awareness could be deemed competent enough to arrive at effective decisions (Fishkin, 2009). One hopes therefore that what the Peoples' Committees of faculties achieve is convey a sense of

deliberative legitimacy and belongingness on faculty decision making, whereby faculty workers are satisfied that their needs and viewpoints are directly sought in a participatory forum, after which the prioritised decisions are effectively implemented by more knowledgeable staff, including the deans and heads of departments.

Thus, in answer to the second question above, representation in Libyan university faculties would seem to mean listening to the views and needs of faculty workers and creatively working to achieve solutions to those needs through effective faculty leadership. This way, faculty deans and heads of departments have an active role to play in driving faculty success, despite the appearances of the people (faculty workers) being fully in charge of decision making through the Peoples' Committees of the faculties.

When Dryzek (2012) asks questions about the kinds of communication that should be valued in these contexts, the researcher reminds the reader that this is precisely why faculty deans' styles of leadership is of key interest in this research, since these styles connote ways and means of effectively communicating with and motivating staff to take effective actions as they fulfil their respective faculty roles in pursuance of clearly defined faculty vision and missions. Hence, the faculty deans are expected to be able to clearly communicate the visions and missions of the faculties and how individual staff roles contribute towards this, and to motivate them strongly towards taking useful actions accordingly.

The last question on reconciling pluralism and consensus in democratic politics is viewed by the researcher, within the particular contexts of faculty leadership, to require a dean to work in such a way that enables important consensus to be achieved about faculty priorities through peoples' committee of the faculty, and at the same time to enable more difficult (pluralist) views from more knowledgeable staff, for example senior faculty administrative staff and academics, to be brought to bear on those priorities. The researcher thinks that the faculty deans have this leg room within the Libyan higher education system, hence the need for faculty deans to have a better understanding of the dynamics of leadership and also management in those contexts, as this research explores.

In a nutshell, Dryzek (2012) argues that deliberative governance as a form of meta-consensus is a desired attribute of effective governance; that it can be achieved through different forums such as legislative assemblies, engagement of citizen discourses in

public spheres; and out-performs its competitors in some fruitful areas of application previously off-limits to traditional democratic experiences. These areas include the democratisation of authoritarian states such as exist in most Arab countries including Libya, and new ways to invigorate citizen participation. These points suggest that there are substantial merits in the peoples' committee approach to governance in Libya, especially if it is implemented effectively such as to ensure better citizen participation (for this study faculty staff participation in decision making as argued above). Thus, understanding how faculty deans lead the faculties becomes important in order to afford Libyan higher education of these merits.

Fishkin (2009) discusses deliberative democracy and public consultation further by bringing in the perspective that if well implemented it can be made to work in diverse settings such as massive expansion of wind power in Texas, building of sewage treatment plants in China, and crafting of budget solutions in a region in Italy. This reinforces the researcher's views above that Libyan direct democracy practices have some merit in motivating informed judgements and participation of faculty workers in universities. However, Fishkin (2009) states that critiques of deliberative democracy suggest that it 'will privilege the more educated or that the public is incompetent when it comes to understanding policy issues and should not be consulted'.

The researcher has earlier argued that consulting faculty staff directly shows respect for their views and needs and stands a better chance of motivating them towards fruitful action, than when they are not consulted and decision making is concentrated in the hands of faculty elites for examples dean and heads of departments. In the Libyan context particularly, working through Peoples' Committees embeds this type of consultation within the polity so that faculty deans are left to develop effective skills in leading the faculties to success through such frameworks. This again emphasises the relevance of this research on perceived leadership styles of faculty deans.

Dundon et al (2004) examined the meanings and purposes of employee voice using eighteen organisations in England, Scotland and Ireland and came up with the following views. Managers defined voice more in terms of perceived contribution to efficiency and tended to downplay the concepts of employee rights. It could be argued that the peoples' committee framework surface these rights, at least in the minds of the faculty workers, and effective faculty leadership should then be able to coerce profound staff contribution to efficiency and success of the faculty in the respective roles.

This is again an implication of this research which explores the leadership styles of faculty deans. Overall, argues Dundon et al (2004);

'Employee voice is best understood as a complex and uneven set of meanings and purposes with a dialectic shaped by external regulation, on the one hand, and internal management choice, on the other. The evidence suggests that the degree to which voice practises are embedded in an organisation is much more important than reporting the extent of any particular individual or collective schemes for employee voice'

The researcher notes that the above points suggest that faculty deans through their preferred leadership styles have the capacity to lead the faculties in such a way as to better embed voice practices in their faculties (through good communication, empathic listening to the needs of faculty members, effective implementation of people committee decisions for examples). Hence, it is not the existence of the committees that engender effective faculty leadership, but the deans' leadership and management styles taken together, for which reasons this research is very important to the quest to improve higher education leadership in Libyan universities.

In summary, a number of forms of Western consultation have been premised implicitly in the above points. In higher education these include: departmental meetings; faculty away days; requests from staff to contribute ideas towards strategy reviews and other academic development matters for example learning, teaching and assessment as well as research management frameworks; academic boards (similar to Peoples' Committees, though involving academic staff of departments); and joint development of research grants by teams of academics with relevant expertise.

The researcher feels that these forms of consultations exist in Libyan universities as far as the technical academic issues are concerned, but the use of Peoples' Committees, as earlier argued, conveys a sense of deliberative democracy which faculty deans can put to good use in their leadership styles. Overall, therefore, understanding the perceived leadership styles of faculty deans in Libyan universities and thinking out the best ways these styles can be made to work through Peoples' Committees and any other form of staff participation that the post-Gaddafi era might legitimise is an interesting focus of research such as this study.

2.5.2.3 Libyan socio-political ideology

This section reiterates that fact that Libya's political governance at the time of this study was socialist. The Libyan approach to socialism was clarified in the second half of the decade with the publication in 1978 of the Solution of the economic problem, "Socialism," in the second part of Gaddafi's Green Book. The socialist theories outlined therein were gradually translated into law, tightening controls over private enterprise (ST John, R B in Vandewalle, 2011). In other words, Libyan socio-political ideology is dependent on Third Universal Theory¹¹ identified in the Green Book. The stated goal of the Jamahiriya Government was to realize socialism. The wellsprings of Muammar Al-Gaddafi's political thought are the Quran and Nasserism.

Al-Gaddafi was an ardent admirer of Egypt's Gamal Abdul Nasser. He expanded Nasser's political thought by emphasizing the Islamic rules of socialism in that the Quran condemns class domination and exploitation (Vandewalle, 2006). Al-Gaddafi felt that "almsgiving is the nucleus of the socialist spirit in Islam". The source of socialism in Libya is Islam, and it means "social justice". Work, production, and resources were all to be shared fairly, and extreme disparities between rich and poor were to be eliminated. Muammar Al-Gaddafi ensured that this socialism, inherent in Islamic religion, was not merely a stage toward communism, as the Marxist theorists would argue (Metz, 1987). Libyan socialism has succeeded to the extent that social welfare programs have been subsidized by oil revenues.

The Gaddafi regime has succeeded to an impressive level in providing basic human material needs. Libya has also been relatively successful in achieving economic egalitarianism; such equality entails abolishing the conventional employer-employee relationship. Wage labour is considered as a form of slavery. Also no one may own more than one house. Moreover, the residents of a house should perform their own household work, because domestic servants are considered "a type of slave". To achieve economic justice according to Third Universal theory, the slogans of "partners, not wage-earners" and "those who produce, consume" have been proclaimed and, to a significant degree, established (Metz, 1987).

¹¹ Third Universal Theory: It was predicated on the belief that the two dominant socio-politico-economic ideologies--capitalism and communism--had been proved invalid. It refers to the style of government proposed by Col. Muammar Gaddafi in the early 1970s, on which his government, the Great Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, was officially based. It was partly inspired by Islamic socialism, Arab nationalism, and African nationalism, and the principles of direct democracy. It is outlined in the Green Book.

Following Bruce (2008), the author notes the following facts in connection with Libyan socialist ideology:

- a) Al-Gaddafi and his colleagues saw and presented socialism to the Libyan people as a means for achieving freedom and unity and a solution to the economic problems of not only Libya but humankind; and
- b) Al-Gaddafi's early political communications described Libyan socialism as indigenous to the peculiarities of Libya and as an integral part of Libyan political culture which is necessary for corrective action within the polity.

As noted above, this position has far reaching implications for Libyan socio-political and economic management including higher education leadership. It could be asserted that Libyan people imbibed these ideas easily because of the attractions of freedom and democracy inherent in the ideas, particularly the elimination of the potential for a few people who are private owners of capital to oppress workers. This fact is reinforced by the Islamic faith which is dominant in Libya since Islam preaches equality before Allah, fairness in dealing with others and the need to consider the welfare of others in taking individual actions. The author develops these perspectives further in subsequent chapters of this thesis.

2.5.3 Stage three: (After 2011) new political system

The current socio-political situation as at the time of writing up this thesis is informed by 17 February revolution which turned into civil war in which some Libyan people took action with significant assistance from NATO to rid the country of what they regard as a domination of the political life of the people by the Al-Gaddafi family and their inner circle. It is well known that Muammar Al-Gaddafi was killed in the civil war and a National Transitional Council was formed to replace Jamahiriya's regime, and this Council has now been superseded by an elected Council (Vandewalle 2011). As far as this research is concerned, the implications of these developments is that Libya is now less likely to evolve as a traditional democracy, but the Islamic faith still will continue to influence leadership affairs in a collective way since Libya is naturally collectivist in its culture as explained later in this chapter. Hence, it is likely that what may change in Libya are the labels that are given to roles, away from people's congresses and committees to possibly more traditional university governance frameworks.

In sum, the findings of this research regarding leadership styles in Libya will still continue to be relevant to the Islamic and collectivist culture of Libya and the future development of higher education leadership in the country. The kind of faculty leadership process explored by the research will be a good starting point in evaluating university leadership in Libya (probably other Arab countries) despite the future labels and regulations which will define higher education governance in the country.

Since the researcher is a lecturer in one of the country's universities, he will pursue these implications of the research in further work following completion of this research. In other words, by explicating the perceived faculty leadership process in Libyan universities, the research is foundational in situating this leadership within a wider context of cultural, religious, and political influences which even future adjustments of university leadership and management will require as a starting point. Hence, what is expected is that future work can only expand on the identified leadership process as a working model through which all the contributing influences are best managed to produce more successful faculty and as a consequence university leadership in Libya.

2.6 Education in Libya

Pre-university schooling is divided into three sections: primary, preparatory and secondary; children between the ages of 6 and 15 attend primary and preparatory school, and children 15- to 18-year-olds attend secondary school for three additional years. The first nine years of education are compulsory and are known as basic education. They consist of six years of primary school, and three years preparatory school; then secondary education covers three to four years divided into a three-year secondary education or four years for secondary education specialist (Libyan General Authority for Documentation and Information; Clark, 2004)).

Education in Libya is free to everyone from elementary school right up to university and post-graduate study, at home or abroad. Schools are positioned throughout the country. The policy is to reach out even to the nomadic hard-to-reach areas in Libya. Libya's population of approximately 5.9 million includes 1.7 million students, over 270,000 of whom study at the tertiary level, including those in the higher-technical and vocational sector. This number is an increase of over 200,000 from the level of 1975, when just over 13,000 were enrolled. Secondary education covers six to seven years divided into a three-year cycle (compulsory) and a three- to four-year intermediate cycle (Nick Clark,

2004). In addition, higher education in Libya is provided by universities (both general and specialised) and higher technical and vocational institutions.

The higher education system is financed by, and under the authority of, the state. Policymakers have in recent years allowed the establishment of private institutions of higher education through what are known as educational co-operatives (Tasharukiat Talimia). There has also been considerable research into the possibility of developing partnerships between the public (shabiat) and private sectors to finance higher education, which, in a three-year period between 1997 and 2000, resulted in the establishment of more than five private university colleges and higher education institutes.

As noted below, the establishment of public-private partnership in higher education does not obviate the need to make education free up to first degree level. Hence, these changes respond to the need for better funding and management of universities while maintaining the socialist values of free education up to degree level. Education is free up to university level. Post-graduate studies are not free but are subsidised. For example, the whole cost of a master's degree course at the Academy of Postgraduate Studies may cost around 3,000 Libyan dinars or about £1,500 each year (Clark, 2004).

The university sector in Libya dates back to independence in 1951 and the establishment of the "Libyan university" with campuses in Benghazi and Tripoli. This gradually grew to incorporate faculties of Arts and Education, Science, Economics and Commerce, Law, and Agriculture. In 1967, it annexed both the Faculty of Higher Technical Studies and the Higher Teachers' Training College, which became faculties of engineering and education. In 1970, the faculties of Medicine, Arabic and Islamic Studies were incorporated.

In 1973, the Libyan university was separated into two independent universities; the University of Tripoli and the University of Benghazi. Later these universities were renamed: the University of Al-Fatah in Tripoli and the University of Gar-Yunis in Benghazi. After 17 February 2011, the two universities have been named with old names. Due to the increasing number of students enrolling in higher education since 1981, the university was restructured and the number of universities expanded to 13 in 1995, consisting altogether of 76 specialized faculties and more than 344 specialized scientific departments (El-Hawat A, 2003).

2.6.1 Programs and Degrees

According to Clark (2004), Programs and Degrees are divided into three stages;

First stage: The first stage of university education requires four to five years (five years in architecture and engineering) of full-time study leading to a Bachelor's Degree. There is a common curriculum for all first-year students. Undergraduate medical programs closely follow the British model. Degrees are conferred after five years of study, which is often preceded by a preparatory year and includes a one-year residency. Examinations are often conducted by the British Royal Colleges of Medicine and conferred by the Libyan Board of Medicine.

Second stage: The Higher Diploma and the Master's Degree (MA or MSc) are awarded after two years of study beyond the bachelor's degree. These programs are mainly offered at the large universities, particularly (Bangazi University), (Tripoli University) which are called (Gar-younis University) and (Al-Fateh University) in the regime of Jamahiriya. Both universities have been renamed with old names after the 17th of February 2011 when the new regime has controlled Libya. Postgraduate studies in Libyan universities cover a wide range of subjects, but are generally dominated by Arabic, Islamic studies, social sciences, and humanities.

Third stage: The Doctorate requires a further two years of research and the submission and defence of a dissertation; however, only a few students gain their Ph.Ds from Libyan universities. As of academic year 1999/00, many students had attained Ph.Ds from Libyan universities; mainly in fields such as Arabic, Islamic studies and the humanities. Libyan universities have not yet started doctoral programs in science, technology, and engineering. As a result many students pursue their doctorates abroad (Clark, 2004).

Universities worldwide are undergoing profound changes through increased growth and with continued enthusiasm. They are currently facing new challenges as economic change, coupled with developments in science and technologies are springing forth new dynamics, which impact Leadership. A successful university in Libya requires effective leadership that supports innovation, learning, creativity and utilizes the maximum potentials of its leaders. Universities ultimately vest in individuals with whom successful leadership will motivate, develop, and focus on the global trends of convergent social, culture, and organizational change.

In higher education, effective Leadership is imperative to the university's success (Bass, 1985). More importantly, effective leadership is essential to the growth and development of institution. Therefore, leaders of higher education, such as deans, need to be “aware of the critical role and understanding of effective leadership to simulate learning and change and how intricately intertwined their own behaviour is with management” (Schein, 1992). Academic Deans are often considered visionaries who will lead the transformation of their university. As administrative officers of the university, the Deans are often responsible for sustaining an environment that encourages excellence in teaching, researching and program development and active collaboration across the university (Land, 2003).

On the other hand the economic importance of higher education is now well recognised and the contribution that it can make to the development of both national and regional economies is attracting significant policy attention in Libya. Higher education is seen as being of key importance in the creation and transfer of knowledge to the Libyan economy through its teaching, research and other activities. Higher education can impact on the economy of Libya in a very wide range of ways. Increasing attention is being paid to the contribution of higher education to the stock of human capital, with continuing analysis of social rates of return to graduates. Higher education is also considered to have an important impact on the social and cultural environment in Libya; as a result, the impact on the economic environment within which business operates. However, the institutions of higher education are also business entities, and the economic activity generated by the large institutional spending.

The importance of higher education to the Libyan economy is ensuring long-term, sustainable growth:-

- Creating a pool of qualified people with the knowledge and skills to contribute significantly to economic development, to be entrepreneurial, develop science and technology, deliver basic services, and to be enlightened leaders.
- Enabling Libya to compete in an era of globalisation and knowledge.
- Expanding choices and increasing personal and work-related skills.

Clearly, the achievement of these goals requires effective higher education leadership, especially high-performing faculty and overall university leadership that manage the influences imposed on universities by the Libyan contexts mentioned earlier in this

thesis, including socio-cultural, political, religious and regulatory, and also the resource constraints. Given that faculty leadership is a focal point of university leadership where the real learning, teaching and research happen, an understanding of the perceived leadership styles of faculty deans within this complex of contexts is fundamental to future development of effective higher education leaders in Libya, hence this research.

2.6.2 Public Universities in Libya

Most universities in Libya are public universities and they are distributed between East and West of Libya, only one university in the south of Libya and that is because of the population density. The following table shows the name and number of Libyan public universities before and after 2011:-

Table 2.1: Libyan public universities

NO	Libyan Universities (1969-2011)	Libyan Universities After 2011	Cities
1	Al-Fateh University	Tripoli University	Tripoli
2	7 th of April University	Zawya University	Zawya
3	Nasser University	Azzaytuna University	Trhouna
4	Al-Jabal Algrbi University	Al-Jabal Algrbi University	Gryan
5	Garyounis University	The University of Benghazi	Benghazi
6	Sebha University	Sebha University	Sebha
7	Omar Al-Mukhtar University	Omar Al-Mukhtar University	Albayda
8	Elmergib University	Elmergib University	Elmergib
9	Al-Tahadi University	Sirte University	Sirte
10	Asmarya University	Asmarya University	Zliten
11	Misurata University	Misurata University	Misurata
12	Open University	Open University	Tripoli
*	Academy of postgraduate studies	Academy of postgraduate studies	Janzour

The field study of this research has been done on the first three universities in 2009:-

1. University (A) :- Al-Fateh University in the city of Tripoli
2. University (B) :- 7th of April University in the city of Zawya
3. University (C) :- Nasser University in the city of Trhouna

2.7 The organizational structure of universities and institutions of higher education in Jamahiria's regime

According to the organizational structure of universities and institutions of higher education issued by the Secretariat of the General People's Committee of Higher Education¹², (2008); Libyan universities are scientific institutions concerned with higher education and postgraduate and research by colleges and scientific departments and research centres in all areas and aim to include the following:-

1. Run universities and Faculties by popular committee in accordance with the provisions of Law No. 1 for the year 1375. O.R, on the work of the People's Congresses and People's Committees, and its implementing regulations.
2. Progress the areas of science and technology and of thought and art and in the field of action to achieve national goals and national development and human civilization and development and the prospects of expanding human knowledge and contribute to the achievement of economic and social development in the Great Jamahiriya.
3. Prepare specialists in various branches of science, knowledge, production and services, and rehabilitation and provide them with a high level of knowledge and skills to keep pace with the community the progress of science and technology and world civilization.
4. The advancement and sharing scientific research and various studies that contribute to the scientific and technical progress, especially those aimed at finding solutions to various issues facing the economic and social development in the Great Jamahiriya.
5. Development of methods of scientific research and education, including the development of educational literature and translation courses and provide the necessary laboratories for scientific research and the possibility of clinical training.
6. Interest in the Arabic language and its Literature and the emphasis on their use in all branches of science and knowledge.
7. Interest in the Cultural Revolution, and the emphasis on philosophy of power of the people and the thought of public.
8. Closer links and cultural and scientific links with other scientific institutions locally and nationally and internationally.

¹² Secretariat of the General People's Committee of Higher Education = Ministry of Higher Education

9. To do work experience and to provide scientific advice to institutions and various companies.
10. Development of Science and Arts.
11. The above issues specify the objectives of Libyan higher education the achievement of which requires effective leadership, hence this study.

2.7.1 Top Academic Leadership structure in Libyan Universities

2.7.1.1 The People's Committee of the University (University Council)

1. Secretary of the People's Committee of the University (University Chancellor).
2. Assistant Secretary for Academic Affairs (Vice- Chancellor).
3. Secretaries People's Committees of the Faculties (Deans of Faculties).
4. Secretaries of the Services Departments (Heads of services departments).
5. Secretary of the Teaching Members' Union in the university (Representatives of the Teaching Members' Union).
6. Secretary of Student Association of the university (Representatives of the Student Union).
7. Representative of the Planning Council in the city, which lies in the scope of the university.
8. Representative of the Social People's Leaderships ¹³in the city, which lies in the scope of the university.
9. In addition to five of the scientific and intellectual personalities interested in issues of higher education, which selected by the General People's Committee for Higher Education, had to be among them Secretary of the People's Committee of the University.

2.7.1.2 The People's Committee of the Faculty (Faculty Council)

1. Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty (Dean of the Faculty).
2. Secretaries of the Academic Departments (Heads of Academic Departments).
3. Secretaries of the Services Departments (Heads of Services Departments).
4. Secretary of the Teaching Members' Union in the Faculty, (Representatives of the Teaching Members' Union).
5. Secretary of Student Association of the Faculty (Representatives of the Student Union).

¹³ Social People's Leaderships: is some Leaders who represent their Tribes in the city

The faculty members in the Libyan public universities are holders of doctorate degrees from accredited institutions. The academic titles of faculty are Professor, Associate Professor and Lecturer. The latter is equivalent to the title of Assistant Professor in American universities, (Secretariat of the General People's Committee of Higher Education, 2008). The researcher reiterates earlier comments that: the peoples' committee approach provides for more direct democracy in university governance in which the voices, needs and expectations of university staff are respected; that these structures are in some respects similar to what obtains in Western contexts with respect to technical academic matters; and that effective faculty and university leadership is required in order to make the direct democracy approach successful in enabling the universities to achieve the above mentioned higher education goals.

2.8 Libyan National Culture and Higher Education

About 80% of Libyans live along the Mediterranean coast or just south of the coast and more than 80 % of Libya's population is of Arab ancestry, in addition to others who are of Berber, Tuareg and Tabu descents. Arabic Language is the official language and is spoken by most people in Libya, and the second language is English. Islam is Libya's official religion. In November 1973, a new code of law appeared emphasizing Sharia law in all facets of the Libyan legal system. After the Revolution in September 1969 and in compliance with Islamic law, alcoholic beverages were outlawed. Bars and nightclubs were closed, and modest and provocative entertainment was banned.

The use of the Islamic Hijri calendar was also made mandatory. It is important for Libyans to maintain the dignity, honour and good reputation of their families through their own conduct. This is a collective culture and in order to maintain a sense of harmony, people will act with decorum at all times and not do anything to cause someone else public embarrassment. Personal feelings and needs are often subjugated for the good of the group.

Learning and schooling are often equated. It is valued in many Islamic countries such as Libya, because learning is part of the Muslims' duties. According to the Quran and Prophet Mohamed, every Muslim should emulate and support learning. The first verse revealed to the Prophet Mohammed is: "Read in the name of thy Lord" (Quran 96:2). Subsequent verses mention the value of learning and knowledge, "God will raise all you who believe, as well as those who are given knowledge, in rank" (Quran 58:12).

A famous quote of Prophet Mohammed is, "Seek knowledge, though be it in China," which refers to distant lands; therefore, according to the Prophet, seeking knowledge is an obligation for every Muslim male and female. In addition, the Prophet also released prisoners of war after they had taught ten Muslims how to read and write. These are some of the known indicators of the importance of learning and seeking knowledge for Muslim people. Moreover, Islam is the main religion in Libya, therefore government agencies and leaders at all levels follow the Islamic laws regarding education, (*Gaddafi M, 1979*). According to the (Quran 35:28, 58:12, & 96:2) and Prophet Mohamed, every Muslim, male and female, should support learning and the quest for knowledge is considered an obligation.

Education confers a high social premium and brings about economic benefits to both the individual and society, particularly in developing countries. According to Weisskopf, Reich and Edwards, Reich & Weisskopf (1973), socialization of youth is a key educational function in a culture. Moreover, academic institutions integrate individuals into society through institutionalizing constructive values, norms and belief systems. On the other hand, organizations provide individual competencies that are necessary to meet the performance of social roles (Edwards, Reich & Weisskopf (1973). These educational systems are vital to the stability and functioning of any society. Therefore, education is the process by which society ensures the transmission of the necessary knowledge, skills, and values for survival to the next generation.

According to Clark (2004), the Libyan government supports all academic institutions from primary level to university. In the past 40 years the government has invested money, resources human and technical, in the creation of an institution of higher education. 13 public universities in Libya distributed in the various cities, which encouraged a very large number of students for university study in Libya. A large number of colleges are distributed in various Libyan cities, which encouraged a large number of students to study and get a degree equivalent to university degree (Secretariat of the General People's Committee of Higher Education¹⁴, 2009).

In addition to the public educational system, there are also many public schools in every area of the country and some private schools in some cities (Secretariat of the General People's Committee of Education, 2009). In Libya some university professors are

¹⁴ Secretariat of the General People's Committee of Higher Education= Ministry of Higher Education

expatriates, possibly due to the lack of Libyan' professors at this time. However, there are too many Libyan students who are studying for MSc and PhD in the different parts of the world (Department of Missions / Secretariat of the General People's Committee of Higher Education 2009).

Although, Libya has seen an increase in scholarly research, it still has a low profile in research about leadership and organizational culture, likely due to the excessive attention given to the petroleum resources and development of the country (Department of Graduate Studies/ Secretariat of the General People's Committee of Higher Education, 2009). Hence, this research is fundamental to a development of leadership thinking and research in Libyan higher education, as noted in the rationale and significance of the study, and reiterated in different parts of this chapter.

2.9 Collective culture and leadership

The individualism versus collectivism ideas in Hofstede (1994, pp. 50-53) are central to an understanding of Libyan higher education leadership in the following ways. Collectivist societies such as Libya emphasize the power of the group over that of the individual, are strongly oriented towards extended families, mainly view people as 'We' instead of 'I', and are more easily motivated to 'fully use [their] skills and abilities on the job'. These facts explain why shared and family-oriented leadership are native to the faculty deans interviewed in this research, as will be seen later in the thesis.

They see their leadership as a shared responsibility and primarily ascribe their achievements as deans to that of the entire faculty workforce much stronger than leaders with an 'I' mind-set would do. Indeed, a look at Hofstede's analysis of individualism/collectivism scores on page 53 of the text shows that, out of a total of 53 entries made up of 50 countries and 3 regions, Arab speaking countries score in the middle range of individualism coming out with 26/27, with highly individualistic countries like USA, Australia and Great Britain scoring 1, 2 and 3 respectively.

This fact has a number of implications for social life as well as leadership practices in these different societies. Thus, collectivism is associated with large power distances as is the case with most Islamic countries (cf. Figure 3.1 in Hofstede, 1994, p. 54). This is because dependence on in-groups in collectivist societies usually goes together with dependence on power figures such as Kings, Emirs, and in some cases dictators.

In the case of Libya this fact is reinforced by the post-1969 revolution enshrined in Muammar Ghaddafi's Green Book discussed in this Chapter 2 of the thesis. Also, the collectivist attribute grows from family connectedness in an extended family context as opposed to individualist attitudes which flourish in nuclear family structures prevalent in advanced Western societies. It is clear that these facts contribute to strong adherence of faculty deans in Libya to shared and democratic leadership practices.

The above ideas are more intimately explored in Hofstede et al (2010) who in Chapter 4 of the text expands on the 'I', 'We' and 'They' ideas to emphasize the fact that individualism and collectivism fundamentally underpin the differences in school, workplace, language, personality, and behaviours observed in the two different kinds of societies, albeit manifested in different ways by people, depending on other influences on their personality for example international experiences of faculty deans in Libya.

Importantly in this respect, a collectivist workplace like a university faculty in Libya may become an in-group in the emotional sense of the word. This facilitates a feeling of family ownership and relationships around faculty duties by the workforce to the extent that poor performance of a worker would be no reason for dismissal since every effort could be made by a dean to help the staff improve on their performance. These ideas are reinforced by the Islamic principle of duty of care to others especially those that are dependent on fellow citizens for their basic needs.

The relevance of these observations to this research consists in the fact that faculty deans reflect this principle in their leadership styles so that it is necessary to explore how the enactment of their preferred leadership styles are consistent with the collectivist culture of Libya as an Islamic society.

2.10 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed the Libyan background to this study and related the important aspects of this background to the study rationale. Hence, the political and educational systems are related to their influences on leadership practices through the Islamic faith and collectivist Libyan culture. These influences are developed in subsequent chapters of the thesis and also more widely linked to leadership theories and practices discussed in Chapter 3 on literature review for the research. The following points summarize the main points which are relevant to this study and how they might impact on university leadership.

It was noted that a high proportion of Libyan population is made up of young people (50%) so that a study of higher education such as this provides a good foundation for higher education leadership development which will produce highly skilled and competent young faculty and citizens required to service the Libyan economy.

The chapter explored the Islamic influences on leadership in Libya and noted that the five pillars of Islam imply a duty of care by all Libyans to each other, especially weaker members of the society. This has implications for higher education (hence faculty) leadership in Libyan universities whereby deans show empathy, oneness, commitment and family feeling to faculty workers as the deans enact their preferred styles of leadership. As a consequence, this study aims to understand how those styles of leadership inform a working model or process of university leadership in Libya on which further efforts to develop the leadership potentials of university staff could be built.

A look at the Libyan economy in the chapter showed that whilst Libya could be classified as a developing economy given the underdeveloped nature of its economy, it is a very rich country with enormous oil wealth – a fact that portrays as ironic any suggestions that the Libyan higher education system is constrained financially. This means that faculty leadership in particular and university leadership in general should be geared to make the management of resources far more efficient than would seem to be the case, and the government funding of higher education more efficient and effective. For these reasons also, this research on the styles and dynamics of faculty leadership in the Libyan context is very important.

An extended critique of the influences of the Libyan political system on higher education was offered in the chapter through the concepts of direct democracy consequent upon the peoples' committee approach to governance, employee voice, pure democracy, deliberative legitimacy, citizen participation and consultation. It was noted that direct democracy seems potentially superior to indirect Western style democracy, but there are strong parallels between the two systems and, more importantly, sound leadership is required to overcome the inherent limitations of mass participation in Peoples' Committees, in order to avail Libyan higher education of this potential. This again reinforces the relevance of this study.

Similarly to the Islamic influences on higher education leadership, the chapter examined the influence of the collectivist national culture of Libya (itself emanating from Islamic principles) on higher education leadership. It argued that this collectivism predisposes higher education leadership to be more democratic and family-oriented. These facts imply that the anticipated leadership styles of faculty deans in this research are drawn to Islamic education principles. It is, therefore, of interest in this research to properly situate Libyan higher (faculty) education within the native Islamic socio-cultural influences which condition its (future) success.

The chapter discussed the Libyan education system with more emphasis on higher education, and noted that the goals of higher education elucidated in the chapter require for their fulfilment a well-researched understanding of the perceived leadership styles of faculty deans in the universities.

Finally, the chapter provided in the researchers' opinion a rich enough context of the socio cultural, political, policy, and Islamic influences in light of which this research and future systematic studies of higher education leadership in Libya should be considered. These contextual influences on leadership practice are examined in some detail in Chapters 3 and 4 which provide the governing literature for this research.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW ON GENERAL LEADERSHIP THEORIES AND PRACTICES

3.1 Introduction

As explained in the introduction to the thesis, ‘this chapter explores the foundational thinking and practices of leadership including extant and current literature on leadership theories, styles and approaches, and how these may be related to higher education leadership practices. The chapter therefore provides the general theoretical framework for the research’. For this purpose, the researcher adopts the following strategy for the literature review;

Firstly, it covers general ideas of leadership from the extant literature on theories and practices of leadership (this Chapter). These general ideas are building blocks on which the exploration of higher education leadership in this thesis is based. Some of the leadership approaches are not related to the emerging picture of leadership styles applicable to university faculties in Libya, and some are more directly related. Hence, the literature explicates what higher education leadership in Libya entails or does not entail. It also brings together the central concepts of leadership which future researchers on situated leadership in Libya can draw from.

Secondly, it examines those references in the literature which provide possible analytical frameworks and core concepts which are useful for exploring situated leadership practices more critically (Chapter 4 of the thesis).

Thirdly, the two parts of the literature review are linked to the study aims, objectives and research questions thereby guaranteeing tightness between these aspects of the study and the approach for investigating the research objectives, which is explored further in the methodology chapter.

To reiterate earlier remarks, the emphasis of the literature review is on leadership theories, including particularly ideas on the leadership approaches that have more profound links with perceived leadership styles of faculty deans in Libyan universities. These leadership styles include distributed leadership, democratic, transformational, transactional, and collective leadership (used here in both a general sense as occurs in traditional leadership literature and a more specific sense associated with perceived leadership styles of faculty deans in this thesis), for examples.

3.2 Review of the literature on theories and practices of leadership

This section examines the extant literature on leadership in general with reference also to the educational setting, since this study is focused on higher education leadership in Libya. The ideas in this section underpin leadership theories and concepts developed later in the chapter by describing the cumulative state of knowledge of different leadership styles in different settings. This affords the researcher a richer literature base for discussing the research findings in subsequent chapters of the thesis. Moreover, in setting the context for this study, the researcher examines mainstream literature on leadership to get a broader understanding of the concept. This is because much of leadership literature on education is derived from non-educational settings. Halinger and Snidovry (2005) argue that;

"Leadership in the field of education has had a long and ambivalent relationship with the world of business management and education institutions embrace business leadership techniques".

There is a natural overlap between leadership in management and educational settings since one can think of educational leadership as involving the management of educational resources. Hence, university deans in Libya and elsewhere need to be aware of the tenets of leadership which underpin effective leadership and be able to practically manage faculty resources in the process. Until the 1950s when the need for theory in educational administration arose, educational leadership concepts frequently borrowed from business settings (Bass, 1960; Simmons, 1977). The earliest theories on leadership and organisations were mostly related to military examples, then to management and administrative sciences. It has been argued that these theories could be applied to education as the similarities were much more significant than the differences (Simmons, 1977). Again, as argued above, faculty leadership mimics all other forms of leadership including military leadership since it requires effective goal setting, motivation of faculty staff to excel in their roles, as is the case with fighting forces in a military battle, and principled management of available resources for achieving set goals.

However, when applying such leadership and management theories and practices from management to education, caution should be exercised since the two contexts have distinct goals or purposes. The overriding goal of business enterprise is profit-making, in contrast to education whose purpose is the transmission and socialisation of

cultural norms, which is difficult to measure. It is therefore easier for business organisations to define more measurable goals focused on the bottom-line. This does not mean that educational leaders should not learn from business; rather they should focus on leadership and management competencies which are relevant to educational institutions today, especially when there is an increased call for greater accountability in education (Bush, 2011).

The above remarks are relevant for this study which is focused on the perceived leadership styles and practices of university faculty deans in Libya, since understanding the leadership competencies (skills, knowledge and attitudes) and practices prepares the ground for developing university leadership in Libya in the overall quest to improve graduate outcomes in the country, other Arab countries and beyond. Also, in modern times, educational institutions produce knowledge that could be paid for by concerned stakeholders. Examples are students whose education is supported by the Libyan government, and clients in wider society who pay for useful research conducted in different faculties. Hence, whilst universities are in general not-for-profit, aspects of their day-to-day engagements with governments, industry and the private sector are commercially oriented. It is therefore arguable that effective faculty leadership requires both skills of leadership and management of faculty workers, processes, research, and community services as if they are 'profit-oriented'.

This section examines the definitions of leadership, different types of leadership styles and approaches, and the similarities and differences in leadership in Western and Arabic contexts. This contrast in contexts is important in this study because university deans Libya will be seen in the research to enact some leadership styles recognised in Western leadership literature in a collective way mainly as a result of the specific context of Libya.

3.3 Historical overview of leadership

Historically, leadership researchers have examined leadership from different perspectives. The early analyses of leadership from the 1900s to the 1950s were focused on differentiating between the characteristics of leaders and followers (Northouse, 1997). A good example of such research is the trait approach to leadership, which will be discussed under the theories of leadership later on in this chapter. After the failure of researchers to find a single trait or combination of traits to fully explain leaders' influence, researchers began to examine the influence of a

leader's behaviour on followers, and also the situations in which leaders operate. Thus the various approaches to leadership such as the trait approach, the behavioural approach and situational approach were all developed as means of trying to find the best explanation of what differentiates leaders from followers (Northouse, 2004; Rickards & Clarke, 2006). Similar to the above remarks about differences in Libya (Arab countries) and Western leadership contexts, it is seen in this research that the specific Libyan context for example the Islamic and collectivist national socio-culture defines situations in which Libyan deans enact some leadership practices.

Leadership studies of the 1970s to the 1980s also focused on the individual characteristics of leaders, but tended to identify those which influenced their effectiveness and the success of their organisations. However, from the 1990s to date, studies have tried increasingly to differentiate between leadership and management, to trace out the differences between transactional and transformational leadership approaches, and to explore the significance of characteristics such as vision, empowerment and morality on leadership (See for example, Northouse, 2004, Rost, 1991, and Bass 2008).

A review of the literature shows that many researchers have tried to define leadership and the following section is a summary of such efforts.

3.4 Perceptions and definitions of leadership

Fiedler (1967, p.8) considers a leader to be "the individual in a group given the task of directing and co-ordinating task-relevant group activities or who, in the absence of a designated leader, carries the primary responsibility for performing these functions in the group". In this study, faculty deans coordinate activities by faculty workers which are appropriate for their roles and responsibilities. In the absence of a faculty dean, a designated deputy dean, where this role exists, or head of department may perform the dean's role.

In their work on management and leadership, Davies et al., (1990) note the differences between leadership and management and suggest that leadership is the ability required by management and that though the two concepts are different they are related. The authors further argue that leaders and managers are different kinds of people with different ways of thinking. They take the view that leadership provides the context in

which management takes place and that leadership is about people, while management is about resources and that both are needed, for if one is weak the other may not function well. There therefore is a sense in which needed transformation of Libyan higher education will not be achieved without deans' effectiveness in these twin leadership roles – people leadership and resource management.

The term leadership has been used since the beginning of the 19th century (Bass, 1981a). According to Smith and Krueger (1933) cited in Stogdill (1974) it occurs universally among all people regardless of culture. Bass (1990a) argues that the definition of Leadership should depend on the purposes to be served by the definition. In this regard, "Leadership has been seen as the focus of group processes, a personality attribute, the art of inducing compliance, an exercise of influence, a particular kind of act" (p. 11). Bass (1990) define leadership as the "interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members".

The above remarks are apt for this research since faculty leadership is about motivating workers through positive interaction to effect profound changes in the circumstances of a faculty through tasks and outcomes engaged in and produced by the workers in their particular roles. Moreover, the concept of 'group' work mentioned above is deepened in the case of Libyan higher education leadership to involve the concept of 'family', based on Islamic and collective culture, which distinguish Libya from traditional Western leadership contexts.

Rost (1991, p.102) defines leadership from a relationship perspective and states that it is an influence relationship between leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purpose. As discussed above, people leadership is central to faculty deans' roles, which in the Libyan context is more nuanced as the relationship between deans as leaders and faculty workers as followers is much more family-oriented and democratic than is the case in traditional Western contexts. Despite these differences, approaches to motivating staff to exceed themselves in the performance of their roles, and relating with them in a positive way, applies to both contexts. The reader is hereby reminded that, as explained in Chapter 2 of this thesis, the peoples' committee structure of governance in Libya potentially makes for the family-oriented and hence personally motivating relationships between faculty deans and workers.

Burns (1978, p. 19) defines leadership as a “process through which leaders induce followers to seek certain goals that represent the values and the motivations (the wants and the needs, the aspirations and expectations) of both leaders and followers”. Burns's definition of leadership is based on morality. He further notes that leadership lies in the manner in which leaders recognise and act on their own and their followers' motivations. Burns also emphasizes that leadership, unlike naked power-wielding, is inseparable from followers' needs and goals and that the essence of the leader-follower relationship is the interaction of persons with different levels of motivation and power potential in pursuit of common goals or purposes.

The above point implies that the nature of relationship between faculty deans and staff is more subtle than the wielding of naked power, so that the deans are expected to understand the best ways to enact leadership styles that are more able to motivate staff to effectively deliver on the common goals expressed in the vision and mission statements of the faculties. Hence, in the Libyan religious and cultural contexts, the researcher reiterates the view that the values and aspirations shared among university deans and faculty workers are ingrained in the Islamic faith and the collectivist national culture (Bangash, 2000; Haddara & Enanny, 2009; Hofstede, 1994; and Hofstede et al., 2010). These values include fairness, trust, love, family feeling, commitment, and responsibilities for the welfare of others, which are foundational to the collective leadership idea, mentioned above, and are further explored later on in this literature review.

Other researchers such as Northouse (2007) also viewed leadership from the morality perspective. He points out that both leaders and followers are involved in the leadership process and leaders have an ethical responsibility to attend to the needs and concerns of followers. Moulton (2004) perceives leadership as an activity or group of activities, observable to others, that happens in a group, organization or institution and which involves a leader and followers who willingly subscribe to common purposes and work together to achieve them.

Jago (1982) defines leadership from a process perspective and states that leadership is a process that uses non-coercive influence to direct and coordinate the activities of the members of an organised group toward the accomplishment of group objectives. He also noted that leadership is a property ascribed to an individual by members of the group when they perceive the individual to possess certain attributes.

The idea that leadership involves processes and systematic practices with requisite skills, knowledge and attitudes implies that faculty deans should understand the different processes and their links to leadership effectiveness, hence this study. However, this research is focused mainly on understanding the perceived leadership styles of faculty deans in Libya *as is*, a positivist view on what the deans actually do, as opposed to a normative outlook on what they should do in specific situations. The idea of leadership effectiveness is interestingly elaborated upon in the following notes.

Yukl (2010) is of the view that leadership occurs when one person in a group stands out and leads the others, who are then referred to as followers or subordinates, and this person has the ability to influence, motivate, and enable the followers to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the institution. DePree (1989) views leadership as the art of liberating people to do what is required of them in the most effective and humanly way possible. He argues that leadership is a way of thinking about stewardship. He views a leader as the 'servant' of his followers in that he removes the obstacles that prevent them from doing their job effectively. Thus, to DePree (1989), the true leader enables his or her followers to realise their full potential.

The above remarks apply to Libyan higher educational leadership. The 'servant' leadership perspective applies even more forcefully to faculty leadership in Libya when considered in the light of such communal terms as family orientation, love and commitment to other peoples' welfare, which are enshrined in Libyan culture and Islamic religion. Moreover, these features of Libyan leadership practices are motivated by the post-1969 socialist revolution detailed in the Green Book of the Libyan Jamahiriya.

Davies et al. (1990) argue that leadership is about vision, motivating, managing teams, creating appropriate structures, and being as concerned with people as with the task. Contributing to the meaning of leadership, West and Ainscow (1991, p.29) suggest that "leadership is the process of influencing group behaviour towards common goals". They view leadership as a process which recognises the futility of separating people from each other and which seeks constantly to find new and effective ways of integrating human activity, releasing skills and abilities, and encouraging everyone to take on an active leadership role. These views echo the importance of commitment and family feeling in motivating faculty workers to give their best to achieving target outcomes in their roles.

In terms of appropriate structures for leadership performance, the researcher notes that traditional university structures exist in Libyan universities, such as departments, faculties, and other units or centres of activity. However, in Libya these structures are reconceived as Peoples' Committees to foster a deeper sense of collective ownership, and hence a more vigorous enforcement of collective decision making than is the case with mere democratic decision making in traditional Western contexts. To expand on this point more, it is seen in Chapters 6 and 7 of this thesis that whereas in democratic leadership faculty deans consult their staff on issues, the deans ultimately decide what to do and how best to do it, in the collective approach all decisions and approaches for implementing them are primarily taken by the Peoples' Committees.

Other social science researchers emphasize three main elements - influence, group and goals - in the definition of Leadership. For example, Bryman (1992) defines Leadership in terms of a process of social influence, whereby a leader steers members of a group towards a goal. Similarly, Northouse (2007) views leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group to achieve a common goal.

Despite the numerous ways in which leadership has been conceptualised, Northouse (2007, pp. 2-3) argues that there are several components that can be identified as central to the phenomenon of leadership:

- a) Leadership is a process;
- b) Leadership involves influence;
- c) Leadership occurs within a group context; and
- d) Leadership involves goal attainment.

He suggests that leadership might have as much to do with making helpful suggestions as with making strategic decisions; it might be as much about listening to other peoples' ideas as about expounding your own, and as much about gentleness as about toughness. Hollander (1984) defines leadership as a process of influence between a leader and those who are followers; while the leader may have power, his or her influence depends more on persuasion than on coercion. The researcher agrees with the above points and reiterates that how these leadership components are operationalized in Libyan university faculties is the core interest of this research. In Hollander's view, persuasion in faculty leadership in Libya involves deans winning over staff to commit to their tasks more conscientiously through caring for staff welfare and professional

growth, motivating and rewarding their achievements. The following points support these view further.

Definitions of leadership have advanced beyond the setting of goals and accomplishing them. Beare et al. (1997, p.25) stress the importance of meaning and values in leadership. They are of the view that the effectiveness of a leader lies in the ability to give others a sense of understanding of what they are doing. Relating the above ideas to this research, the exercise of leadership by deans of Libyan public universities requires an understanding of their influence as leaders in pursuing certain goals that represent their own values and motivations, as well as that of their followers.

From the foregoing, there seems to be no consensus on how to define leadership. Though some key pillars such as goal, group and influence have been identified by various researchers, these are dependent on contexts. In the Libyan context, deans' motivation of faculty staff around collectively defined visions and goals draws from the Islamic values of trust, love, brotherhood (family feeling), and the post-1969 socialist ideology by which workers voice in organizations are facilitated by active participation in organizational decision making through Peoples' Committees. These ideas are explored later in the chapter in the section dealing with analytical framework for situated leadership studies.

3.5 Leadership approaches

Several approaches to leadership have been studied by researchers. This section examines these approaches in order to understand how they relate to leadership styles of deans in Libyan public universities. The different leadership approaches discussed below include Great Man Theory, Trait, Situational, Behavioural, Path-goal, and Power-influence approaches.

3.5.1 Great Man Theory

Great Man Theory (GMT) is the well-spring from which much of the leadership literature derives (Bass, 1990; Bennis & Joan, 2003; Burns, 1978; *McGinn, 2009*) and is one of the early approaches to explaining leadership. The term "great man" was used because at that time leadership was envisaged primarily as a male quality, especially in the field of military leadership (Bolden, et al 2003; Cherry, 2011).

This approach is based on the belief that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, and destined to lead (McGinn, 2009). It assumes that the capacity for leadership is inherent - that great leaders are born not made. In other words, leadership is something that leaders have and others don't such that men like Emperor Napoleon, Alexander the Great, and Nelson Mandela are seen as great leaders because of who they were (McGinn, 2009). This approach to understanding leadership portrays great leaders as heroic, mythic, and destined to rise to leadership when needed (McGinn, 2009). The approach suggests that leaders have certain traits which led researchers to examine the trait approach to leadership.

There is a sense in which university leadership in Libya is antithetic to the GMT approach since the prevalent leadership model in Libya is generally democratic (or collective) so that faculty deans do not ascribe their achievements only to their personal merits, but to the collective contributions of all faculty staff. This characteristic of deans' leadership styles is supported by the research evidence presented in Chapter 6 and discussed in Chapter 7 of this thesis.

3.5.2 The Trait Approach

The Trait Approach arose from the "Great Man" theory as a way of identifying the key characteristics of successful leaders. Thus the trait approach emphasizes the personal qualities of leaders with the belief that through this approach critical leadership traits could be isolated and people with such traits could then be recruited, selected, and installed into leadership positions (Gill, 2006; Northouse, 2007). This approach was common in the military and is still used as a set of criteria to select candidates for commissions (Gill, 2006; Northouse, 2007).

In this study, the quest to understand the leadership styles of Libyan deans is invariably the quest to understand the particular traits that define their leadership as distinct to faculty deans in other cultural and religious contexts. Hence, in Chapters 6 and 7 of this thesis the researcher elicits the personal and leadership traits of Libyan deans using interviews that reveal their personal qualifications as well as preferred leadership styles.

The trait approach assumes that leaders could be identified by specific traits or characteristics (Bass & Bass, 2008; Bennis & Nanus, 2007; Gill, 2006; Northouse, 2007; Stogdill, 1974). The review of literature shows that there are three broad types of

traits: a) physical elements such as height, weight, appearance and age; b) ability characteristics such as intelligence, scholarship and knowledge, knowing how to get things done, and fluency of speech; and c) other personality features such as self-confidence, inter-personal sensitivity and emotional control, (Stogdill & Bass 1990; Northouse, 2007).

Hundreds of trait studies were carried out during the 1930s and 1940s but according to Stogdill (1974) these efforts failed to find common traits that would guarantee leadership success. Failure of the trait approach has been attributed to the following reasons. First, it provides only a list of traits and skills found to be productive, and these are not helpful in understanding leadership. Second, it fails to tell what these leaders actually do in performing their day to day leadership tasks. Thirdly, measurements used by researchers in this approach did not include psychological scaling (Smith and Peterson, 1988), which would reveal the mindsets that support effective use of such traits. These points reinforce the importance of studies that explore the perceived leadership styles of leaders in specific leadership situations such as this research.

Fisher (1990) concludes that the trait approach plainly cannot account for changes of leadership within the same group, and no single trait has been consistently linked with leadership. Furthermore, Northouse (2007) criticized the trait approach to understanding leadership by noting that it has not adequately linked the traits of leaders with other outcomes such as group and team performance. Also, this approach is not particularly useful for training and development for leadership because individuals' personal attributes are largely stable and fixed, and therefore their traits are not open to change.

In spite of these criticisms, Kirkpatrick & Locke (1991) argue that "It is unequivocally clear that Leaders are not like other people" (p 48), and that leaders differ from non-leaders on six traits. These are drive, desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability and knowledge of the business. This point suggests that whilst the trait approach does not in itself fully explain leadership performance, knowledge of the traits commonly associated with successful leaders will help to train potential leaders to exhibit those traits.

Moreover, it is arguable that leadership effectiveness in achieving positive outcomes is dependent on how well leaders marshal their personal traits to deliver organizational success along four main axes: people focus; professionalism; performance; and positive

outlook (Owen, 2009; Coleman & Glover, 2010; Rosen, 1996; Puccio et al., 2007; and Bass & Riggio, 2006). These offer a pragmatic view of leadership in terms of the relevant foci of effective leadership which successful leaders should keep in mind including faculty deans in Libyan universities. These ideas are therefore explored further in Chapters 6 and 7 of the thesis in discussing the implications of the research findings for leadership development in Libya and other Arab countries.

The researcher argues that opportunities for developing latent traits which leaders may possess in the context of real leadership situations arise when people are appointed into such positions. It is expected that in the Libyan university system these appointments are based on merit instead of other influences that are not associated with deans' merits and qualifications. If this is not the case in some situations, then it poses a constraint to effective faculty leadership. It should be noted, however, that these expectations may not be the case in collective societies like Libya where nepotism could be so powerful as to limit meritocracy. This research will elicit from deans views about constraints on leadership effectiveness that could shed more light on this point in the Libyan context.

This difficulty with trait theory led to the search for other approaches such as the situational and contingency models led by scholars like Fiedler (1987) and House & Mitchel (1974).

3.5.3 Situational Approach

The situational approach sees leadership as specific to the situation in which it is being exercised and is much more focused on how leaders should adapt their leadership style to suit the demands of the followers or the organization (Northouse, 1997). Effective leadership behaviour in the situational approach is dependent on the task, the characteristics of the group and the interpersonal relationships within the group (Northouse, 2007). From the 1960s up and till late 1990s, most leadership research focused on contingency/situational approaches (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1994). They note that theories on leadership can all be characterized as situational approaches.

The situational approach concerns the impact of situational factors upon leaders and followers and focus on particular variables related to the environment that might determine which particular style of leadership is best suited for the situation (Blanchard, 2009). Situations refer to factors such as the nature of the work performed by the leader,

the subordinates' attributes, and the nature of the external environment. The situational approach emphasizes the importance of contextual factors, such as the leader's authority and discretion. It suggests that the effectiveness of leader's behaviour is dependent upon the situation. This means that the leaders' style will be effective in some situations but not in others (Blanchard, 2009). Some overarching situations which contextualize higher education leadership in Libya are the collectivist national culture and the Islamic religion.

Yukl (2006) points out that the situational approach emphasizes the importance of contextual factors which influence leadership processes and that major situational variables include the characteristics of followers, the nature of the work performed by the leader, the type of organization, and the nature of the external environment. Fiedler (1967) argues that leadership performance depends on both the organization and the leader and suggested that situational variables mediate the relationship between leadership style and effectiveness:

“Leadership performance depends then as much on the organization as it depends upon the leader's own attributes. Except perhaps for an unusual case, it is simply not meaningful to speak of an effective leader or of an ineffective leader; we can only speak of a leader who tends to be effective in one situation and ineffective in another “(Fiedler, 1967; p. 261).

Fiedler (1967) in relating performance to leadership style notes that performance is dependent upon the degree to which the situation provides the leader with adequate influence over the group members.

In summary, situational leadership recognises that no leadership style is best in all situations and that leadership success depends upon a number of variables, including the leadership style, qualities of the followers and the situation in which they operate. Through situational leadership a leader matches his or her style to the competence and commitment levels of the subordinates. For this study, situational leadership ideas apply to Libyan university leadership in the sense that faculty deans need to understand the context of faculty leadership within a wider situation of overall university goals, the performance expectations from faculties towards achieving the goals and the value exchanges with society with respect to the quality of graduate outcomes produced by the faculties. These goals and outcomes are vital inputs in the vision setting activities of the deans and their faculty workers.

Though not directly related to situational leadership, it is noteworthy that effective faculty leadership demands that the deans operationalize to some degree, depending on their individual traits, the four premises of the leadership capability model espoused by Mumford (2010) and explored in some detail in Puccio et al., (2007):

- a) Effective leadership can be framed in terms of requisite capabilities, knowledge and skills;
- b) The development of these capabilities should begin with a determination of the expected performance requirements placed on the leaders;
- c) A leader's performance in an organizational context and emerging situations is based on how successfully the leader facilitates the followers toward meaningful goals; and
- d) Successful goal attainment requires an ability to resolve barriers to progress in an organization. The particular ways leaders operationalize these concepts define their leadership behaviours and as argued below these behaviours are material to leadership success.

In other words, deans should enact leadership styles that enable them to more successfully deal with the different leadership situations that emerge in their day-to-day management of the faculties; this remark reiterates the fact that all leadership experiences are situated in specific contexts which leaders must deal with competently.

3.5.4 The Behavioural Approach

The challenges of the situational approach in explaining leadership such as its inadequacy in explaining the link between styles and situations and inconsistent research findings, causality problem and measurement problems has led researchers to consider other approaches such as the behavioural approach which focuses on the supposed personal characteristics of the leader as variables that influence leadership success (Yukl, 2006). The behavioural approach is concerned with identifying the kind of leader behaviour that enhances the effectiveness of subordinates (Yukl, 2006, 2010; Richard L. Daft & Patricia G. Lane, 2011).

The behavioural approach is different from the trait approach because the latter focuses on the supposed personal characteristics of the leader, while the former emphasises the observable behaviour of the leader. In other words, the behavioural approach focuses on what leaders actually do on the job (Robbins, 2003). To a large extent, this study

examines the leadership behaviours of faculty deans in Libyan public universities. Hence, an understanding of the behavioural approach to leadership is essential to the study and provides a language for discussing the findings in subsequent chapters of the thesis.

The major dimensions of leaders' behaviour involve two factors (consideration and initiation), (Robbins, 2003; Stogdill, 1948). Consideration refers to the extent to which the leader listens to the group members, shows concern for their welfare, is friendly and approachable, expresses appreciation for good work, treats subordinates as equals, increases subordinates' work and maintains their self-esteem, reduces inter-personal conflict and puts subordinates' suggestions into operation (Robbins, 2003). Initiation on the other hand, refers to task related behaviour such as initiating and organizing activities in the group, planning activities, facilitating goal achievements, providing feedback for the group, maintaining standards and meeting deadlines, deciding in detail what should be done, establishing clear channels of communication, organizing work tightly, structuring the work context, and providing a clear-cut definition of role responsibility (Robbins, 2003; Haddara and Enanny, 2009).

These behaviours in the case of faculty deans in Libyan universities are framed by institutional guidelines on roles and responsibilities of deans and faculty staff as well as external influences and resource constraints. Robbins, (2003) conclude that there are no best traits or types of behaviour for all situations. Behavioural approaches focus on the actions of leaders, not on characteristics such as mental qualities. Accordingly, people can learn to become leaders through teaching and observation and people with the 'wrong kind' of personality traits would probably have difficulty in learning these skills, but they might be able to do so.

3.5.5 Path-Goal Theory

According to Northouse (2007), leaders exhibit two general kinds of behaviours: task behaviours and relationship behaviours. Task behaviours assist goal achievement and help group members to achieve their objectives. Relationship behaviours help followers feel comfortable with themselves, with each other, and with the situation in which they find themselves. The challenges associated with the behavioural approaches to understanding leadership led to the development of the path-goal approach which focuses on motivation to explain leadership.

Path-goal theory was developed to explain how leaders motivate subordinates to be productive, satisfied with their work and to accomplish agreed goals (Gill, 2006; Northouse, 2007). Northouse (2010) adds that the path-goal theory emphasizes the relationship between the leader's style and the characteristics of the subordinates and their work setting. Wright (1996, p.62) cites House (1971, p.324), who states that the central tenet of path-goal theory is that "the motivation functions of the leader consist of increasing personal payoff to the subordinate for work-goal attainment, and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing road blocks and pitfalls, increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route". He further notes that a leader's behaviour is acceptable and satisfying to subordinates to the extent that the subordinates see such behaviour as either an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental to future satisfaction.

The path-goal theory is derived from expectancy theory, which suggests that employees will be motivated if they feel competent, if they think their efforts will be rewarded, and if they feel the payoff for their work is worthwhile. A leader can help subordinates by selecting a style of leadership (for example directive, supportive, participative, or achievement-oriented) that provides what is 'missing' for subordinates in a particular work setting. This implies that the path-goal approach builds on the situational approach to leadership. The researcher thinks that the path-goal theory could be criticised for not providing a clear understanding of how a leaders' behaviour directly affects subordinate behaviour. In addition, it makes no distinction between the hierarchical level of a leader and his or her ability to motivate employee behaviour. This probably led researchers to examine the power relationship between a leader and his subordinates. This approach is summarised in the next section as explained below.

3.5.6 Power-Influence Approach

The power-influence approach views leadership as a relationship in which leaders exercise power and influence over followers (Martin, B., Cashel, C., Wagstaff, M. and Breunig M., 2006; Yukl, 2006; Janda, 1960; Tannenbaum et al., 1961; Katz and Khan, 1978). Yukl (2002) defines power and influence as a leader's ability or capacity to influence and control individuals to do things or to get things done. Harrison (1987) suggests that the terms "power" and "influence" are interchangeable. Barker (1984) defines a leader as "the central person around whom the members of a group are polarized and who has the power and responsibilities to make decisions and establish

policies to direct that group toward its goal(s)" (p. 177). The researcher notes that the approaches to leadership examined in the above sub-sections provide a general language for describing the higher education leadership practices and styles envisaged in this research. The next section therefore discusses how the above leadership approaches are linked to leadership styles. It offers the researcher a better understanding of leadership styles used by deans in Libyan public universities.

3.6 Leadership styles

The review of literature on leadership styles shows that there are many ways to lead and leaders have their own styles. These differences in style range from classical, autocratic approach to creative, participative approach to transactional and transformational leadership, for example. The best determinant of any leadership style is the situation; thus, there is no one best style. Successful leaders adjust their leadership styles to fit the situations in which they operate as well as that of their followers. Consequently, an important aspect of this research is to understand the extent to which faculty deans combine transformational and transactional leadership styles in a collective way.

Previous observations in Chapter 2 of this thesis regarding Islamic and cultural influences on higher education leadership suggest that faculty leadership in Libyan universities is basically supportive in character whilst some elements of directions are involved when deans request staff to perform some roles. Generally, where leadership styles are concerned, some mixture of styles is implied in practice, but these styles manifest in different degrees according to the personalities of the leaders. This point will be expanded up on in this literature and succeeding literature reviews when the different leadership styles would have been introduced.

In the following sections, some main forms of leadership styles that are relevant to the research on leadership of deans in Libyan public universities will be examined. This includes the following leadership styles: autocratic, bureaucratic, democratic, laissez-faire, collaborative, distributed, transactional, and transformational leadership styles. The researcher notes that these leadership styles may be discussed in both literature contexts, where necessary – first in this chapter in order to situate them within the general leadership literature, and secondly in the next chapter where some of them are discussed more analytically in light of their deeper connections with the main ideas in the thesis.

3.6.1 Autocratic leadership style

The autocratic approach to leadership is a very traditional approach. A review of literature on autocratic leadership style shows that the autocratic leader likes to retain power and decision-making (David De Cremer, 2007) and Gandhi Mahatma et al. (2012). This type of leader tells the followers what is to be done and how it should be done, without taking advice from the followers, which limits discussion on ideas and new ways of doing things. (See for example, Gandhi Mahatma et al. 2012). Given the Islamic and collectivist influences on leadership in Libya discussed in Chapter 2 of this thesis, it is not likely that faculty deans will be successful through the autocratic style.

3.6.2 Bureaucratic Leadership Style

The bureaucratic or “structural” frame of reference is derived from a long history of organizational theory with roots in the rational, formal structures and operations of organizations, but it also serves to illuminate organizational “social architecture” and its consequences. This tradition focuses on the formal structures of organizations as the most “important” and prominent feature of any organization and the one that has the greatest influence on leadership behaviours. Classical theorists whose works underpin the bureaucratic model include Henri Fayol, F.W. Mooney, and Col Lyndall Urwick (Morgan, 1997). These theorists codified their insights by drawing on principles prominent in military and engineering areas, focusing on notions of precisely defined, hierarchically-arranged jobs, with clear lines of command and communication. Classical management theory defines the organization as a network of interlocking parts having predictable patterns of authority illustrated in organizational charts, which leaders strive to operate in as efficient and rational a manner as possible.

According to this leadership style, positions of leadership are based on merit and expertise (Berger & Milem, 2000). It is the technical accuracy of leaders’ logical decisions that is valued above all. Leaders seek the proper balance of control and direction so that individuals and groups will not be either too autonomous or too unsupported, and goals will not be too over or under-defined. Likewise, leaders seek to create structure for their organizations or units that will not be too loose or too tight according to changing circumstances, and indeed restructuring is considered one of the most powerful methods leaders use to create change according to the bureaucratic style.

Generally, given the Islamic context of family-oriented leadership and the collectivist national culture, explained in Chapter 2 of the thesis, university leadership in Libya is not likely to be autocratic or overly bureaucratic; it is indeed more likely to be democratic and transformational as the following notes show.

3.6.3 Democratic leadership style

The democratic leadership style, also known as the 'participative' style, encourages followers or employees to be part of the decision-making process. The democratic leader keeps the staff or employees informed about everything that affects their work and shares the decision-making and problem-solving responsibilities with them (Bass, 1990; Gastil, 1994; Flecknoe, 2006). Democratic leaders treat followers as fully capable of doing work on their own, rather than controlling them; democratic leaders work with followers, trying hard to treat everyone fairly, without putting themselves above followers (Northouse, 2012). Democratic leaders trust their team and many employees like the trust they receive from a democratic leader and respond with cooperation, team spirit, and high morale (Flecknoe, 2006). The researcher argues that democratic leadership is coherent with Deans' collectivist leadership in Libya and therefore affords Libyan universities of the above advantages of such a fair style of leadership.

3.6.4 Collaborative Leadership Style

The term Collaborative Leadership describes a more relational leadership in which one or more members of an organisation share leadership tasks while working in the same or different places (Rosenthal, 1998; Huxam & Vengen, 2000). These members are mainly self-led since they have the competences to undertake within their areas of authority. Hence, there is no need for a formal leader even though one of these collaborators may coordinate the leadership activity. An example of collaborative leadership is when managing directors of different divisions of a company collaborate on similar leadership tasks for example the implementation of a new company-wide strategic plan in their divisions. Another example in higher education is when faculty deans collaborate with vice-chancellors in implementing university-wide plans in the different faculties.

Collaborative leadership can have a positive impact on all members of the institution community. Collaborative leadership is needed because it is not reasonable to “expecting one person to single-handedly lead efforts to improve instruction in a complex organization” is not reasonable (Spillane, 2006 p. 26). Sharing leadership and decision-making strengthens the organization by having multiple expert resources available. Faculty deans, lecturers, and administrators can possess skills or valuable tools that may not have been used if they were not encouraged to actively participate in organization. Skilful participation, shared vision, inquiry, collaboration, reflection, and student achievement are the foundations for a collaborative leadership style (Lambert, 2002). Tyrell and Stine (1997) presented research that expressed this position:

“Leadership practices that emphasize cooperative relationships and a shared vision can create educational institutions that aim for excellence. Successful organizations focus on the practices through which everyone participates in defining the common direction and takes on a leadership role because of the desire to excel. The emphasis on cooperative relationships can help bring about a work climate in which self-esteem, commitment, and task accomplishments are so significant that they raise people to higher levels” (p. 34).

In Chapter 4 of the thesis, which is the analytical section of the two-part literature review for the research, the researcher explores collaborative leadership in more detail as one of a number of relational leadership styles (for example distributive, democratic, shared, and super leadership styles).

3.6.5 Distributed Leadership Style

Other leadership styles such as the distributed leadership style encompass more than the function of leadership in its formal roles; it considers what interactions, formal and informal, occur within a given situation (Spillane, 2006). Distributed leadership asks the questions: who, how, why, when, and where did a leader exert his or her knowledge for the betterment of the organisation. If an organization is to learn, move beyond classical organizational structures and produce sustainable results, it must incorporate the distributed perspective of leadership into its organization’s leadership philosophy (Spillane, 2006).

Analysis of the literature shows that the key focus of distributed leadership is on relationships and the organisational situation. Distributed leadership defines the situation in terms of leaders, followers, and the situation and how they achieve those

leadership responsibilities in formal and informal roles given certain situations (Spillane, 2006). In distributed leadership approach, “leaders must start with leadership practice, observe it, infer who the leaders are, and begin to explore the interactions among leaders’ followers, and their situation” (Spillane, 2006, p. 84).

Costigan et al. (1998) noted that distributed leadership shifts leadership role from person to person depending on the stage of the task and nature of the skill set required. He added that understanding the distributed perspective and maximizing the benefit of that knowledge will improve results and long-term organisational sustainability. In the case of faculty leadership, it will be expected that deans will from time to time distribute tasks among staff in line with their capabilities and statutory roles in the faculties. This is why distributed leadership is intrinsic to almost all leadership approaches even though to varying extents; at least the distributive leadership practice is expected to feature strongly in the leadership practices of Libyan faculty deans.

The researcher notes that while it is theoretically tidy to discuss individual leadership styles one at a time, the enactment of leadership in practice by a leader typically blends different styles according to the dispositions and experiences of leaders. Hence, an attempt to identify what could suffice as a working model for understanding the process of faculty leadership in Libyan universities, as in this research, should focus on the manifested leadership practices in the first instance, and then examine what leadership styles are accommodated by such practices, and to what extents.

3.6.6 Transformational, Transactional and laissez-faire Leadership styles

The leadership styles examined above were categorised by Burns (1978) into transformational leadership and transactional leadership as two different poles of an effective leadership style continuum. Transactional leadership was identified as contributing to the improved performance of employees of organisations in exchange for the satisfaction of their physical, personal, or work needs and interests (Yukl, 2006). However, once a certain level of transaction is attained, followers’ perceived value of needs and goals can be raised to a high standard by transformational leadership behaviours. For this research, it is expected that faculty deans could use transactional leadership strategies to encourage young faculty into reasonably good performance of

their roles, but beyond a certain level of performance effectiveness the deans will facilitate more profound performances using transformational strategies.

Yukl (2010) further argued that this is likely to result in mutually elevated performances of leaders and followers. Transactional leaders achieve performance simply by the use of contingent reward or negative feedback (Hater and Bass, 1988). They argue that previous research has shown that subordinates' perceptions of transformational leadership adds to the prediction of subordinate satisfaction and effectiveness rating beyond that of perceptions of transactional leadership. Transactional leadership seeks to motivate followers through extrinsic rewards (Bittel, 1984; Bass, 1990; Hughes et al., 1999). Transactional leaders provide their followers with vision and take the values, needs, motivations, and purposes of followers as given, unchanging, and fused.

Bass (1985) viewed transactional and transformational leadership in organisations as two distinct leadership behaviours which can exist at the same time. While transactional leadership also affects the development of followers and their productivity, it does so to a lesser degree than transformational leadership (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). Transformational leadership benefits both the organisation and the individual (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

On the other hand laissez-faire leadership style according to Burns (1978) and other researchers (see Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998 & Northouse, 2012) is marked by a general failure to take responsibility for managing (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003). Bass and Avolio (1994) also gave a similar definition of this leadership style by describing it as the absence of leadership, the avoidance of intervention, or both. With laissez-faire (avoiding) leadership, there are generally neither transactions nor agreements with followers. Decisions “are often delayed; feedback, rewards, and involvement are absent; and there is no attempt to motivate followers or to recognize and satisfy their needs” (p. 20).

As a result, a laissez-faire leadership style is not only a type of zero leadership; it implies not meeting the legitimate expectations of the subordinates and superiors concerned (Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007). Laissez-faire leadership is by the above descriptions similar to ‘nobody in charge’ leadership idea which the researcher explores in the section of this literature review focused on analytical frameworks for leadership studies.

Finally, the researcher notes that transformational and transactional leadership styles provide important analytical frameworks for discussing the perceived leadership styles of faculty deans in Libyan universities especially the transformational model as one of the current and acceptable theories of leadership that has been seen as a new paradigm in the study of leadership. Consequently, while the researcher briefly explains these leadership styles in this part of the literature review, more analytical discussions of the styles are presented in Chapter 4 of the thesis.

3.7 Leadership and higher education institutions

The link between leadership and higher education has been fore-fronted in the background notes in Chapter 2 of this thesis. This section reviews additional literature on leadership and higher education institutions in general as a foundation for further discussions of the ideas more analytically in Chapter 4 of the thesis. The basis for evaluation of any leadership style in higher education must be whether the leadership style can produce sustainable improvement for the students in higher education (Coleman and Glover, 2010). As contained in Ghaddafi's (1969) post-revolution Green Book, the vision of Higher education institutions in Libya is to create and transfer knowledge to the Libyan economy through its teaching, research and other activities. Effective leadership in higher education is imperative to achieve this. In contemporary societies, educational institutions play a major part in shaping the future development of the society and preparing each new educated generation for every sector of society (Coleman and Glover, 2010).

A great majority of academic leaders come from diverse academic disciplines, Leaders in higher education should not just manage the institution to run smoothly but make the institution progress over time (Coleman and Glover, 2010; Bass and Riggio, 2006). Institutional progress most often requires continuous systematic changes and very rarely extremely radical changes that actually alter the goals and values of the institution.

In this kind of change-driven educational setting, transformational leaders are most likely to perform better compared to other leaders since they have an ability to motivate followers toward the designated changes with enduring high levels of motivation and morality (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Researchers such as Glanz (2007) found that the transformational leadership style has a greater positive impact on change-driven educational settings than other leadership behaviours. In contrast, Birnbaum (1992)

noted that effective leaders in higher education settings are more transactional leaders than transformational. According to Birnbaum (1992), good leaders of academic institutions change their institutions not by altering institutional goals and values as transformational leaders do, but through transactions that emphasize selected goals and values already in place and move the institution toward attaining them.

Birnbaum (1992) stated that "because the goals and purposes of an academic institution are likely to be shaped by its history, its culture, and the socialization and training of its participants, rather than by an omnipotent leader, attempts at transformational leadership are more likely to lead to disruption and conflict than to desirable outcomes" (p. 29). It can be argued that this limitation may not necessarily hold for a mixed approach in which a leader is selectively transformational or transactional as the situation demands. This is the case with faculty deans who could be transactional at the early stages of developing younger faculty but transformational as the faculty mature into more demanding roles.

Other forms of leadership, such as shared leadership, in educational institutions have been extensively researched and Lambert (2002) argued that "instead of looking to the dean alone for instructional leadership, we need to develop leadership capacity among all members of the faculty community" (p. 37). Given that academics are generally competent and able people, Poley, (2001) noted that leadership of university academics should be shared among them. Leadership in educational institutions should emphasize on developing a shared vision (Tyrell & Stine, 1997) and good relationships between academics and administration (Henkel, 2002). The following section examines leadership from an Islamic perspective to understand how context and culture affect leadership styles.

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed the base literature on leadership theories and practices in order to provide a language and a set of concepts which define what contextual leadership in the Libyan setting entails. The chapter presented an historical overview of leadership which includes the early leadership analyses of the 1900s to 1980s which are focused on characteristics, traits and behaviours of leaders, and the approaches to leadership. It also reviewed the 1990s work on the link between leadership and management.

A number of concepts surfaced in these overviews such as the different perceptions of leadership as relationship between leaders and followers; leadership as process such as this research aims to explicate in the Libyan context; leadership as social influence of leaders and followers within a group and organisational context; servant leadership which particularly applies to the Libyan context; and leadership values such as fairness, trust, compassion, and family-orientedness.

These different perspectives entail leadership and management capabilities which effective leaders including faculty deans should master in order to produce superior leadership performances in the particular contexts facing them. This point was mentioned at different sections of the review in relation to faculty leadership in the Libyan context.

Continuing the lines of reasoning mentioned above, the chapter reviewed the different approaches to leadership such as great man theory, trait, situational, behavioural, path-goal theory, and power-influence approaches. The review emphasised the points that leadership requires a combination of approaches, knowledge, capabilities and skills on the part of the leader, in order to coerce the best performance from followers in specific organisational contexts. For example, it was noted under the path-goal theory that contextual leadership relates leadership styles to both characteristics of subordinates and the work setting. This idea clearly applies to this research in the sense that faculty deans should relate their preferred leadership styles to the competences of the faculty workers and the university context, including also external national contexts such as the culture, religion and political system of Libya.

Similarly, a look at the power-influence approach identified different elements of powers for example reward, coercive, legitimate, expert and referent power, which are broadly categorised as position and personal power. Again, the researcher views faculty dean's leadership activity as an enactment of these different forms of power within the faculty, university and wider national contexts, with the aim of getting the best performance out of faculty workers.

The chapter examined different leadership styles such as autocratic, bureaucratic, democratic, laissez-faire, collaborative, distributed, transformational and transactional styles. It was noted that some of these leadership styles for example autocratic leadership cannot conceivably be considered suitable to faculty leadership in Libya, given the country's collectivist culture underpinned by Islamic religious principles of oneness and family feeling in organisations. It was also noted that relational forms of leadership such as shared and distributed leadership are more likely to feature in faculty leadership in Libyan universities for these same reasons.

In addition, it is felt that whatever the preferred leadership styles of faculty deans, some elements of transformational and transactional leadership could be involved in the leadership. Hence, 'transformational leadership has a greater impact in change-driven educational settings than other leadership behaviours' (Glanz, 2000). Also, effective higher education leadership is viewed as requiring the leaders (for example Faculty Deans) to focus attention on 'transactions that emphasise selected goals and values and move followers towards attaining them' (Lambert, 2002). The point here is that understanding all these leadership ideas provides the kind of general theoretical background on which this research rests.

Finally, the general literature on leadership theories and practices covered in this chapter suggest, as mentioned above, that relational leadership as well as transformational and transactional leadership styles could be relevant to an understanding of faculty leadership in Libyan universities. The next chapter explores these perspectives more intimately as analytical frameworks for developing the process of faculty leadership in Chapters 6 and 7 of the thesis.

CHAPTER 4: CRITICAL PERSPECTIVES ON LEADERSHIP APPLIED TO THE LIBYAN CONTEXT

4.1 Analytical frameworks for leadership studies

As mentioned in Chapter 3 above, this part of the literature review explores the analytical frameworks for discussing leadership literature especially as relates to this research. The frameworks provide methodological support for the study design, choice of research instruments, data analysis procedures, and interpretation of observed leadership styles of faculty deans in Libyan universities discussed in Chapters 6 & 7 of the thesis. Thus, they inform the research questions to the study stated at the end of the chapter.

To reiterate remarks made at the beginning of Chapter 3 on general leadership ideas, in this chapter applies relational, transformational and transactional leadership styles to an understanding of situated leadership in the Libyan context. This is because the transformational and transactional styles provide the basis for thinking about change and progress in organisations. These styles can be operationalized both individualistically and in a team approach so this chapter explores these dynamics in the Libyan context.

4.2 Functions and dimensions of leadership

The researcher recalls the following four basic dimensions of the role of a teacher leader (Faculty Deans in this study) discussed in Harris (2003, p. 78):

- Brokering: the idea that staff broker school improvement by translating principles of leadership and action into effective classroom, research, and community project practices. This is seen as *leadership of practice*. Examples of brokering in universities include research groups focused on key research themes in specific disciplines, similar university-industry consortia which bring academics and industry professionals into collaboration aimed at solving relevant industry problems, and discipline-based research and consulting activities.
- Participating: whereby staff are empowered to co-own particular changes and developments within a school, so that school work is collaborative and directed towards collective goals. This can be seen as *leadership of the school*. Examples of

school/faculty leadership include inter-faculty research collaborations within a university, joint faculty research seminars and workshops with other faculties in other universities, and effective within-faculty joint PhD supervisions by academics as well as innovative supervisors-student relationships.

- Mediating: for which everyone contributes their own expertise and thereby mediates school performance in such a way that encourages them to seek personal assistance. This can be seen as *leadership/management of resources*.
- Relationships: which involve mutual and collaborative learning among staff so that a primary function of leadership is to encourage professional learning and development in different areas of skills and expertise which define different staff roles and responsibilities. This can be seen as *leadership of learning*.

As hinted above, faculty deans need to play all these roles in order to foster faculty success; they should have the capacities to lead the practice of the constituent disciplines in the faculty, lead the faculty by encouraging staff-wide participation, lead and manage the available resources in the faculty in addition to growing the revenue base of the faculty through grants and income-generating application of knowledge developed within the faculty, and lead learning through mutual relationships with and among faculty staff.

By examining how Faculty Deans in Libyan universities perform their leadership responsibilities, this study will contribute to an understanding of how deans succeed in these dimensions of leadership; this will be achieved through reflections of how their perceived leadership styles support success in the above four dimensions of leadership. If, for instance, a working model of faculty leadership in the Libyan context is produced from the study, then the model will provide a good basis for such reflections on ways to improve the effectiveness of the deans in that context and accommodating the four dimensions of leadership, in addition to any constraints imposed by the context on leadership effectiveness. This note on the usefulness of this study to leadership improvement in the Libyan context is supported by the following remarks on the directions for further work suggested in the leadership literature.

4.3 Analytical frameworks for understanding shared and individual leadership styles

4.3.1 Relational leadership styles in an organizational setting

Shared leadership styles (SL) connote leadership in which two or more actors work together in time and place to perform the same leadership actions; collaborative leadership in which individuals carry out interdependent actions; coordinated distribution for which two or more individuals perform sequential leadership tasks; and collective distribution, where leadership is stretched over two or more leaders who work separately (for example divisional managers, academic heads of departments, and faculty deans leading collectively different aspects of a faculty). Figure 4.1 below maps these different aspects of SL in relation to each other, based on their degree of adherence to Gronn’s (2002) dimensions of concertive action and conjoint agency.

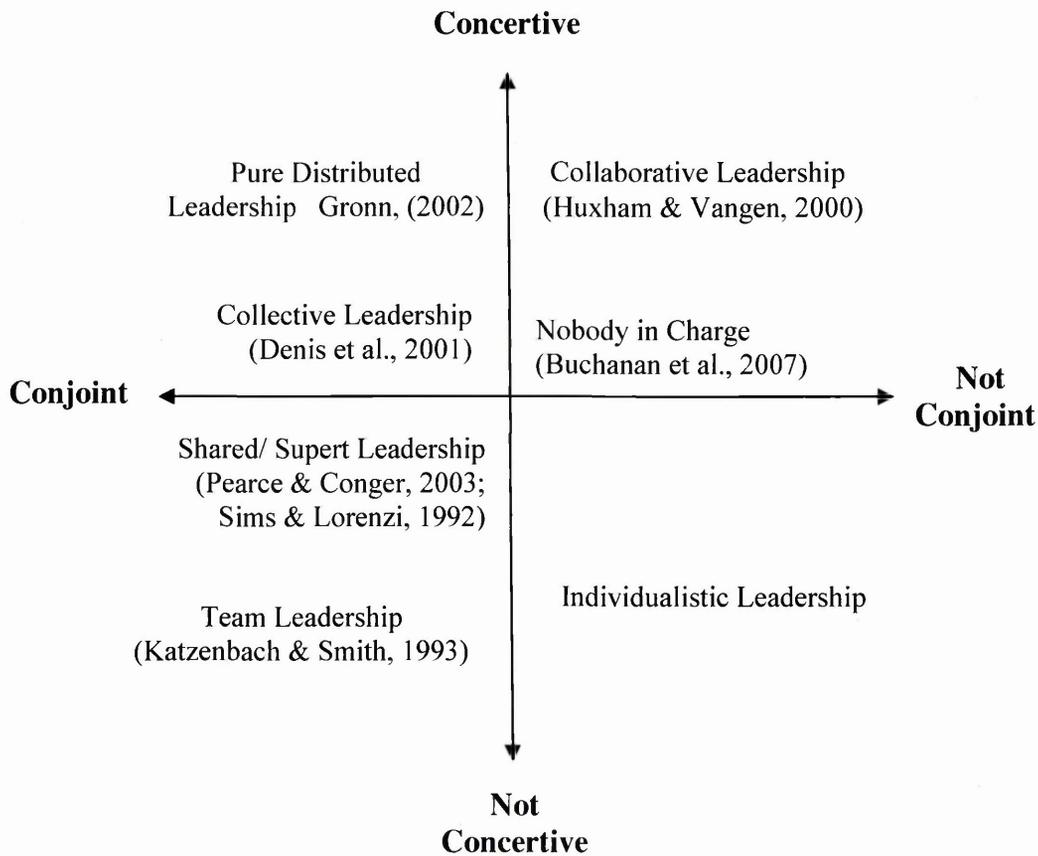


Figure 4-1: The spectrum of DL leadership variants (adapted from Figure 1 of Currie and Lockett, 2011, p. 288)

Firstly, note that concrete action accommodates spontaneous collaboration between individuals, shared leadership roles based on implicit trust between the collaborating individuals, and institutionalised practices and mechanisms which form part of the natural way leadership is enacted in an organisation. Conjoint agency is more about the direction of leadership influence and the alignment of leadership action across different people based on reciprocal influence. In this sense, both dimensions are necessary for effective leadership to happen. This is because concrete action without conjoint agency will produce directionless leadership, while conjoint agency without concrete action may result in mere aggregation of leadership in a common direction but which is barren of needful synergies and reciprocal influence.

By using these two dimensions of leadership action as grid lines, Figure 4.1 partitions the leadership action space into four quadrants representing different combinations of low to high levels of each type of action. On this grid, pure distributed leadership (DL) is located in the top left-hand quadrant showing high levels of both actions. Similarly, other forms of shared leadership are located such that they combine the two dimensions of DL and warrant a “degree of organization for DL driven by formal leaders” (Currie and Lockett, 2011 p. 290). Hence, DL does not imply an absence of a leadership hierarchy, but requires top-down activity for its enactment. A weaker or ‘impure’ form of DL may, as shown in the figure, may lead to ‘nobody in charge’ or collaborative leadership. In effect, effective leadership such as may be enacted by faculty deans in higher education requires a juggling of the various styles of DL on the grid, a form of blended leadership. Note that this blending of leadership styles may encompass traditional leadership styles such as transformational and transactional leadership styles as instruments for achieving concerted action.

As captured in the grid, ‘super-leadership’ (‘leading others to lead themselves’), team leadership’ and ‘collective leadership’ are aspects of ‘shared leadership’, which views leadership as a set of practices that can and should be undertaken by staff at all levels of an organisation. It shows the skills and capacities necessary for producing collective learning. Such skills include building commitment and confidence in others, removing obstacles to success in action taking, creating opportunities and being part of a team. The ‘collective’ leadership aspect of shared leadership (see Denis et al., 2001) allows the effect of external factors such as externally imposed higher education and government policy on the enactment of DL in higher education.

Consequently, context frames the interactions of leadership actors such as deans with faculty staff, rules, and learning facilities in the discharge of their leadership responsibilities. This view reiterates Spillane's (2006) ideas earlier discussed in this literature review. In other words, Spillane and co-authors suggest that executing change within complex organisations like universities requires a sharing of strategic roles with members of a 'leadership constellation' akin to 'strategic distribution'. In this way, the constellation members work more harmoniously recognising that there is a limit to the potential with which each alone can drive the transformational change in a complex organisation with multiple roles, responsibilities, and expectations. In effect, "this, more collective leadership approach, assembles the necessary variety of skills, expertise and sources of influence and legitimacy" required to smooth the path of leadership. These ideas clearly apply to all organisations to different degrees, depending on the nature of rules and institutionalised practices which govern human interactions in the organisations.

For this study, it has been argued earlier in this review that faculty deans could deploy different forms of distribution of leadership (possibly power and influence) to different levels of faculty staff – heads of department, directors of research institutes, senior administrators, and so on. All in all, 'collective' leadership is not as top-down as pure DL, for instance. It is more bottom-up and democratic. The point to remember here is that 'collective' leadership by dint of its location nearer the middle of Figure 4.1 is flexible enough for a leader to mix appropriate degrees of concrete action and conjoint agency as leadership situations may demand. This study will for these reasons use the analytical framework represented by Figure 4.1 to critically examine the character of leadership of Libyan university faculties expected to be surfaced through analysis of the research results. This analysis is performed in Chapter 6 of the thesis.

The attraction for exploring DL and shared leadership forms here is because change-focused leadership 'needs to be very widely dispersed' to aggregate change impacts across more actors with more skills and resources as argued above (Buchanan et al., 2007). In a sense, to produce effective change "leadership needs to be numerous, transient, fluid, migratory, ambiguous and distributed, with many leadership actors engaging and disengaging over time" (Currie and Lockett, 2011, p. 291).

Finally, the researcher locates and explicates 'collaborative' leadership on the grid in Figure 4.1 thus. Currie and Lockett (2011) describe this form of leadership as enacted only through actors identified as leaders (such as faculty deans and heads of departments), but also in accordance with organisational structures and rules of play. Most often these structures are outside the control of the actors, for example a dean may not be in control of the resources to undertake certain tasks if the resources are concentrated in the presidency of a university. Hence, the 'leading' expected of actor-leaders is often constrained by dilemmas and difficulties, so that the leadership outcomes may not match the intentions of the actors. This remark is important for this study since faculty deans' leadership styles and performances should be examined in light of any constraints which are likely to limit their success in so doing.

4.3.2 Transformational and transactional leadership in an organisational setting

Many scholars have written extensively about leadership and about transformational leadership in particular. In this section, the researcher takes leadership in organisations as the point of departure, because leadership in education springs from the practice in organisations in general. Hater and Bass (1988), in their study of superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership, ascertained that transformational leadership can be responsible for performance levels beyond ordinary expectations. This is because it transmits a sense of mission, stimulates learning experiences, and arouses new ways of thinking. In the words of Currie and Lockett (2011, p. 288), transformational leadership 'encompasses charisma, inspiration, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation', whereby the leader continually challenges followers through new ideas and approaches (Bass 1985; Bryman 1992; Storey 2004).

On the other hand, transactional leaders achieve performance simply by the use of contingent reward or negative feedback (Hater and Bass 1988). The authors argue that previous research has shown that subordinates' perceptions of transformational leadership adds to the prediction of subordinate satisfaction and effectiveness rating beyond that of perceptions of transactional leadership. Hence, it is of interest in this study to explore how faculty staff in Libyan universities rates their deans' leadership performance in relation to both transformational and transactional leadership styles.

Bycio et al. (1995) assess Bass's (1985) conceptualisation of transformational and transactional leadership and point out that although transformational and transactional leaders both display varying amounts of participative decision styles (Bass 1985), transformational leadership would seem to be congruent with a better-educated work force. They gave the example of a work force that is eager to apply and develop its abilities on a job and would probably strive under a leader who transmits a sense of mission, stimulates learning experiences, and arouses new ways of thinking. On the other hand, leaders who simply reward performance in restricted ways are not likely to energise a work force expecting personal achievement.

Barling et al (1996) conducted a field experiment with 20 managers trained in transformational leadership techniques and compared them with a control group who had not received training. They found training to have an effect, especially on managers' intellectual stimulation. Followers' commitment and performance also increased as consequences of their managers' training and tendency to become more transformational in their leadership style. In other words, transformational leadership training significantly influenced subordinates' perceptions of leaders' effectiveness, subordinates' own organizational commitment, and aspects of branch-level performance. They concluded that, although the experiment needed to be replicated using a larger sample, different outcome criteria and different contexts, nevertheless training managers in transformational leadership may well exert significant effects. This evidence suggests that it would be interesting if faculty deans in Libyan universities were revealed to use transformational leadership into their repertoire of leadership strategies.

Dvir (1998) conducted a field study of Defence Force military; Infantry platoon commanders, finding that those who had undergone the transformational leadership training were less passive and less likely to 'manage-by-exception'. Management-by-exception is one of the key aspects of transactional leadership. The comparison group did not demonstrate the same effects, either in ratings of leadership or in performance. In contrast to the comparison group, the platoons led by commanders trained in transformational leadership had a higher sense of self-efficacy and belonging, and were higher in four of six measures of objective performance in the six months following training.

The above two reviews show that transformational leadership can be taught and its effects measured, and that if its techniques are taught to leaders it can bring a positive influence. This implies that transformational leadership training has the potential to enhance leadership performance of faculty deans in Libyan universities, which is of interest in this study.

Avolio and Howell (1993) examined transformational leadership, transactional leadership and support for key innovations. Their results revealed that three transformational processes were associated with higher internal flow of controls and significantly and positively predicted business unit performance over a one-year interval. Transactional measures of leadership, including contingent reward and management-by-exception (active and passive), were each negatively related to business-unit performance. The level of support for innovation in the business unit influenced relationships between the transformational leadership behaviours and unit performance.

Bennis and Nanus (2007) conducted an in-depth study of 90 top leaders in both private and government sectors in the United States of America. They found that all of the leaders were concerned "with the organisation's basic purposes" and all were "vision oriented." The leader's articulation of the vision focuses and energises the organisation's effort. For Bennis and Nanus, vision is grounded in shared meaning and purpose. This remark is important for this study in the sense that transforming leaders motivate performance through focused visions so that an examination of the vision-setting traits of faculty around the strategic goals of the university is important.

Two of the most researched styles of leadership employed by organizational leaders are transactional and transformational leadership (Parry, 2002). In his book *Leadership*, James MacGregor Burns (1978) distinguished the difference between the transactional and transformational models of leadership. Transactional leadership is based on the exchange of implicit bargains between the leader and the follower. It is an exchange process between leaders and followers in which the leader recognizes followers' needs and desires and then clarifies how those needs and desires will be satisfied in exchange for meeting specified objectives. Therefore, leaders benefit from the work and the followers receive rewards for job performance.

In transactional leadership, “the leader gets things done by making, and fulfilling, promises of recognition, pay increases, and advancement for employees who perform well. By contrast, employees who do not do good work are penalized” (Bass, 1990, p. 19). Transactional leaders excel at keeping the organization performing smoothly and efficiently by focusing on the present, Burns (1978) states that although a leadership act has occurred, it is one that “binds leader and follower together in a mutual and continuing pursuit of a higher purpose” (p. 20). Transactional leadership is based on contractual obligations that set objectives and systematically monitor the progress, or lack thereof, of followers, (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003).

While transactional leadership focuses on the exchanges or bargains between leaders and followers, transformational leadership is a “process whereby an individual engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower” (Northouse, 2010). Transformational leaders inspire followers to accomplish great things and lead changes in the organization’s vision, strategy, and culture. Burns (1978) notes that transformational leaders mobilize, inspire, and uplift their followers’ confidence by elevating the value of work outcomes (Bass, 1985; Yammarino & Bass, 1990).

Since the 1980s researchers have supported the idea that transformational leadership has been shown to correlate positively with performance in many studies. In addition, they state, “Theories are used to make public predictions about how certain leadership attributes or behaviors will systematically impact certain leadership effective measures” (Bass, 1985; Yammarino & Bass, 1990, p. 27). However Bennis and Nanus (2007) describe transformational leadership as a collective relationship between leaders and followers. Furthermore, Tichy and Devanna (1986) state that these relationships develop because of the leader’s courage, strong moral purpose, and belief in others. Leaders instill ownership in their followers by involving them in the decision-making process. Transformational leaders yield greater creativity from their members by communicating clear goals and visions and assist group members in finding satisfaction, self-efficacy, and confidence.

Bass and Avolio (1999) suggest that transformational leaders use a process of influence to make a difference in followers’ awareness of opportunities for themselves as well as their organizations. They further contend that transformational leaders treat individuals in the organization with respect and dignity. They use powerful language and goal-

setting skills and aspire to produce change (Kirby, Paradise, & King, 1992). Transformational leaders transform an organization by focusing on long-term goals to develop a vision for the organization and they project that vision onto members of the organization (Howell & Avolio, 1993).

In addition, Bass (1985) viewed transactional and transformational leadership in organisations as two distinct leadership behaviours, which can exist at the same time. Bass (1985, 1990) identified transformational leadership as a behaviour that adds self-actualisation, the feeling of worthwhile accomplishments and self-fulfilment (House et al., 2004), to the outcomes of transactional leadership. Bass (1985, 1990) also reported greater value of transformational leadership behaviours in an environment of warmth and trust, when workers are highly educated and expected to be highly creative. The latter suggests the appropriateness to studying transformational leadership in universities. Transformational leadership is currently one of the most popular approaches to leadership (Northouse, 2010). A recent content analysis of the research published in *Leadership Quarterly* revealed that transformational leadership remains the single most dominant leadership paradigm (Gardner, Lowe, Moss, Mahoney & Cogliser, 2010).

Transformational leadership moves followers to accomplish more than what is usually expected of them (Avolio et al., 1991; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Northouse, 2007). Transformational leadership has been identified as a behaviour that adds self-actualisation, the feeling of worthwhile accomplishments and self-fulfilment, to the outcomes of transactional leadership (House et al., 2004). Bass (1990) also noted that greater value of transformational leadership behaviours can be achieved in an environment of warmth and trust, when workers are highly educated and expected to be highly creative.

The above statement emphasizes the importance of transformational leadership in Libyan universities since the Libyan culture reinforces trust, love and family feeling. In effect, faculty deans will be expected to be transformational in their approach to leadership; the extent to which this is the case is a key objective of this research. Also, the particular manner in which transformational leadership and related leadership practices (democratic, collaborative and transactional for examples) are enacted by faculty deans is of interest in this research, and the author has gleaned insights from Chapter 6 of this thesis that the manner is primarily collective, a point which has been

buttressed by previous references to the influence of a collectivist and Islamic culture (Sweedan, 2000; Hofstede, 2004; Hofstede et al., 2010; Bangash, 2000).

The most important aspect of transformational leadership is its ability to motivate followers to think beyond self. “The premise of this leadership is that whatever the separate interests’ persons might hold, they are presently or potentially united in the pursuit of “higher” goals, the realization of which is tested by the achievement of significant change that represents the collective or pooled interests of leaders and followers” (Burns, 1978, p. 425). Moreover, Bass (1985), in contributing to the concepts of transformational leadership, argued that transformational leaders could create transcendental effect even if the basic needs of their followers were not fulfilled. He referred to various world revolutions that had occurred on the basis of political or religious crises, when groups had been driven by their leaders to take up the challenge to fight for shared goals that transcend personal goals.

Bass (1985) supported Burns’ (1978) conceptions of upgrading of personal needs to foster transformational processes. According to Bass (1985, p.16) “as a consequence of this upgrading of needs, subordinates and followers become self-directing and self-reinforcing and take on greater responsibilities”. Transformational leaders tend to raise their followers’ perceived status from subordinates to participants in leadership and have been shown to change subordinates’ work beliefs and make them transcend self-interest for the sake of organisational interests (Yukl, 2002). Transformational leaders seek to optimise individual and group development rather than just doing what is expected (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Also, transformational leaders are known to convince their followers to strive for moral and ethical standards in work behaviour (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Lowe and Associates (1996) summarised studies on transformational leadership behaviours and noted that transformational leaders at lower levels of management used metaphors and imagery to seek increased effort as well as appropriate transactional strategies.

Yukl (1999) argued that transformational leaders are more likely to develop their followers’ performances by facilitating participation in leadership. It can be argued that transformational leadership behaviours may be particularly successful at the middle-management level or for leadership of small groups, as group leaders may be in direct contact with their followers, and may offer more frequent guidance, feedback, and participation than more distant leaders at higher levels.

Hater and Bass (1988) stated that transformational leadership can be responsible for performance levels beyond ordinary expectations, as it transmits a sense of mission, stimulates learning experiences, and arouses new ways of thinking. Transformational leadership behaviour has been identified to be effective in improving the organisational performance and employee satisfaction (Bass, 1990). Bass (1997) argued that the effectiveness of transformational leadership behaviours varies from culture to culture.

This review of the literature also shows that transformational leadership behaviours vary with the type of organisation. Lowe et al. (1996) found that transformational leadership behaviours were more commonly observed in public organisations than in private organisations. According to Bycio et al. (1995) although transformational and transactional leaders both display varying amounts of participative decision styles, transformational leadership would seem to be congruent with a better-educated work force. They indicated that such a work force is eager to apply and develop its abilities on a job and would probably strive under a leader who transmits a sense of mission, stimulates learning experiences, and arouses new ways of thinking. On the other hand, transactional leaders who simply reward performance in restricted ways are not likely to energise a work force expecting personal achievement.

The importance of transformational leadership for the research on leadership styles of deans in Libyan public universities is that it is universal and it has been found to be effective in most organisations and in most cultures (House et al, 2004). The review of the above leadership styles highlights that leadership styles vary and depend on situations and what the leader wants to achieve. However, factors which influence leadership styles may include the personal background of the leader, his or her personality, knowledge, values, ethics, and experiences (Yukl 2010; Northouse 2010). Transformational leadership, as defined by Burns (2003), represents leaders who “shape, alter, and elevate the motives and goals of the institutional members”.

Transformational leadership allows faculty members and administrators to influence others by working with fellow practitioners to produce positive outcomes for all the stakeholders involved. Both distributed leadership and transformational leadership communicate a shared knowledge approach to solving educational issues; nevertheless, both leadership styles offer a unique perspective on leadership in an educational organization.

In a nutshell, Bass and Riggio (2006) state the following essential facts about the importance of transformational leadership to effective leadership:

- a) It is potent in effecting change in task-oriented contexts in which there is high situational control;
- b) It is also successful in situations of moderate-to-high control which as with high situational control plays into the hands of the leader who transforms the situations by taking effective actions;
- c) It enables path-goal oriented leaders to clarify the paths that subordinates should follow in achieving needed organizational change;
- d) By these tokens, it facilitates superior employee performance, more satisfaction of their employees with the leader's performance; hence, it is highly recommended in all organizations.

Consequently, a potential contribution to knowledge from this research consists in knowing to what extent faculty deans in Libya are transformational as a litmus test for how effective the deans could be in faculty leadership. It is in order to triangulate this finding that the researcher examines the opinions of both the deans and faculty staff about the perceived leadership styles of the deans.

It is in the above respects noteworthy that Bass and Riggio (2006, pp. 167 ff.) provide some suggestions of personality traits that are likely to enhance transformational leadership performance. These traits include: a) outgoing, extraverted and sociable character; b) confidence and high self-esteem; c) positive, optimistic and emotionally balanced mind-sets; d) being innovative and less risk-averse than non-transformational leaders; and e) manifesting moderate-to-high levels of multiple intelligences such as cognitive, social, emotional and practical intelligence.

4.4 Full-Range Leadership Model using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

Bass (1985, 1990) identified transformational leadership behaviour to be powerful and effective in improving the organisational performance and employee satisfaction. On the basis of his investigations in various Western countries, Bass (1997) argued that the effectiveness of transformational leadership behaviours varies from culture to culture; however, it was perceived as a preferred leadership style in most Western societies

having diverse cultures, such as the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Canada, and New Zealand.

In order to carry out thorough investigations of leadership behaviours and outcomes, Bass (1985) developed an instrument to measure transactional, transformational, and non-leadership behaviours, and to investigate their relationships with followers' satisfaction and extra effort, and leadership effectiveness. This instrument was named the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), and was empirically confirmed to reflect the corresponding dimensions of transactional and transformational leadership. The MLQ underwent various modifications following its application and feedback (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). The present study is concerned with the MLQ 5x (short), associated with Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full Range Transformational Leadership Model consisting of five transformational leadership factors, three transactional leadership factors, one non-leadership factor, and three outcome factors.

4.4.1 Transformational leadership factors

1. *Idealised Influence (attributed)*: This behaviour reflects the influence of leaders by which they articulate and transmit a strong sense of mission. Such leaders display confidence and optimism, and set high standards of performance and challenging goals for their followers;
2. *Idealised Influence (behaviour)*: This behaviour refers to the influence of leaders' confidence to taking a risk, and going beyond personal interests for the interests of the group or organisation. Such leaders are exceptional in demonstrating high standards of ethical and moral conduct;
3. *Individualised Consideration*: This transformational leadership behaviour has two components: consideration for the individual and preparedness to consult (Bass, 1985). The former refers to treating each follower according to his or her individual needs, abilities and aspirations and arranging for professional trainings where necessary. The latter refers to a sharing and delegation process to stimulate two-way learning and consultation, and consensual decision-making;
4. *Intellectual Stimulation*: This transformational leadership behaviour is associated with arousing motives to think in new directions, question assumptions, reframe problems, and approach old theories in new ways. Leaders encourage followers to look at different perspectives of solving problems, and accept new ideas even if they are different to their own;

5. *Inspirational Motivation*: This leadership behaviour refers to articulation and sharing of vision in enthusiastic and optimistic ways. In addition, leaders express confidence and commitment to achieve goals to optimise their followers' efforts.

4.4.2 Transactional leadership factors

1. *Contingent Reward*: This leadership behaviour reinforces the leader-follower relationship by emphasizing performance-reliant rewards. Leaders clarify their expectations, negotiate for resources, express satisfaction for effort, and exchange promises for agreements of mutual satisfaction;
2. *Active Management-by-exception*: This leadership behaviour reflects monitoring of followers' performance according to formal rules and taking corrective actions if deviations from standards occur;
3. *Passive Management-by-exception*: This leadership behaviour refers to delaying actions until matters become serious; problems are not solved unless they become chronic.

4.4.3 Non-leadership, Laissez-faire:

This refers to the absence of leadership. With laissez-faire, decisions are often delayed, and there is no feedback, motivation, delegation, or coaching of followers to perform the tasks. That is, there is no interaction to develop a strong leader-follower relationship for the good of the group/organisation. Interestingly enough, laissez-faire leadership provides a complete freedom for the group to make decisions on what they have to do. The laissez-faire leader does not participate in any group activities unless otherwise requested. Optimistically, to be an effective laissez-faire leader assumes that highly motivated members work toward their task of well-being of the organization in the group. The question here is that, if the members can take care of the well-being of the organization on their own, do they really need leadership after all? In many respects, laissez-faire leadership represents the lack of confidence in leadership that results in a state of confusion among subordinates (Bass, 1981a).

4.4.4 The Outcome factor of the model measures three components: satisfaction; extra effort; and effectiveness.

Bass and Avolio (1997) developed these constructs as a result of empirical evidence that links individual and organisational success to transformational leadership. Individuals reported more satisfaction to the staff and sense of efficacy in working for a leader who was transformational than with one who was not. This is probably because transformational leadership benefits both the organisation and the individual (Bass & Avolio, 1997). While transactional leadership also affects the development of followers and their productivity, it does so to a lesser degree than transformational leadership (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). Staff extra effort describes leaders' hard works to stimulate their followers to do more than what is expected. Satisfaction explains leaders' efforts to work with their followers in a way that builds mutual satisfaction. Effectiveness of dean refers to leaders' efforts to meet their followers' job-related needs, lead an effective group and lead the faculty in an effective way.

4.4.5 The construct validity of all versions of the MLQ:

The construct validity of all versions of the MLQ: has been tested in various studies. Different models have resulted in different correlated factors for different organisations and countries, most being in Western settings (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1997; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Carless, 1998; Den Hartog et al, 1997; Hater & Bass, 1988). The relevance of the transformational leadership for the present study derives from the fact that it is universal. That is, it has been found to be effective in most organisations and in most cultures (Bass, 1997; Den Hartog et al, 1999; House et al, 2004; Lowe et al, 1996).

Literature shows that transformational leadership behaviours vary with the type of organisation. Lowe et al. (1996) found that transformational leadership behaviours were more commonly observed in public organisations than in private organisations. The researcher therefore uses the MLQ as a research instrument for assessing the views of faculty staff regarding the leadership performances of their faculty deans in order to be able to explore the above mentioned dimensions of leadership action. These methodological considerations are more fully explained in Chapters 5 and 6 of the thesis and further supported by the following points.

4.5 Academic Deans as Transformational Leaders

In higher education, effective leadership is imperative to a university's success. University chancellors rely heavily on deans and other administrators to provide internal leadership (Birnbaum, 1992). Previous researchers explored this topic by asking academics to name those whom they felt were important leaders on their campuses. Forty four percent of the respondents named the dean. In general, deans are mentioned more frequently than other leaders, including the presidents (Birnbaum, 1992).

Academic deans, as members of the president's cabinet, are in a unique position to share leadership responsibility for the institution as a whole. The deans acquire a broad understanding of university concerns while remaining involved in the teaching and learning process of the institution. Furthermore, deans play a critical role in building the university vision: not only do they predict the future, but also they create a new future like science "fiction writers", as well as "plan and design how the dreamed future will be realized" (Baskan and Ercetin, 2000, p. 2). In addition, academic deans have resources that can be used to guide and direct the work of the faculty, influence decision-making, shape a curriculum, and play a major role in the culture of the university. Deans can also act as change agents, but first they need to be experts in the change process to transform their organization from its current state to the ideal one (Huffman-Joley, 1992).

Leadership succession at the senior executive level of university often is driven by institutional policies which are often influenced by individuals throughout the organization to reflect their interests and values (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker and Riley, 1991). To that extent, "leadership skills necessary for today's educational leaders are difficult" (Huffman-Joley, 1992, p. 7), especially when educational leadership is viewed as a complex adaptive process, which is subject to many conflicting forces. For instance, deans may need to give up their power without losing control by persuading others and enforcing the university policies, and take initiative by listening to members within their organization. Researchers such as Baskan and Ercetin (2000) assert that, "deans have an important potential role in sustaining the learner-centered and learning universities of the 21st century" (p. i). Leaders need to be visionaries and able to see beyond the immediate horizons surrounding their organisations, be sensitive to the needs of their employees, and build an organization that is capable of transforming its vision towards improvement and growth (Knauff, Berger and Gray, 1991).

4.6 Further ideas towards a more context-rich understanding of relational leadership styles

Recall the following notes presented above as part of the research directions developed from Thorpe et al. (2011). In this section the researcher expands on the ideas contained in the notes in order to complete the analytical toolkit needed in this study of university leadership in Libya.

- Using the concept of community and related ideas to discuss the relational leadership styles and thereby develop a ‘more context-rich understanding of leadership in organisations and society’ (Edwards, 2011). The related community-laden ideas mentioned by Edwards (2011) include ‘a sense of belonging’, ‘a sense of community’, ‘individualism’, ‘values and ethics’, ‘language’, and ‘dialect’.
- Appreciating the “nuances, ambiguities and contradictions of shared and distributed leadership” [as of other relational leadership styles], the relevant conceptions of the styles, and how to think about them in relation to leadership research, practice and development (Fitzsimons et al., 2011).

Edwards (2011, p. 301) views leadership processes as ‘local-cultural’ and ‘local-historical’ so that leadership as a social process is ‘distributed’ across individuals and society. As earlier noted in this review, this view is consonant with faculty leadership in universities which are laden with such contexts – local-cultural (in terms of the cultural inclinations of the locations of the universities and that of Libya as a nation, for example) and local-historical (in terms of the histories of the universities and circumstances of their origins, for examples). This means that a study of this nature cannot afford to ignore the power of context in understanding the dialectics of higher education leadership in Libya. Edwards (2011) argues that the concept of ‘community’ is foundational to this understanding, since it gives meaning to how leader-actors relate to organisational staff and the local, national, and global circumstances affecting organisational performance.

A lot of what Edwards (2011) has to say, from the perspective of this study, is encapsulated in table 1 of the paper (see Edwards, 2011, p. 308). The table outlines in column 1 some core concepts of ‘community’ also used interchangeably in later parts of this study with ‘family’, taken in a wider sense; these concepts are symbolism, sense of belonging, sense of community, individualism, community as communicative,

language, liminality, friendship, and postmodern community. The table goes on in columns 2 and 3 to apply these concepts to DL and outline their implications for leadership research. Table 4.1 below adapts the Edwardian framework to this study as follows.

Table 4.1: Links among the concepts of community, DL and this study (Adapted from Edwards, 2011, p. 308)

Concept of community	Link to relational leadership notions in Figure 4.1	Research implications
Symbolism	Concerned with the aesthetics of leadership practices in which DL is represented by the 'symbolic construction of boundaries'. Simply put, it is a concept that calls for a location of DL action in localised actions with defined constituents such as who does what, when, for what, how, with what resources, and boundaries of power, etc.	Calls for additional investigation of 'leaderful' moments (Wood and Ladkin, 2008) and localised action sets in Libyan higher education following this study and based on its findings about the character of faculty leadership in Libyan universities.
Sense of belonging	Literally connotes mutual understanding and sense of belonging based on cultural and religious ties in Libya	Prompts the need for a follow-on study to this study which examines the influence of different degrees of social and cultural ties on leadership effectiveness in Libyan and Arab country contexts. For this study, it suggests the need to link perceived leadership styles of faculty deans to the contexts and cultures of the country.
Individualism	Surfaces the tension between a shared sense of identity and individual self-identity	Suggests the need to adopt a style of faculty leadership that overcomes these tensions on the part of faculty staff. It also prompts the researcher to examine to what extent the collectivist culture of Libya could be leveraged in such leadership styles.
Community as communicative	Reinforces the importance of common values, ethics and morals in faculty leadership and the effects of same on staff motivation and performance	Hence, prompts an examination of how deans do and/or should communicate with staff in enacting faculty leadership

Language	‘Notion of distributed leadership as bounded by language, discourse and dialect’	Has more implications for wider leadership research across different languages e.g. Western versus Arab countries, etc. Requires qualitative research methods to surface the latent constructs which drive different understandings of the leadership process
Liminality	Notions of leadership as virtual, contextually bounded, fluid, and shifting based on space and time	Need to use ethnographic research methods to explore situated leadership practices centred on specific tasks to gain a sense of how different configurations of tasks, individual and group actors and their skills sets play out in enhancing leadership performance. This is appropriate as follow-on study to this research and is expected to be based on its findings. Theoretically for now, it reinforces the idea of leadership as a social process.
Friendship	Connotes an informal idea of DL linked to social networks of colleague-friends	A core concept of what it means to ‘communities’ in a pluralistic sense, hence the need to examine how social networks within and outside an organisation influence leadership performance in Libyan higher education, for example. An ethnographic research method comes to mind here, but good proxies such as a combination of intelligent interviews and questionnaires could suffice.
The postmodern community	Captures DL as interconnected based on emotional connections	Suggests the roles of community interpreted in a wider sense, contexts of postmodernity, and emotional intelligence in leadership practice. This is more about future work beyond this study.

Finally, for this section on analytical frameworks and research directions in leadership studies, Fitzsimons et al (2011, pp. 319-320) explicate the differing characteristics of shared leadership (SL) and distributed leadership (DL) styles and map out alternative approaches for studying these relational leadership styles (see tables 1 and 2 of the paper page 319-320).

The differing characteristics are similar to how they were explained in the preceding parts of this review. Shared leadership (SL) is a leader-plus style in which leadership is driven by a designated leader while other members share some roles; individuals lead themselves on tasks within their competences; cognition is therefore shared among

group members; and leadership advantage accrues to the organisation through collective influence of the group defined as ‘the aggregate of attributed influence in a group’. DL is similar but leadership is not leader-directed since formal leadership roles are enacted by multiple individuals in the organisation; cognition is ‘stretched over’ both human actors and aspects of the context they are in; and advantage is offered through developing capacities to perform concrete and conjoint actions.

Finally, table 2 of Fitzsimons et al (2011) mentioned above maps out on the rows four aspects of leadership that could be examined in a study: a) the nature of leadership; b) the nature of relationships involved in the leadership process; c) the role of context; and d) how leadership is studied.

On the columns of table 2, the authors outline four views of the leadership process which determine its dynamics: a) relational-entity; b) relational-structural; c) relational-processual; and d) relational systemic. The first contends that leadership is shared between leaders as discrete minds and entities; the second that it is distributed in a pattern of structural relations and networks; the third that it is a practice that is influenced by processes which happen in particular cultural, historical and political contexts (such as Libya in this study); and the fourth that it is a function of a collective which is systemic in character and shaped by particular contexts.

The researcher notes that all these perspectives apply to this study to some degrees – individual faculty deans and staff are cognitive entities, which relate with each other in performing faculty roles, are context-bound in their enactment of leadership roles, and operate as a collective. That said, an analytical examination of the dialectics of higher education leadership in Libya could best be pursued within the last two perspectives since they accommodate the first two perspectives and capture the instincts of shared leadership more profoundly.

This is the stance the researcher adopts in this study. Hence, an examination of the suggested research methodologies for studying leadership in the last two perspectives – the processual and systemic – produces such ideas as:

- The need to consider the context of leadership;
- The organisational processes that warrant leadership authority, power and influence;

- The need to explore contingency theories of leadership and how power is shared/distributed;
- The need to reconstruct the process through which leadership emerges over time; and
- The need to use qualitatively deeper research methods to get underneath the studied leadership phenomena.

The researcher applies these principles to the choice of research methodologies and instruments in this study. In support of this view and in order to shed more light on the Islamic and collectivist contexts of Libyan culture which influence leadership practices in the country and this study in particular, the researcher provides related literature on the contexts below.

4.7 Leadership literature in Islamic perspective

Rost (1991) defines leadership to focus on relationship among leaders and followers whilst Beekun & Badawi, (1999) defined leadership from an Islamic perspective focused on trust. There are some similarities between the two definitions though they are derived from different contexts. Since the research is conducted in an Islamic context, the researcher used leadership concepts centred on relationship and trust among leader-followers as a framework for this research.

From an Islamic perspective of leadership, Muslim leaders use both positional power (e.g. legitimate power, reward power, and coercive power) and personal power (expert and referent power) to achieve their goals (Beekun & Badawi, 1999). Legitimate power in Islam is linked to a person's position in the organization, but Islam does not support Muslims actively seeking positions of authority, because they may seek the positions for their own advancement and self-interests instead of the community's interests. Al-Bukhari (1997) notes:

“Do not ask for a position of authority, for if you are granted this position as a result of your asking for it, you will be left alone (without Allah's help to discharge the responsibilities involved in it), and if you are granted it without making any request for it, you will be helped (by Allah in the discharge of your duties)” (p. 164).

Thus, accepting a position in an Islamic organization depends on two conditions. First, doing this deed is only for the sake of Allah without any desire to gain praise or fame. Second, the deed must be done in accordance with the Sunnah of the prophet Mohammad (Kathir, 2000, p. 154).

Power and leadership are the decisive factors in human affairs, and human civilization travels along in the direction determined by the people who control the centres of power. If power and leadership are vested legitimately in God-fearing people, society moves along the right lines. In Islam, there are two types of legitimacies: divine (whereby legitimacy is acceptable to Allah) and popular (through the will of the majority) (Maududi, 1991). In most Western cultures, popular legitimacy is considered as the only determining criterion for leadership but in Islam it requires the divine legitimacy as an essential prerequisite because without the divine one, leadership cannot be valid, and without the popular one, leadership remains unfulfilled (Chowdbury, 2001). This point is relevant to this research in the sense that an examination of faculty leadership in Libyan universities has to reckon with these two forms of legitimacy.

The review of the leadership literature shows that there are some similarities in the power-influence leadership approach from both Islamic and Western perspectives. Leaders in both contexts utilise the two powers to be more effective. Access to multiple sources of power is a must for leaders to fulfil their roles and duties, but this does not guarantee that the leader will be effective. Leadership is rarely derived solely from power; instead, it tends to generate its own power. This power comes to an individual from doing the right kinds of things such as providing clear instructions and demonstrating a concern for an employee (Bittel, 1984). While Islam recognizes the existence of power, it suggests some etiquette for its use because the supreme power is only in the hands of God. God the Almighty said, "If only the unrighteous could see, behold, they would see the penalty: that to Allah belongs all power, and Allah will strongly enforce the penalty" (Quran 2:165).

Islam favours power differentiation so that overconcentration of power in an individual does not lead to injustice in society (Bangash, 2000). In addition, authority in Islam is limited within the framework of the mission of Muslims and the culture of participative *Shura*¹⁵ (decision-making), which induces better quality and productivity (Jabnoun,

¹⁵ Shura is an Arabic word for "consultation". The Quran and Muhammad encourage Muslims to decide their affairs in consultation with those who will be affected by that decision. Shura is mentioned three

1994). Thus, Islamic leaders will not have absolute power because Islam necessitates participative management with checks and balances. “Authoritarian and dictatorial leaders and administrators, as well as decision-makers, have no place in the administrative system of Islam” (Al-Buraey, 1985, p. 237).

Thus, in Islam, it is the duty of the followers not to comply with orders that contradict with the mission and objectives of Islam. This point is crucial for this research as it reinforces the researcher’s earlier views that faculty deans are constrained by the Islamic faith to practise participative leadership in addition to the inducement towards this form of leadership which flows from the peoples’ committee approach to political governance in Libya. The following ideas related to servant leadership also support this point. The servant-leader approach advocates that leaders should serve those under them by helping them to reach maximum effectiveness, and the higher up in an organization a person goes, the more he is to serve (Rush, 2002; Greenleaf (1998). The servant-leader approach has been part of Islam since its beginning (Chowdbury, 2001). Allah says “Indeed, this brotherhood of yours is a single brotherhood and I am your Lord and Cherisher: therefore serve me!” (Qur’an 21: 92).

Siddiqui (1993) noted that the concept of servant leader came out of the Islamic system and leaders are servants of their followers. The prophet Mohammed said, “The leader of the nation is their servant” (Daylami, 1987). The real meaning of Islamic administration as a public service was enhanced under the second Caliph, Umar (ra), who was quoted as saying to the people: “I have appointed over you governors and agents not to beat your bodies or to take your monies, but rather to teach you and service you” (Abdel-Hadi, 1970). In Islam, leadership implies service and it is to develop and handle resources on behalf of the real owner (Bangash, 2000). From this perspective, Islamic leadership is the application of this principle in an organization.

In summary, the servant-leadership concepts of leadership in both Islamic and Western literature prioritises serving employees and the community and it is aimed at providing services to others and increasing understanding of the spirit and culture of the organization. However, Islamic leadership emphasises the use of religious concepts to articulate perspectives and values that orient management and leadership.

times in the Quran as a praiseworthy activity, and is a word often used in organizing the affairs of a masjid, and an Islamic organization, and in parliaments on democratic votes

From an Islamic perspective, a transformational leader adopts a down to earth approach for involvement and for providing opportunities to the group to work and assist each other (Ahmad, 2002). The leader's job is to bring out the best in those whom he leads and to transform society to fulfil its mission (Bangash, 2000). This is best demonstrated by how the Prophet Mohammad transformed the society in Arabia (Schwarz, 2002). Steeped in Jahilliyya, the people were brought into the light of Islam; they were inspired and motivated by the Prophet to reject the established order and struggle to establish the Islamic state.

The above notes highlight that in both Islamic and Western literatures, the transformational leadership approach views leaders and followers as two partners who set goals and targets for the group together that help the group to develop self-confidence and a sense of achievement. Transformational leadership in Islam is participatory.

The Islamic paradigm of leadership does not encourage centralization of authority and power in a charismatic personality of the leader, but encourages sharing power through delegation and distribution of responsibilities. The Prophet Mohammad and the subsequent Caliphs were aware of the importance of the delegation process as a way of empowering their followers. They were also aware of matching the demands of the assignment to the level of development of the companions. For example, Abu Dher Al Ghafari (the most decent honest righteous companion) once asked the Prophet Mohammad to be made a leader in one of the Islamic provinces, but the Prophet refused saying: "you have a weak personality and I like for you what I like for myself". But you cannot be a leader in a group of two and you cannot be responsible for the orphan's money" (Al-Bukhari, 1997; Sweedan, 2000; An-Nawawi, 1997, Ch. 81, No.675, p. 285). Prophet Mohammad supported the traits approach to leadership (Jabnoun, 1994). From the foregoing, it implies that leadership in Islam considers the traits of the leader as important to their success.

The Qur'an (3:159) affirms that all matters are to be discussed by involving relevant people, and when proper consultation and debate have taken place and consensus has been reached, one should not delay the implementation of the decision. In effect, leadership in the Islamic context does not encourage authoritative leaders who assert only one view without the proper and popular participation of others in the formulation

of an opinion (Ahmad, 2001). This implies that Islam encourages participatory leadership.

From an Islamic perspective, the situation and its characteristics are important factors that affect leadership success, but the leaders' perception of what is happening in the situation will affect the leaders' behaviour and style (Beekun & Badawi, 1999). For example, if the leaders perceive their followers as unskilful and depressed, they will interact with them based on that perception. Similar to the situational leadership approach in the Western literature, in Islam, a leader should adjust his style of leadership to fit the situation and the maturity level of his followers (Ghazali, 1999).

In summary, the Islamic approaches of leadership are similar to the Western approaches of leadership. However, Islamic leadership is infused with religious, cultural and moral concepts (Al-Buraey, 1985). The Islamic leadership approach is a value-oriented approach that seeks to maximize Islamic values and ethical standards. Islamic approaches to leadership recognize the spiritual and psychological sources of human behaviours (Al-Buraey, 1985).

Also, the Islamic approach to leadership is a human-oriented approach rather than a production-oriented approach (Al-Buraey, 1985). However, there are some recent leadership approaches in Western literature that are more human-oriented, such as servant-leader and transformational leadership approaches. From the foregoing points, the similarities in leadership concepts as applied in Western and Islamic contexts are much more significant than their differences and the above concepts will be examined in public universities in Libya in order provide an understanding of the leadership styles of deans in public universities in Libya.

In other words, a pulling together of all the contextual factors which condition faculty leadership in Libyan universities is a desired outcome of all shades of literature so far covered in this thesis, including such concepts as Islamic religion, collectivist national culture of Libya based on Hofstede's ideas, Ghaddafi's non-representative democracy (see Chapter 2 of the thesis), and the analytical constructs of leadership discussed in this chapter such as transformational, transactional and shared leadership. These contexts are summarised in Table 4.2 below which combines with (Figure 4.1 and Table 4.1) to provide the key theoretical referents for discussing the findings from this research in Chapter 7 of this thesis.

Table 4.2: Leadership approaches and Libyan perspectives - rooted in Islam

Leadership approach	key component	Libyan leadership Perspectives (rooted in Islam)
<p>Power-influence approach</p>	<p>Leadership is to use power and influence towards the achievement of the leaders' goals or shared goals by the leader and the followers (Yukl, 2010).</p> <p>Influence is the degree of change in a person's attitudes, values or behaviours induced by leadership (Barker 1984).</p> <p>Leadership is related to power (Yukl, 2010).</p>	<p>Islamic leadership does not encourage centralization of authority and power (Sweedan, 2000).</p> <p>Authoritarian and dictatorial leaders have no place in the administrative system of Islam; Islam does not encourage Muslims to actively seek positions of authority, because the candidates may seek the position for their own advancement and self-interests and not for the community's interests (Al-Buraey, 1985, p. 237).</p> <p>While Islam recognizes the existence of power, it suggests some etiquette for its use because the supreme power is only in the hands of God (Quran 2:165)</p>
<p>Servant-leader approach</p>	<p>The approach aims to provide services to others. Leaders serve those under them by helping them to reach maximum effectiveness (Rush, 2002).</p> <p>Leaders have a major role in creating and maintaining the culture of their organization (Greenleaf, 1998).</p> <p>Leaders should maintain the unity and cooperation among followers in their organization and the momentum of their progress (Greenleaf, 1998).</p> <p>Leaders should provide space for and even invite constructive criticism (Rush, 2002).</p>	<p>The approach uses religious texts to articulate perspectives and values that orient management and leadership, (Atari, 2000).</p> <p>Leadership in Islam is rooted in belief and willing submission to the Creator, Allah. It centres on serving Him (Chowdbury, 2001).</p> <p>The approach increases the understanding of the spirit and culture of organization (Bangash, 2000).</p> <p>The approach encourages a sense of community, (Atari, 2000).</p> <p>Knowledge is used rather than power to dominate, and values such as trust, mutual consultation, cooperation, caring, listening, constructive criticism, love, diligence, interpersonal relations, perfectionism, hardwork, and efficiency are emphasized (Beekun & Badawi (1999)</p>

<p>Transactional & Transformational leadership styles</p>	<p>Transactional leadership is an exchange of rewards with subordinates for services rendered.</p> <p>Transformational leaders have the ability to lead changes in the organization's vision, strategy, and culture (Yukl, 2010).</p> <p>Transformational leaders broaden and change the interests of their followers and generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group.</p> <p>They influence their followers to look beyond their self-interest for the good of the group. It occurs when leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of values and motivations (Bass, B. M. 1998).</p>	<p>Transformational leadership adopts a down to earth approach for involvement and for providing opportunities to the group to work and assist each other (Ahmad, 2002).</p> <p>The leader's job is to bring out the best in those whom he leads and to transform society to fulfil its mission (Bangash, 2000).</p> <p>Leaders have to provide direction (a vision) to their organization (Ahmad, 2002).</p>
<p>Relational leadership styles, including distributed and shared leadership</p>	<p>These leadership styles depict leadership practices as interactions between the leaders and followers which are shaped by the type of contexts in which leadership happens and the influences on the leadership process.</p> <p>Different styles of shared leadership examined in the literature include distributed leadership, collaborative leadership, and democratic leadership.</p> <p>An interesting analytical framework for applying these styles to given leadership contexts is provided in Figure 4.1 of this chapter which makes use of Gronn's (2002)</p>	<p>In Libya, given the influences on leadership by the country's collectivist culture and Islamic religion, there is a strong tendency for faculty deans to practise shared leadership including distributing leadership to other staff for example heads of department and collaborative leadership with different faculty staff as appropriate.</p> <p>This research therefore explores the extent to which this is the case and how shared leadership manifests in Libyan higher education.</p>

	dimensions of concertive action and conjoint agency.	
Trait approach	Leaders demonstrate certain traits. A leader has superior endowed qualities and behavioural attributes (Northouse, 2010).	Effective Islamic leaders should have some leadership qualities such as conviction, justice and commitment to Islamic principles, (Sweedan 2000).
Collectivist national culture of Libya	Collectivist societies such as Libya emphasise the power of groups over individuals. They see their leadership as shared responsibility (Hofstede, 1994; Hofstede et al., 2010). See more details in Chapter 2 of the thesis	As discussed in Chapter 2, this means that faculty deans would ascribe their achievements to the entire faculty workforce, and will be predisposed towards family-oriented, compassionate, democratic, and collaborative leadership, leadership with a 'we' mindset.
Libyan political system and Ghaddafi's non-representative and direct democracy	The socialist political ideology of Libya under Ghaddafi which is enforced in organisations through the peoples' committee approach to governance encourages direct democracy, and a relatively stronger follower 'voice' in the leadership process. See more details in Chapter 2 of the thesis.	It is argued in chapter 2 that the people's committee approach facilitates shared, communal, family-oriented, and collaborative faculty and higher education leadership in Libya, and that the approach is more likely to lead to stronger follower power.
Other influences and constructs (higher education policies, resource constraints)	As discussed in Chapters 2-4 so far, a number of influences affect leadership in organisations. These include appropriate leadership styles for the organisational context, the policy environment, and resource constraints.	In the Libyan context, higher education leadership is influenced by the Libyan higher education governance rules, the financial management of institutions, and the above leadership constructs that are consonant with the culture. Some of the resource constraints are discussed later in this chapter and thesis.

The gist of the above discussions on Libyan leadership is that shared or relational leadership styles, in so far they are special ways of enacting transformational and transactional leadership, are supported by the collectivist, family-oriented Libyan culture, the Islamic faith, all of which emphasize love, trust and commitment to the welfare of other people, and the socialist political ideology of the Gaddafi era. The researcher reiterates the fact that bringing all these together in Table 4.2 above provides a framework for discussing the findings from this research in later parts of this thesis. The following notes expand on some of these ideas.

4.8 Contextual influences on leadership in Libya

4.8.1 Leadership and state requirements in a country run by a leader with a socialist ideology

It should be emphasized that shared leadership as influenced by the political system in Libya is basically informed by the fact that Libya post-1969 has been run by a political regime with a socialist ideology, under the leadership of late Muammar Gaddafi. The Green Book places state requirements on leaders to manage educational and political institutions for example in a socialist way through active involvement of the people in Peoples' Committees. This is somewhat coherent with the egalitarian principles espoused by Islam and one can see why the revolution itself was welcomed by Libyans at the time it happened and for at least the first two decades of the Gaddafi regime when the revolutionary zeal had not been diluted by the self-interests of the leader's family members and close officials. It should be seen that this fact is a distinguishing feature of collective leadership practices in Libya compared to traditional leadership styles.

4.8.2 Leadership and resource poverty in a third world country

Some of the resource constraints faced by educational leaders in third world countries include:

- a) Lack of equipped and professional libraries for professors and students;
- b) Inadequate numbers of qualified professors and limited university infrastructure;
- c) Lack of computers and laboratories;
- d) Language barriers (limited English);
- e) Lack of space (classrooms);
- f) Budget concerns;

- g) Lack of reasonable autonomy (associated also with the problem of bureaucracy and centralization of authority);
- h) Ethnicity games in defiance set rules;
- i) Need for training in management and leadership

The point of these notes is that the prevalence of these constraints in Libyan universities as a third world country compared to advanced societies, for example first world countries, is a manifestation of resource poverty and control in third world countries. This challenge means that university deans in their practice of academic leadership in Libya may benefit from training in skills that will enhance their capacities to attract to and effectively manage resources in the faculties. These skills include personal winning and negotiation skills needed for making better cases for funding from senior leadership of the universities, communities, government and wider stakeholders, and good project management skills for delivering projects creatively, up to quality, on time and with good value for money, for example.

4.8.3 How the concept of shared leadership adds to existing ideas of leadership and how it differs from Western approaches (collective Leadership angle – common versus differentiating attributes)

The discussions in this review demonstrate that shared leadership is an overarching leadership approach that combines some other leadership skills for examples democratic, collaborative, distributive, transformational and transactional leadership styles. It is just the communal manner in which these leadership styles are enacted as rooted in Islamic principles argued above that makes the approach distinctive.

In sum, the differentiating attributes of shared leadership in the spirit of the research results presented in Chapter 6 of the thesis and explored further in this chapter can be summarised as follows: a) the pervasive influence of Islamic and national culture in making this leadership model native to Libyan leaders including higher education leaders; b) the intrinsically collective national cultures of Islamic and Arab countries including Libya; c) and the particular influence on this leadership model by state requirements in a country run by a political system with a socialist ideology re Green Book ideas and the post-1969 socio-political management of Libya. These factors have been examined in some detail in the foregoing notes.

4.8.4 Implications of the above ideas for leadership practice in Libya and other Arab countries

As a summary to this section of the literature review, the researcher notes that understanding leadership practices in the Libyan context implies that:

Libyan university deans and higher education leaders in general should be trained to excel in key traditional leadership skills which are drawn from a number of leadership practices, especially transformational, democratic, transactional, collaborative and distributive leadership styles, but in way that uses their belongingness to the Islamic faith and culture to more deeply exhibit motivation, effective communication, consideration for workers, family feeling/environment and collective decision making.

This is because the above review of leadership literature shows that leadership practice is a blend of styles, skills, attitudes, and experiences which a leader manages within given organizational contexts in order to drive organisational excellence. For the Libyan context it is argued that shared, transformational, and transactional leadership styles are appropriate for the Islamic and national collectivist cultural as well as socialist ideology of the Ghaddafi era. It is also argued that even if the political system in future increasingly follows traditional Western democratic model, the pervasive influence of the Islamic religion supports a tendency towards shared leadership in Libyan organisations.

The challenge for faculty leaders, say, in these contexts is to manage the positive and negative sides of these influences in order to motivate faculty workers to become increasingly effective and efficient in their various, and hence contribute their utmost to the achievement of stated faculty and university visions and missions. For example, the collectivist national and Islamic cultures predispose Libyan citizens to expect family-oriented duty of care from their leaders who should therefore show more commitment to their individual welfare. Thus, faculty leaders may have to manage these sometimes nepotistic expectations while generally respecting stated rules. This calls for a subtle use of both traditional and Islamic-based leadership skills, as argued above. These ideas are discussed further in Chapter 7 of this thesis.

4.9 Research Questions

Given all the background ideas discussed in Chapters 1 and 2 and the detailed arguments in the literature reviews of Chapters 3 and 4 of this thesis, the following research questions are formulated to address the aims and objectives of the research stated in Chapter 1:

1. What leadership styles best describe Faculty Deans in the Libyan Public Universities?
2. What is the perceived relationship (if any) between leadership style and Faculty Success?
3. What are the self-perceptions of the leadership practices of Deans in terms of their gender, ethnic background, leadership and management experience and organisational policies?
4. What recommendations can be made to Libyan public universities for the development of successful Leaders?
5. How can understanding of Leadership be developed to take account of different national contexts, especially the Libyan and Arab contexts of interest to this research?

In addition to the above research questions, other leadership issues explored in the research include the perception of Deans, how they communicate with the team members, what formal training programmes on leadership and management Deans undergo and whether there are any constraints and supporting mechanisms put in place by the government that affect leadership in public universities?

4.10 Conclusion

The analytical review of leadership literature in this chapter has shown that leadership is a complex process that has multiple dimensions, including the suitability of some styles for particular contexts, the relevance of transformational and transactional leadership styles to change-focused organisations and leadership success, the different shades of relational leadership styles, and contextual influences on leadership.

As noted in Chapter 3 review of general leadership ideas, Northouse (2004) rightly argues that the following elements can be identified as central to the phenomenon of leadership: (a) it is a process; (b) it involves influence; (c) it occurs within a group context; and (d) it involves goal attainment. Hence, this chapter examined these influences and contexts in some detail, in anticipation of work in later chapters which is focused on the process of faculty leadership in Libyan public universities (Chapters 6 and 7).

Transformational leadership was characterised in the chapter as potent in effecting change in task-oriented contexts, enabling path-goal oriented leaders to more clearly define the directions their subordinates should follow, and facilitating superior employee performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006). This leadership style was therefore justified as an important object of study in this research whereby the research explores to what extent faculty deans in Libyan universities are transformational or the Libyan context allows them to become. This point applies also to transactional leadership in a sense on which it supplies the tactical moves made by leaders who may be strategically transformational in approach.

The chapter encapsulated these two leadership styles in a full-range leadership model based on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass, 1985, 1990). This model examined the role of transformational and transactional leadership in leadership analysis, including idealized influence, individualized consideration and consultation of staff, staff motivation and staff satisfaction with leadership performance, staff extra effort and leadership effectiveness. It was therefore argued that this model is suitable for an examination of faculty leadership in the Libyan context of interest in this research.

The chapter then discussed analytical perspectives on relational leadership styles which provide a theoretical backdrop to communal leadership which the Libyan contexts presuppose. This discussion made use of leadership constructs of concertive action versus conjoint agency (Gronn, 2002,) and culminated in Figure 4.1 which schematizes the connections which different relational styles bear to these constructs for example collaborative, collective, and super leadership (Currie and Lockett, 2011, p. 288).

The chapter complemented the above schema with further ideas towards a context-rich understanding of relational leadership styles, based on the concepts of community, collectivist national culture, symbolism, sense of belonging, liminality, and friendship, which were again schematized in Table 4.2 for easy use in further leadership analysis in the thesis. Related to this, the chapter re-examined particular literature on leadership and higher education which augments earlier notes in chapter 2 of the thesis on the influencing factors of Islam and culture.

Table 4.2 actually pulled together all the factors required in carrying out situated higher education leadership analyses of interest in this research. The leadership dimensions contained in the table include leadership styles (servant, transformational, transactional styles and shared leadership), collectivist national culture of Libya, Libyan political system including non-representative and direct democracy (which are fostered by the peoples' committee approach to leadership in Libya examined in some detail in Chapter 2 of the thesis), higher education policies, and resource constraints in a developing country.

In the next chapter, the methodological approaches to this research show how these concepts are used to explore the above framed research questions, while the following chapters implement the said analyses of contextual faculty leadership in Libyan public universities.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter gives an overview of the design and methodology including the nature of data (research evidence) used in the research to investigate the research objectives stated in Chapter 1 of the thesis. It explains the selection of the qualitative research approach adopted for this research and describes how the research was designed and how data was collected and analysed. It also explains the procedure for participant selection, the researcher's role and positionality, ethical issues, and the validity and reliability of the research. A brief description of the limitations of the research is also examined.

Section 5.2 of the chapter maps the research aims, objectives and questions to interview questions and Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) items. Section 5.3 places the research within an overall philosophy of qualitative research as opposed to quantitative approach which is not the most suitable approach for this type of study. The methodology is primarily qualitative in the sense that whilst mainstream qualitative data analysis is used in examining deans' perceived leadership styles, arithmetic means of questionnaire responses on a Likert scale are used to qualitatively explore faculty staff responses to the MLQ employed in investigating staff perceptions of the leadership styles and performance of the deans.

Sections 5.4 and 5.5 link the specific interview questions used in the deans' and MLQ surveys to the research questions. Section 5.6 discusses the research instruments and strategies including mainly NVIVO analyses ideas. Sections 5.7-5.9 describe the sample selection, data collection and analyses processes, while Section 5.10 concludes the chapter.

5.2 Mapping research aims, objectives and questions to interview questions and MLQ items

The researcher links the research objectives and questions to the interview questions and MLQ survey items, in order to clarify how the research questions are investigated through these research instruments. For this purpose, the researcher recalls below the

aims, objectives and research questions presented in Chapter 1. The main aims of the research (with links to relevant research objectives listed below) are:

- a) To identify leadership styles of faculty deans in Libyan public universities and how the styles affect the performance of the universities (Objectives 2, 3 and 4)
- b) To expand the understanding of leadership styles of the faculty deans in Libyan public universities (Objectives 1, 2 and 3).

Related research objectives and questions are stated below (with links between objectives and research questions):

1. To review the current literature on leadership in general and specifically leadership in Libyan higher education (RQs 1,4 and 5)
2. To examine leadership styles of faculty deans in Libyan public universities (RQs1, 3 and 4)
3. To examine the perceptions and challenges of leadership in Libyan universities through a primary qualitative research approach (RQs 2 and 3)
4. To explore the leadership roles of deans and the characteristics of a good academic leader (RQs 1, 3 and 4).

The research questions (RQs) are:

- 1) What leadership styles best describe faculty deans in the Libyan public universities?
- 2) What is the perceived relationship (if any) between leadership style and faculty success?
- 3) What are the self-perceptions of the leadership practices of deans in terms of their gender, ethnic background, leadership and management experience, and organisational policies?
- 4) What recommendations can be made to Libyan public universities for the development of successful leaders?
- 5) How can understanding of leadership be developed to take account of different national contexts?

It should be noted that the above research questions have been justified in the literature review Chapters 3 and 4 of this thesis as good focal points for this study. The above linkages, while repeating the research aims and objectives earlier stated in Chapter 1 of the thesis, show how the research questions relate to the study overall.

5.3 Research approach

The qualitative method which will be employed in the interpretation of deans' interview results in this study is the General Inductive Approach of Thomas (2006). The study is qualitative in the sense that it attempts to develop theory inductively from in-depth interviews of faculty deans from selected Libyan universities.

5.3.1 *The philosophy of the approach and positionality of the researcher*

The research design for this study is descriptive in that it is intended to examine the actual leadership styles of deans in Libyan universities. The research aims at collecting data to enhance understanding regarding the current status of leadership styles of deans in Libyan universities.

Researchers have used varied methods to study leadership. These range from quantitative to qualitative methods. A good example is Leithwood et al (1996), whose review of the transformational school of leadership resulted in a set of 34 empirical and formal case studies conducted in elementary and secondary schools. Of these, 12 were conducted using qualitative methods, 17 relied on quantitative method alone, and 5 studies employed some mixture of qualitative and quantitative techniques. Kirby and Parudrze (1992) also used both qualitative and quantitative methods for the study of leadership in education. However, what is important in any research programme is to use methods that address the issues raised in the study. The selection of a qualitative approach for this study is discussed in detail in the following sections.

It is argued in the literature that qualitative research methods 'begin data collection with how people subjectively interpret and make sense of their worlds'; the methods make a methodological commitment to *verstehen* - the principle that:

"all human action, or behaviour, has an internal logic of its own which must be understood and described in order for researchers to be able to explain that behaviour" (Gill and Johnson, 2010, pp. 147-184).

Thus, this research is interested in explaining the way Libyan faculty deans perceive their leadership styles and what this suggests for the way they use theories of leadership within the Libyan context. This overall approach to leadership is expected to emerge from the deans' subjective statements about how they think they lead. Hence, a model of leadership that surfaces from qualitative analysis of the interview results would

depict to some extent the collective internal logic regarding faculty leadership in Libyan universities. This is why the research is essentially qualitative in nature.

Consequently, the positionality of the researcher is that the phenomenon of university leadership under investigation is about the subjective experiences of deans which can be interpreted in order to build a working model of faculty leadership in Libyan universities, as informed by particular socio-cultural contexts of Libya for examples the influences of Islamic faith and socialist ideologies of post-1969 Libya on leadership practices.

The Inductive research approach is used in this study because the research's aim is to move from the specific understanding of leadership styles of deans in few universities in Libya to generalise the findings from individual interviews to statements of general patterns. An inductive research approach is concerned with building theory from observation and involves moving from a position of observing the empirical world to the construction of explanation and theories of what has been observed (Gill and Johnson, 2010). This research is undertaken within the interpretive paradigm and Burrell and Morgan (1979) see the key basis of the interpretive paradigm as gaining understanding of the meaning of individuals' behaviour and those around them.

The interpretive paradigm is informed by a concern to understand the world as it is, to understand the fundamental nature of the social world at the level of subjective experience. It seeks explanation within the realm of individual consciousness and subjectivity, within the frame of reference of the participant as opposed to the observer of action (Burrell and Morgan, 1979).

"The interpretive paradigm attempts to understand the meanings of social interaction and show how people construct social reality in social contexts; such understanding is not concerned with controlling people, but rather with understanding and respecting different ways of life. The objective is to describe and explain the phenomenon in order to diagnose and understand and develop theory. The interpretive paradigm sees the individual as an active participant in the construction of that world and emphasises the need to understand the social world by obtaining first-hand knowledge of the subject under investigation" (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p. 6).

In their view, these frameworks present a perspective in which individual actors negotiate, regulate and live their lives within the context of the status quo. These remarks apply directly to deans' as individual leadership actors within the context of

Libya; the remarks therefore underpin the qualitative approach to this research explained in this section.

The basic descriptive approach to qualitative research focuses on reporting facts as observed from subjects' statements ('thin' description) but the interpretivist approach adopted in this research is ideographic in that it provides a symbolic representation or "thick" description, emphasising explanation and understanding of a phenomenon which produce situated models of how things work rather than the identification of general and universal laws (Guba, 1985).

The use of an inductive approach in this research does not mean that the researcher rejects the other approaches such as the positivist commitments, since the inductive approach can also adopt positivist tenets. This approach was chosen because it allows for the use of research techniques that are sensitive to the context of the research in order to understand the ways Libyan faculty deans see their world, instead of testing laws of human behaviour as would apply to a purely empirical (positivist) study, for examples laboratory experiments or empirical survey research (See, Neuman, 2011).

Again, the interpretive paradigm is considered appropriate for this research because such an approach attempts to understand the meanings faculty deans attach to their leadership styles by obtaining first-hand knowledge of the subject under investigation. It should be noted that the inductive approach is necessarily interpretive because it begins by describing the subjective experiences of studied subjects and ends in a process which summarises the studied experiences, in this case that of faculty deans and workers (Gill and Johnson, 2010, pp. 147-184).

The researcher's aim is to direct his attention to the meaning given to leadership styles and he wants to understand these in terms of how and why they adopt such styles. The qualitative research approach was chosen in order to get a better understanding of the participants' overall perspective of their leadership styles. Creswell (1998) states that "knowledge is within the meanings people make of it; knowledge is laced with personal biases and values; knowledge is written in a personal way, evolves, emerges and is inextricably tied to the context in which it is studied" (p. 19). Berg (2011) adds that qualitative methods allow for a clearer and more in-depth understanding of the environmental impact of observable behaviours.

In this research, the leadership behaviours of faculty deans have wider impact on university performances and higher education leadership development in Libya which could best be understood using a good working model of faculty leadership in Libya. This research aims to surface this model from the lived leadership experiences of the deans.

The assumptions alluded to above are that qualitative studies are concerned primarily with process, rather than outcomes or products; focus on meaning - the manner in which persons make sense of their lives, experiences, and structures; the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis; the researcher physically goes to the people, the setting, site, or institution to observe or record behaviour in its natural setting; it is inductive in that abstractions, concepts, hypotheses and theories are built from details (Merriam, 1998, p. 19).

From the foregoing, this research focuses on investigating the leadership styles of faculty deans at Libyan public universities using an inductive/interpretative research approach to expand the understanding of leadership styles of faculty deans at Libyan public universities.

5.3.2 Further notes on the methodological commitments of the research

According to (Gill and Johnson, 2010, pp. 187-242), the three key questions regarding the methodological commitments of a research study are:

1. What is the nature of human behaviour under investigation?
2. With respect to the epistemological basis of the research, is it possible to neutrally observe social reality?
3. With respect to the ontological basis of the research, does social reality exist independently of the cognitive process through which we understand what is out there?

For the first question, this research is interested in the perceived leadership styles of faculty deans in Libyan universities, so that it is the deans' understanding of leadership and the way they lead that the research understudies.

For the second question, the researcher argues that to a large extent the research will not be expected to neutrally observe the reality of dean's leadership completely independent of the particular feelings and understanding of the deans, or even of the researcher's knowledge of different leadership styles and their pros and cons. To this extent, the understanding of deans' leadership styles is situated in their personal contexts and subjective experiences for which reason the research is qualitative.

Finally, with respect to the third question, the researcher notes that, to some extent, dean's personal leadership styles could be said to exist as facts of their experiences which relevant interview questions can elicit, but the way the deans enact faculty leadership individually is still a subjective reality, which is dependent for its meaning on the cognitive process (methodology and explanations) which the researcher uses to access them. What these points show is that this research is essentially qualitative.

The research methodology is inductive since it begins data collection with how the deans subjectively interpret and make sense of faculty leadership in their own personal worlds. Essentially then, the research makes a methodological commitment to *verstehen* – “the assumption that all human action, or behaviour, has an internal logic of its own which must be understood and described in order for researchers to be able to explain that behaviour” (Gill and Johnson, 2010, pp. 147-184).

Hence, the researcher agrees with Gill and Johnson (2010) that the study explores the internal logics of dean's leadership experiences and looks to build a theory from these experiences, a model that could explain generally how faculty deans in Libyan universities enact leadership within the contexts of Libyan higher education governance, national culture, Islamic faith and post-1969 socialist oriented government. The deans' leadership styles mentioned above are inter-subjective as they are created and reproduced through their very day interaction with other staff and wider society.

5.3.3 Rationale for using General Inductive Approach for analyzing qualitative data in this research

General Analytic Induction (AI) is an “intensive examination of a strategically selected number of cases so as to empirically establish the causes of a specific phenomenon” (Johnson, 1998 in Symon and Cassell (eds) 1998)). These authors argue that when suitably refined and applied, AI is a plausible reconstruction of the logic of theoretical

science, since it enables researchers to build theories of phenomena from the ground up, by finding generalities that cut across the facts or seem to explain them. This remark applies to this research because the aim of using interviews of deans and leadership surveys of faculty staff is to create a working surveys model of how faculty deans actually lead and how effectively they do so.

Johnson (1998) states that induction in AI involves reflections on the experience of social phenomena (in this study leadership experience) followed by formulation of abstract rules (models) which guide future experiences or predict similar experiences. It is in this respect that this research aims to abstract from deans' perceived leadership styles a working model of the way faculty leadership generally happens in Libyan universities. It is expected that this model will accommodate perspectives on preferred leadership practices by the deans and the influences on the leadership practices which condition the effectiveness of the leadership. Hence, such a model will largely help in describing the phenomenon of faculty leadership in Libyan universities in a way that could reasonably lead to actions aimed at enhancing future experiences of the faculty leadership.

In a nutshell, as explained in Johnson (1998) following Cressey (1953, p. 16), key Analytic Induction (AI) stages include:

1. Rough definition of the problems e.g. the problem of faculty leadership in this study;
2. Hypothetical explanation of the phenomenon or key aspects of interest e.g. the idea that faculty deans primarily enact transformational and transactional leadership in a collective way consistently with a collectivist and Islamic culture;
3. Examining one case or a few cases to confirm the relevance and/or validity of the explanation e.g. the selected university faculties used in this study;
4. Checking, retaining or excluding cases that fit or do not fit the explanation with possible reformulation of the explanations to fit all retained cases. In this study, the approach adopted is General Inductive Approach (GIA) (Thomas, 2006) for which the emphasis is on the generation of themes and categories which feed into a new theory built from the evidence base in a study. Hence, university faculties are already a tightly bound set of cases which need no selection or exclusion analysis but require the use of NVivo to elicit leadership themes which in the experience of the deans explain faculty leadership in Libyan universities;

5. Examining cases outside/within to determine defining conditions for the hypothetical explanation; in this study, university faculties in the selected universities are within the study as opposed to other universities, say, those in developed Western countries whose traditional leadership styles are set against the Libyan university leadership styles in defining the essential character of faculty leadership in Libya.

5.3.4 Criteria for evaluating qualitative research findings (hence findings from this research)

It is argued in the literature that the criteria for evaluating qualitative research findings should not strictly mimic the reliability and validity used in rigorous empirical research in the natural sciences, but should be relevant to the subjectivist and interpretive character of qualitative research such as this study. Hence, following Guba and Lincoln's (1989) 'authenticity' criteria, Symon and Cassell (Eds) (1998) suggest four main evaluation criteria which the author adapts to this study as follows:

1. *Resonance*: the extent to which the research process reflects the underlying analytic paradigms or type of qualitative methodology employed in a research. For this study, it is shown that the key aspects of the study resonate strongly with the AI and particularly the GAI approach. Also, the treatment of the findings will be mainly interpretive.
2. *Rhetoric*: the strength of the presenting argument; in this study the author links the research objectives and questions to the evidence by explaining later in this chapter and the thesis the need for all the items in the research instruments, and how the item analysis and results will be used to explore the research questions.
3. *Empowerment*: the extent to which the findings enable readers to take action or facilitate change in the phenomenon studied; in this research it is expected that understanding faculty leadership and building a model of how deans actually lead will provide an insight into how, if needed, university faculty leadership could be improved in Libya and other Arab countries, through leadership development workshops. This aspect of possible future use of the research results is not pursued any further in this study which focuses on the initial understanding and model building.

4. *Applicability*: how readers and stakeholders can apply the findings to their own contexts; in this study it is expected that faculty leaders and interested readers and stakeholders in Libya will understand various styles of faculty leadership in Libya, the effectiveness of faculty leaders as rated by their staff, and hence the strengths and weaknesses of individual deans as measured by some criteria of manifesting styles, staff extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction of staff with the leadership.

These criteria will be applied in more detail in the chapters on summary of results and contributions to knowledge later on in the thesis.

5.4 Interview questions and their links to research questions (RQs)

This section links the research questions on which this study is based to both leadership literature and the interview questions used in the study. It was argued in the literature that a number of factors influence leadership performance in specified leadership contexts. These include the skills attitudes and experiences of leaders as in questions 1-3 below (Northouse, 2010), leadership context, constraints and performance as in questions 4-7, 9, 12, 13 and 14 (Northouse, 2010; Yukl, 2010; Robbins, 1989; Bolman and Deal, 1997; Coleman and Glover, 2010; and Pucci et al., 2007), leadership styles as in questions 8, 10 and 11 (Splillane, 2006; Gronn, 2002; Denis et al., 2001; Buchanan et al., 2007; and Bass 1985, 1990).

The deans' interview questions referred to above are listed below and their links with the research questions for the study are shown in the corresponding brackets:

1. How long have you been a dean of this faculty? (RQ3)
2. What training programmes in the field of leadership and management did you go through before being appointed as a dean of faculty? (RQs 3 and 4)
3. May I ask you about your education background and your previous job? (RQ 3)
4. What are the main difficulties you faced in your leadership of this faculty? (RQs 3 and 4)
5. How do you evaluate the success of this faculty? (RQs 2 and 3)
6. What are your perceptions about the importance of leadership in the faculty? (RQ2)
7. What are your perceptions regarding the characteristics of an effective leader? (RQs 1, 2 and 3)
8. Which of these leadership styles do you think best describes your leadership style:

- a) A leadership style that expands the interests of staff their staff, generates awareness and acceptance of goals and tasks, and stirs the staff to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the faculty community (transformational leadership);
 - b) A leadership style that emphasizes corrective actions, mutual exchanges and rewards only when performance expectations are met (transactional leadership);
 - c) A leadership style that avoids taking decisions and leaves things for their responsible people to make the decision (laissez-faire leadership);
 - d) Another leadership style that you think best describes you? (RQs 1, 3 and 4)
9. Are there any constraints in the university system that hinders you from doing your job effectively? Please give examples. (RQs 3, 4 and 5)
 10. How do you communicate with your staff (horizontally, vertically, formally, informally, sometimes, frequently)? (RQs 1, 2 and 3)
 11. Who do you consult and how (formally, informally, written, spoken, sometimes, frequently)? (RQs 1, 2 and 3)
 12. What are the internal and external influences which affect your leadership performance (the culture, social relationships, power, favouritism, policies)? Please give examples.(RQs 3, 4 and 5)
 13. To what extent do you think that there is a relationship between the style of your leadership and the success of the faculty? Please give some examples.(RQs 1- 2)
 14. What do you think could be done to improve the performance of your leadership?
 15. And are there any support mechanisms that can help you develop your leadership style? (RQ 4)
 16. Is there anything else you would like to add about the subject of leadership in the faculty? (All RQs as appropriate).

As the linkages in brackets among the interview items and RQs show, the items were carefully framed to address the different research questions, albeit to different degrees. As earlier mentioned, these linkages enable the researcher to use the research questions as effective instruments for discussing the main results, recommendations and contributions of the research to knowledge as well as higher education leadership development in Libya and other Arab countries in Chapter 7 of this thesis.

5.5 Additional linkages between the research questions, interview and MLQ items

This linkage explains the nature of connections which the Multifactor-Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) items explored in Bass (1985, 1990) make with the research questions; hence research aims and objective which the research questions underpin. To motivate the connections better, the researcher recalls the MLQ items presented in Appendix 2, and below as follows.

Section A of the MLQ (demographic variables) includes university, faculty, department, position (HOD and Lecturer), gender, highest educational qualifications, and years in teaching.

These questions show that the faculty staff surveyed are academics who are well equipped to examine the leadership performance of their deans. This makes their responses practically relevant and valid to the research questions.

Section B: - contains questions on transformational leadership including idealized influence (items 1-11), inspirational motivation (items 12-17), intellectual stimulation (items 18-21), and individual consideration (items 22-26).

These items are linked to item 8a in the previous list of interview items presented in section 5.3 and facilitate effective discussion and triangulation of the deans' responses regarding transformational leadership.

Also Section B: - contains questions on transactional leadership including contingent reward (items 27-30), management by expectations (A) (items 31-34), and management by expectation (P) (items 35-38).

These items are linked to item 8b in the previous list of interview items and facilitate effective discussion and triangulation of the deans' responses regarding transactional leadership

The MLQ further contains the following questions on:

- Laissez-faire leadership (items 39-43);
- Extra effort (44-46); effectiveness (items 47-50);

- Satisfaction (items 51-52); and
- Open-ended questions about leadership styles of faculty deans and leadership styles the staff think are more appropriate for the faculty.

Again, laissez-faire leadership (items 39-43) are linked to item 8c in the previous list of interview items. The other items (47-52) which evaluated the leadership effectiveness of faculty deans.

As explained in Chapters 6 and 7 of the thesis, the MLQ is a standard and well validated tool for studying leadership performance in many contexts. By using it in this study, the researcher elicits responses from faculty staff about leadership styles and performance of their deans which triangulate the results obtained from the interview of deans themselves.

In summary, the linkages between the MLQ items and corresponding items in the deans' interview schedule are ways the MLQ items are linked to the RQs already mapped to the interview items, hence to related links between the RQs, aims and objectives.

The researcher will use the above links amongst research aims and objectives and also amongst research objectives and interview questions in developing the implications of the research findings in Chapter 8 of the thesis, which is focused on contribution to knowledge by the research.

It is clear from the above links that the research questions underpin both the objectives and the aims of the research. Hence, in subsequent chapters of the thesis the researcher will use the above-mentioned links among the research questions and research instruments to explore the research aims and objectives.

5.6 Research instruments and strategies

5.6.1 Choice of research instruments

The researcher used an interview guide in the form of a list of questions which are framed around the constructs of leadership explored in the literature to interview the selected deans, in order to understand their perceived leadership styles.

The interview guide is presented in Appendix 3. As explored in the literature review, relational leadership models such as shared, collaborative and collective leadership styles sometimes have to combine elements of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. Particularly, transformational leadership underpins effective leadership practices and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was mentioned to be a good instrument for exploring different dimensions of Bass and Avolio's (1997) Full range Transformational Leadership Model. These dimensions include: transformational leadership behaviours (idealised and attributed influence, individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation); transactional leadership factors (contingent reward, active versus passive management-by-exception); and other elements of leadership factors (satisfaction, extra effort and effectiveness).

In order to assess the opinion of faculty staff regarding the leadership performances of the deans, the researcher used the MLQ to obtain the responses of the staff to questions framed around the above elements. It was noted in the literature that the construct validity of all versions of the MLQ have been tested in different studies, mostly in Western settings (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999; Bass and Avolio, 1997; and Hater & Bass, 1988, among others). Hence, the researcher deems the instrument useful in exploring similar issues related to leadership performance of faculty deans in Libyan universities.

Moreover, results from the MLQ survey of staff will provide new knowledge about the extent to which faculty leadership in such non-Western setting as Libyan universities is transformational, transactional, and how effective the leadership performance is.

5.7 Dean's interview guide

The interview guide presented in Appendix 3 was developed using ideas from the review of literature and was used to collect data from the selected sample. An interview guide indicates the topics and their sequence in the interview. The interview guide outlines the topics to be covered as well as suggested questions (Kvale, 1996 cited in Ritchie & Lewis 2003) but still allows flexibility with each individual interviewed (Ritchie & Lewis 2003). That is, the interview questions do not necessarily follow exactly the order as outlined on the schedule and as the interviewer picks up on issues mentioned by interviewees, some questions may be asked that are not in the guide. Thus, the interview emphasis is on how the interviewee frames and understands issues (Bryman & Bell 2003).

Kvale (1996) points out that in;

“designing interviews questions should be dynamically presented and [should] promote a positive interaction, keep the flow of the conversation going and motivate the interviewees to talk about their experiences and feelings; the questions should be easy to understand, short, and devoid of academic language” (p.130).

The interview guide used in this research included all possible detailed questions that the researcher explores and is primarily semi-structured, since the guiding questions were used to steer the interviews to the key issues, whilst there was flexibility in the flow of the interview and sequence in which the questions were asked. The questions asked were easy to understand and direct to the issues under discussion.

The design of the interview guide for this research followed the above principles. In the interview guide presented in Appendix 3, the topics are divided into the following four key categories in relation to the research questions:

1. Deans' Background;
2. Deans' Job and role in the Faculty;
3. Deans' views regarding Leadership and their leadership styles; and
4. The relationship between Faculty success and Leadership styles.

This categorisation has been done in order to understand everything about deans because all parts of those items have an effect on deans' behaviours.

5.8 Sample selection

Verma and Mallick (1998) noted that there are several methods that can be used for selecting samples for a research. According to Merriam (2002), since qualitative research seeks to understand the meaning of a phenomenon from the perspectives of the participants, the researcher must select a sample from which the most can be learned. Therefore, it is essential to determine which criteria specified for sample selection will yield the most information about the phenomenon under study. Given the scope and objective of this research the criteria for participant selections are as follows: Deans who have been working in a particular faculty for more than a year. The following points describe the sample selection rationales and process in more detail.

5.8.1 Selection of universities

All public universities in Libya run the same administrative system. The field study of this research has been done on three Libyan universities in 2009. Those three universities have been selected according to the following criteria which in the opinion of the researcher will enable richer information on faculty leadership in Libya to be collected:

1. The ranking of the universities by the General People's Committee of Higher Education¹⁶, whereby the top university in Libya is included in the sample. This university is the biggest university in Libya.
2. The top university is in the capital city where the researcher lives which is close to the General People's Committee of Higher Education as well.
3. The second university is ranked 4 by the Libyan General People's Committee of Higher Education and is in the city west of the capital city
4. The third university is new, small and is in the city south of the capital city.

The fact that all these three universities are located around the capital city "Tripoli" where the researcher lives made the data collection (interviews of deans and questionnaire survey of faculty workers) easier and affordable by reducing travel and accommodation costs that would have been spent on more distant universities.

5.8.2 Selection of faculties

Consistent with the need to obtain the most information on faculty leadership practices in Libya, the main criteria for faculty selection was faculties which are spread out across different fields of study for example social science, engineering sciences, applied sciences, and medical sciences faculties respectively. In order for their responses to be informed by sufficient leadership experiences the deans of the selected faculties must have worked one year or more as faculty deans.

5.8.3 Selection of staff

Heads of departments selected for questionnaire survey are also those who have been in this position for one year or more. Similarly, sampled lecturers must have been

¹⁶ General People's Committee of Higher Education is Ministry of higher Education

working in the chosen faculties for more than one year in order to know their deans' Leadership styles. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was administered to such faculty workers by the researcher.

University (A):- There are 15 Faculties in this university and 8 Faculties (about 53% of them) have been contacted for this study following the above criteria, in addition to an interview with the University Chancellor. The relative distribution of departments in the chosen faculties is as shown above:

Faculties	Departments
Faculty of Economics	8
Faculty of Arts and Education	7
Faculty of preparing teacher	12
Faculty of Languages	5
Faculty of Arts & Media	4
Faculty of Physical Education	3
Faculty of Science	10
Faculty of Agriculture	10

University (B): - There is 12 Faculties in this university and 9 Faculties (75%) have been selected for this study with the following numbers of departments:

Faculties	Departments
Faculty of Economics- at Al Ajalaat	6
Faculty of Economics, Zawya	5
Faculty of preparing Teacher	8
Faculty of Low	4
Faculty of Arts	10
Faculty of Engineering	8
Faculty of Science	8
Faculty of medicine	8
Faculty of Veterinary & Agricultural Sciences	4

University (C):- There are 6 Faculties in this university and 3 Faculties (50%) have been contacted for this study with the following number of departments, in addition to an interview with the University Chancellor:

Faculties	Departments
Faculty of Economics	3
Faculty of Science	4
Faculty of Arts	5

In summary, the researcher selected:

1. Three Libyan public universities in three different cities in Libya.
2. In all, 20 Faculty Deans and 2 University Chancellors were selected.

In order to elicit different views about leadership styles of Faculty Deans, two different pictures from two different management levels around deans have been selected, university chancellors from the top management of the universities who have been in this position one year or more in order to know their deans, and Faculty staff from middle management of the Faculty who have been working one year or more in the Faculty in order to know their deans as well. The table below shows details of the sample selected from each university.

Table 5.1: Sample description

University (A)	University (B)	University (C)	Total
(8) Faculty Deans	(9) Faculty Deans	(3) Faculty Deans	(20) Faculty Deans
University chancellor		University Chancellor	(2) University Chancellors

It is noteworthy that the sampling schemes for the research is purposive sampling and is aimed at enabling the researcher to obtain the most useful information on faculty leadership experiences and practices in Libyan universities from staff who have the experiences. This approach is relevant to the need for authentic assessment of the research topic using qualitative research methods. In this method, as argued above in the section on research approach, it is necessary to collect information about leadership

practices and experiences from deans and staff who have sufficient knowledge of the issues so that the research findings will meet the following evaluation criteria:

- Support a rich interpretation of the leadership practices (resonance);
- Produce a good understanding of the dynamics of faculty leadership in Libyan universities to an extent that will empower action on the part of deans and the university system to improve on the leadership performance; and
- Produce a working model of leadership practices in the faculty which will inform this improvement (applicability).

5.9 Limitations of the research findings related to the sampling scheme

The researcher notes that it is typically required that a randomly chosen sample be used in a study in order to enable the findings to be generalized to the entire study population. This is particularly important when an empirical relationship between some study variables is hypothesized and interest lies in ensuring that such a relationship is valid across the whole population from a statistical point of view. In this study, what is of interest is the nature of leadership practices in Libyan universities. Given the fact that all universities are managed according to the same higher educational guidelines, a working model of faculty leadership in the sampled universities (even when these were not randomly selected) will describe the leadership experiences across other universities.

5.10 Detailed description of the data collection process

The data collection started in April 2009. When visiting universities that were eligible for the research, the researcher spoke to vice chancellors and showed them both authorisation letters from Sheffield Hallam University and Libyan embassy-London. Each Vice Chancellor welcomed the researcher and wrote permission letters to their Faculty Deans letting them know about the interview topic (see Appendix 4 for copies of the letters). Also, when visiting Faculties that were eligible for the research, the researcher spoke to Faculty Deans for at least twenty minutes, explaining the main aims of the research and briefing them on the issue of confidentiality. All Deans were very happy to be interviewed and gave their best for any data the researcher needs.

5.10.1 Interview

The researcher personally interviewed the Deans in each of the 20 Faculties selected from the three Universities to describe their leadership styles. Each interview lasted approximately one hour. Prior to this, the researcher obtained two authorisation letters from Sheffield Business School at Sheffield Hallam University and from the delegate of higher education in the Libyan Embassy-London, which supports the research study in the UK. These letters were attached to letters sent to the top management of the three selected universities explaining the researchers' interest in working with them on a research into leadership styles of deans.

The researcher was granted permission to undertake the research in the institutions and the management of the institutions wrote to their Faculty Deans to allow the researcher to conduct his research in their faculties. The authorisation letters from the top management of these three universities helped in creating access for the researcher to meet the Faculty Deans and interview them. The Faculty Deans were very cooperative and helpful. (See, Appendix 4 for copies of the Authorization letters).

In collecting data for this study, the researcher travelled to three selected universities located in three different cities in Libya. The Faculties in two universities were not in the same camps, which made the researcher travel between these Faculties by car and some of these Faculties were not in the same city where the University is. At times, the researcher spent a whole day from early morning until later afternoon collecting data and travelling between faculties.

When the researcher visited each faculty to conduct the interview, he introduced himself to the Dean and briefed him or her about the general nature of the research and how the interview was to be conducted. In keeping good research ethics, during these discussions the researcher assured the respondents that their opinions would be treated confidentially by not being associated with their names directly, and that the information gathered will be strictly used for research purposes in order to understand faculty leadership in Libyan universities.

The semi-structured interview strategy adopted for this study enabled the Deans to present their own views regarding their leadership style and other leadership issues in relation to their institution. The questions focused on the Deans' visions for the faculty,

communication strategies of the Deans, how they evaluate themselves as leaders and how their subordinates perceive their leadership styles. Other questions focused on constraints that hinder the Deans from doing their job effectively and their perceptions regarding the characteristics of a good leader. As mentioned earlier, the interview questions are shown on the interview guide presented in Appendix 3. The actual interviews were recorded in Arabic and transcribed later into English language. During the interviews the researcher focused on the Deans' personal perspectives and sought very detailed subject coverage and in-depth understanding of the personal context within which the research is conducted (See, Ritchie & Lewis 2003). This strategy for data collection enabled the Deans to express their reactions in their own words, allowing the subsequent formulation and development of themes related to the research objectives.

5.10.2 Questionnaire survey of faculty staff using the MLQ

5.10.2.1 Background notes on the MLQ

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was purchased from Mind Garden, Inc. by the researcher for use in studying faculty workers' opinions of their faculty deans' performances. The following points explain the relevance of the instrument for this research.

‘[The MLQ] measures a broad range of leadership types from passive leaders, to leaders who give contingent rewards to followers, to leaders who transform their followers into becoming leaders themselves. The MLQ identifies the characteristics of a transformational leader and helps individuals discover how they measure up in their own eyes and in the eyes of those with whom they work. Success can be measured through a retesting program to track changes in leadership style. The program described in the MLQ Trainer's Guide provides a solid base for leadership training’ (Mind Garden, Inc., website: www.mindgarden.com/).

As mentioned above, the MLQ items cover the following key perspectives of this research as regards leadership styles and effectiveness on the part of deans as perceived by their faculty workers: transformational leadership; transactional leadership; laissez-faire leadership; staff extra effort; effectiveness; and satisfaction of staff with their deans' performances (the MLQ is presented in Appendix 2).

The MLQ has frequently been used to measure leadership styles. It identifies the characteristics of a transformational leader and helps individuals discover how they measure up in the eyes of staff with whom they work. One reason for using this instrument in the context of Libya, which culturally is dissimilar to the original context in which it was developed, is because, as Den Hartog et al. (1999) argue in their study of culturally specific and cross-cultural aspects of leadership, some attributes of charismatic/ transformational leadership are strongly and universally endorsed across cultures.

Hence, it is considered useful to use the MLQ to investigate perceived leadership styles of faculty deans in Libyan universities along the same leadership styles and issues that the MLQ examines. This will enrich the resulting understanding of leadership in Libyan public universities, both in terms of a generic framework that accounts for related practices and particularly in the light of how faculty staff evaluate their dean's in their practices of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles.

In this understanding, laissez-faire leadership which amounts to 'no leadership' serves as a control level which measures leadership failure, while achieving higher scores in transactional and mainly transformational leadership styles imply active faculty leadership on the part of the deans. This is the first time in the knowledge of the researcher that the MLQ is used in such a complementary way to examine contextual leadership of faculties in Libyan public universities, and Libyan higher education system in general. It will therefore provide a good foundation for further studies of leadership in Libyan public service and how to improve on its efficacy.

In other words, the MLQ approach to the study addresses the need for strong development of leadership practices in Libyan academic institutions, which the researcher believes to be very healthy for a democracy and essential for Libyan universities in the era of the 'global village'.

As mentioned above, the MLQ instrument (see Appendix 2) is based on three defining styles of leadership - transformational, transactional and laissez-faire (non-transactional) leadership - which together offer a typology for diagnosing leadership effectiveness.

This instrument is used for appropriate quantitative analysis of faculty staffs' perception of the leadership styles of their deans.

The responses from Faculty staff in this study were classified on a 5-point Likert scale: 0 = not at all; 1= once in a while; 2 = sometimes; 3 = fairly often; and 4 = frequently if not always). Section A of the Questionnaire was to measure the demographic variables of the staff. Section B which consistent of 52 Questions measured their perceptions of Deans' leadership styles.

The form of questionnaire used for this study was designed for the respondents to complete on their own, without reference to any other party. One of the things the researcher took into consideration before administering the questionnaires to these staff (with the permission of their deans) was to avoid unnecessary demands on the respondents.

The main justification for using questionnaires to collect data from staff was that questionnaires can be used conveniently when a larger number of respondents need to be reached. The second advantage of using a questionnaire was that the data collection was less time-consuming, because staff were grouped in their various Faculties.

The third advantage of using questionnaires in this study is that it helped the researcher to retain a higher degree of confidentiality, ensuring that the responses the staff gave were free from any influence from the deans. This is why the researcher had to remain in faculties for many hours so that they could hand the questionnaires to me personally, without passing them through the deans. Although the researcher had assured them of confidentiality, they might otherwise have been too careful in their responses, in order to avoid being seen as being against the project ideas.

As noted above, the questionnaire was conducted to elicit additional information. The period required for briefing the heads of departments and lecturers was from 15-20 minutes. There was no specific time allocation for the return of the questionnaires, but most respondents returned theirs to the researcher immediately after answering it. The researcher thought at the time that this was because they did not want their deans to know how they had been rated, to avoid animosity, although he had assured them of confidentiality.

The respondents, in this case Faculty staff, were asked to respond to questions already prepared for them. The disadvantage of the quantitative method is that some respondents do not take time to really give responses according to what they think, but rather respond to the information before them. There is no possibility of criticism from the respondents, but only compliance or non-compliance. However, the advantage of this Questionnaire, there were two open-ended questions and further comments required from the respondents, namely:

1. If you have any further comment about the Leadership styles of your Faculty Dean please write here.
2. What types of the leadership styles do you think are more appropriate for this Faculty? (The Leadership style that you wish to see it in this Faculty)

Those two questions have given the respondents the opportunity to give more views about the leadership style of their deans and what kind of leadership style they wish to see in their faculty. The advantage of using this method is that questions can be answered quickly and in large numbers. The researcher himself has distributed the questionnaire to most heads of department and lecturers of each Faculty and he has received most of the responses in the same day he has distributed the questionnaire and obtained other responses in the next day and the days after.

In summary, the researcher administered a total of 250 questionnaires to staff in faculties asking them to rate their Deans' leadership styles. 134 were completed and returned, giving a response rate of about 50%.

5.10.3 Pilot study

To reiterate the above points, semi-structured interviews and MLQ were used because, as there is evidence that transformational leadership is strongly and universally endorsed across cultures. However, the researcher conducted a pilot study of Deans in two faculties in order to verify whether the interview questions were clear and had relevance for faculty deans. Also, the researcher wanted to verify whether the MLQ instrument could be understood by and had relevance for Faculty staff; consequently in the pilot study copies of the MLQ were administered to lecturers in the two faculties selected for the pilot. The Deans and Lecturers in the pilot were chosen by virtue of their

long-standing academic reputations which imply adequate knowledge of faculty leadership issues in the universities.

The purpose of the pilot study was to ascertain the relevance of the interview guide which contains 20 questions and to ascertain the relevance of the MLQ, which contains 52 items, and also to check the understanding of the language being used in the interview and MLQ. Thus, the aim of this pilot study was to establish the face validity of the research instruments. In the pilot exercise, the two Deans' interviews were conducted in the same day and discussions took place after the interview immediately. Both Deans assured the researcher that the interview questions were clear and suitable for the examination of leadership styles of deans, so there were no changes to the interview guide.

The distribution of the MLQ questionnaires and discussions in the pilot study took place in the second day. In an open discussion with all of the lectures and heads of departments involved in the pilot study, they assured the researcher that the MLQ instrument was easily understood as presented to them. Therefore, the language of the interview and the instrument could be retained. The number of the Faculty staff who took part in the pilot study of the MLQ was 10 from each Faculty. All of them gave their suggestions and the responses were generally positive.

One of the suggestions they made was to change the word 'organisation', to 'Faculty', so that it was clear that the faculty environment was being researched. The main point of their responses was that they could understand the questions well, although it was the first time that they had read about the concept of transformational leadership and an instrument related to the measurement of leadership style was a new idea for them.

After the pilot study had been carried out, the researcher interviewed the deans and administered the MLQ questionnaires to the faculty staff in the selected faculties. The researcher personally briefed the faculty staff on the importance of their honest replies, given that the findings from the study regarding the leadership styles and performances of deans are pre-requisites for leadership development training in faculties and universities.

5.11 Detailed description of the data analysis process

5.11.1 Main qualitative analysis of deans' interview responses (A general inductive approach for qualitative data analysis, Thomas, 2006)

In analysing qualitative research, the researcher plays an integral, personal and subjective role (Creswell 2009). The researcher's self-understanding and use of own general knowledge about the context to interpret statements made by the interviewees is useful in analysing the data (Kvale, 1996). The analysis of qualitative data is conducted through conceptualization (see, Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). A process that Creswell (2009) suggested involves preparing the data for analysis, conducting different analyses, moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data, representing the data and making an interpretation of the data's larger meaning.

All Deans' interviews for this research were conducted in Arabic language, transcribed into a Word file and then translated into English language. This involved a significant amount of time. A sample interview record is presented in Appendix 5 of this chapter. The transcribed interview records were then imported into NVIVO 8 software which was used to perform the qualitative data analysis. This software was used because it has features which aids document editing, coding and linking which are crucial steps in qualitative research as applied to this study (Thomas, 2006).

The software enabled the researcher to index segments of the transcribed interview to particular themes, link research notes to coding, carry out complex search and retrieval operations. Additionally, it provided tools that helped the researcher examine possible relationships among themes (King, 2004). The use of the software therefore allowed the researcher to work efficiently with codes derived from a large body of transcripts and facilitated analytical depth and complexity (Thomas, 2006).

In analysing the data from the interviews, direct quotations from deans about their experiences, opinions, feelings, and knowledge was utilised. According to Ritchie and Lewis (2003) and Thomas (2006) a thorough review of the range and depth of qualitative research data may yield a long list of what appear to be important themes and concepts. Therefore, the transcripts generated for this study were read through repeatedly, and during such readings the researcher made notes on interesting points, overall impressions and emergent ideas.

This continued reading and note-taking provided the researcher with an overview of the data coverage and thoroughly familiarised the researcher with the data setting. The main themes and patterns that emerge were categorised along the lines of the questions asked in the interview schedule.

Ritchie and Lewis (2003) explain that qualitative data analysis “initially involves deciding upon the themes or concepts under which the data will be labelled, sorted and compared” (p. 221). Thus, this research used the suggested sub-themed topics and questions in the interview guide to explore certain specific topics in relation to the research questions. These cue questions provided the categories for investigation and subsequent data analysis.

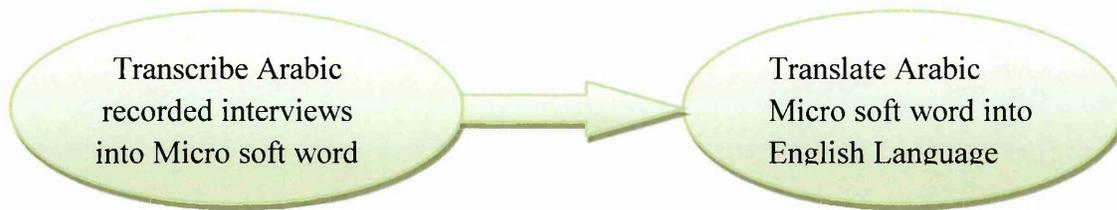
The relationships between the categorized themes and patterns were then identified, grouped and sorted, and finally, the data were sorted by main themes within the categories addressed by the research questions. In interpreting the interview data, the researcher gave attention to the insights on the research questions offered by the interviewees rather than differentiating their identities as different deans from different faculties. This practice is consistent with the overall aim of the research which is to build a working model of leadership practices of university faculty deans in Libya.

5.11.1.1 Detailed description of interview analysis techniques

This study has adopted a general inductive approach for qualitative analysis of the data. Thomas (2006) argues that the general inductive approach provides an easily used and systematic set of procedures for analysing qualitative data which can produce reliable and valid findings. Many authors (for example Bryman & Burgess, 1994; Dey, 1993) reporting analyses of qualitative data describe a strategy that can be labelled as a "general inductive approach". This strategy is evident in much qualitative data analysis.

The use of an inductive approach is common in several types of qualitative data analysis, such as grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 2008). It is consistent with the general patterns of qualitative data analysis described by other authors (e.g., Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.9; Pope et al., 2000; Punch, 2005). Miles & Huberman (1994) described three broad tasks for qualitative data analysis namely: data reduction; data display; and conclusion drawing or verification. Several authors such as Miles & Huberman (1994) and Silverman (2010) state that qualitative data analysis starts with

transcription of the data; therefore the recorded interviews were transcribed into Microsoft word file in Arabic Language, and then translated into English Language, which was time consuming as well.



The researcher read each transcription several times, and he tried to analyse the data manually by reading some transcription several times line by line and coding most of the sentences of those interviews. As the qualitative data was huge it was time consuming to analyse them manually. Therefore using NVivo software was the best solution. 20 transcriptions of the Deans' interviews were imported to NVivo Software. Figure 5.1 below displays some categories used in the NVivo analysis.

Bazeley (2007) describes five principal ways in which NVivo supports analysis of qualitative data: Managing data; managing ideas; Querying data; Graphical model; and Report from the data - using contents of the qualitative database, including information about and in the original data sources. There is a perception that use of a computer helps to ensure rigour in the analysis process. For example, by picking up every coded instance of a concept, it provides a more complete set of results for interpretation than might occur when working manually (Bazeley, 2007).

According to Thomas (2006), the inductive coding process starts with close reading of text and consideration of the several meanings, identifying specific text segments related to the objectives, creating a label for a new category to which the text segment is assigned, reducing overlap among the categories, and creating a model which incorporates the most important categories. This coding process has been adopted in this research. The researcher read each transcription several times and coded every sentence, whether relevant or not relevant to the objective of the research; and then separated the sentence from the body of the text with new title, which were 304 specific categories, which derived from multiple readings of the raw data (Thomas, 2006).

The researcher created 65 free nodes under new titles by merging the categories, which have similar meaning and considered as a free node pointed out by the meaning of the participants. The following example shows some of the free nodes that had been created in this data. Thomas (2006) claims that in inductive coding, categories are commonly created from actual phrases or meanings in specific text segments (see Figure 5.1 below).

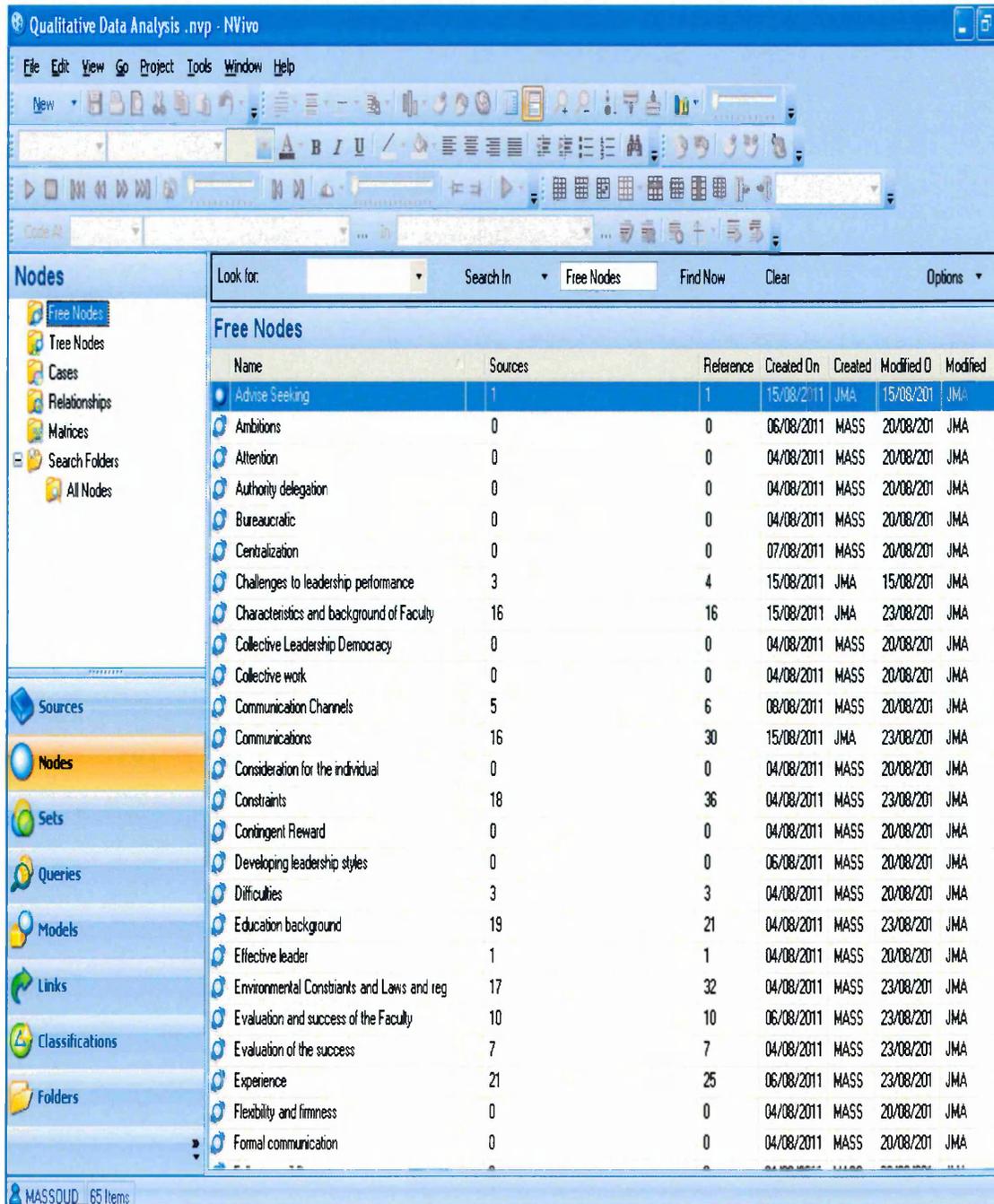


Figure 5-1: Detailed NVivo coding

In the overlap coding, as Thomas (2006) claimed, some of the categories had a relation with other categories and were merged together in a hierarchical category system and labelled with a bigger headline. The researcher reduced the free nodes that have the same meaning, and labelled them to create 39 categories, as suggested in Miles & Huberman (1994), which indicates that the coding function model is to reduce large amounts of data into a small number of analytical categories. In inductive coding, the categories are commonly created from actual phrases or meanings in specific text segments (Thomas, 2006).

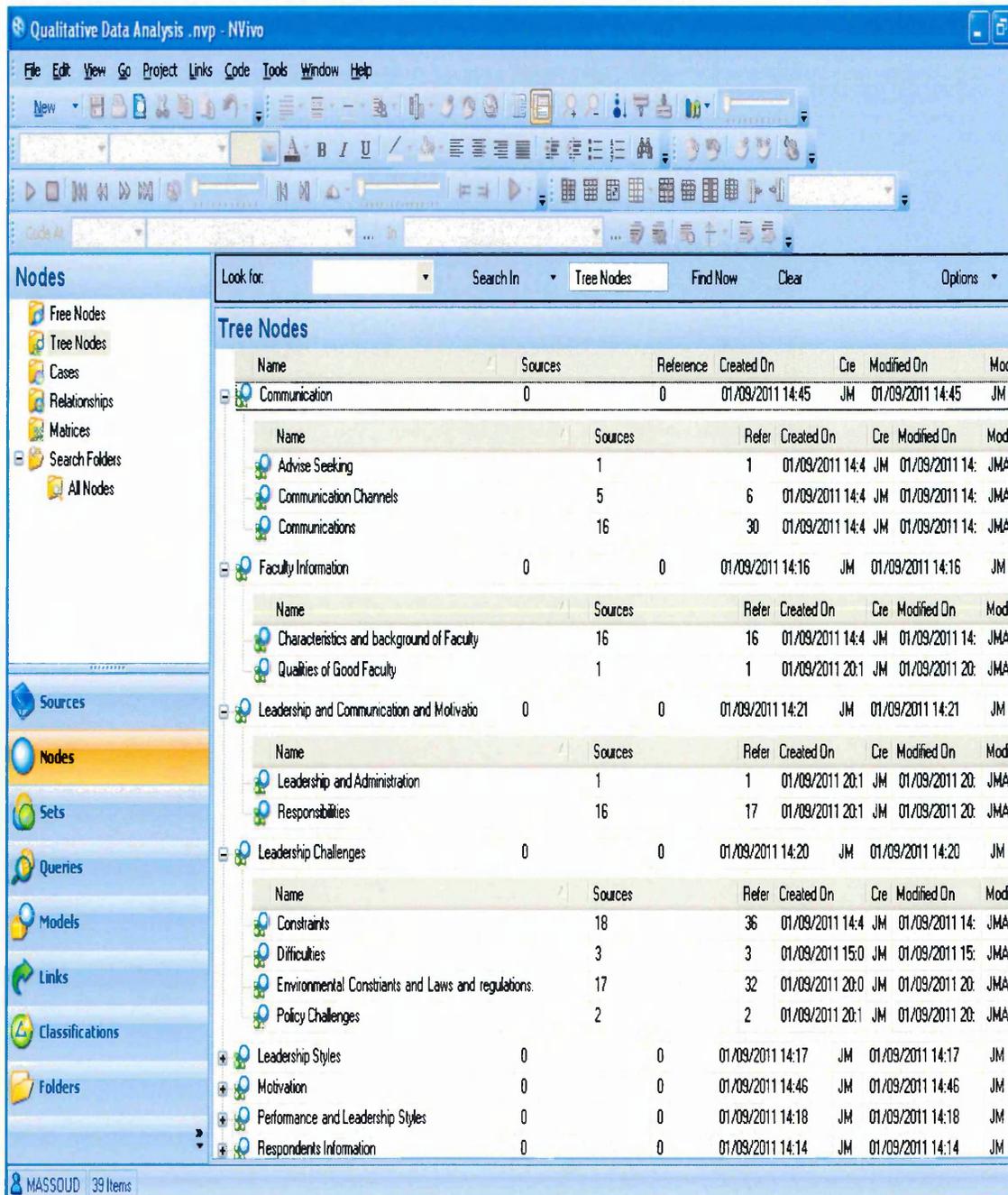


Figure 5-2: Further NVivo coding

The most important categories were selected as 8 Tree nodes to convey the core theme. The following sample shows the 8 Tree nodes.

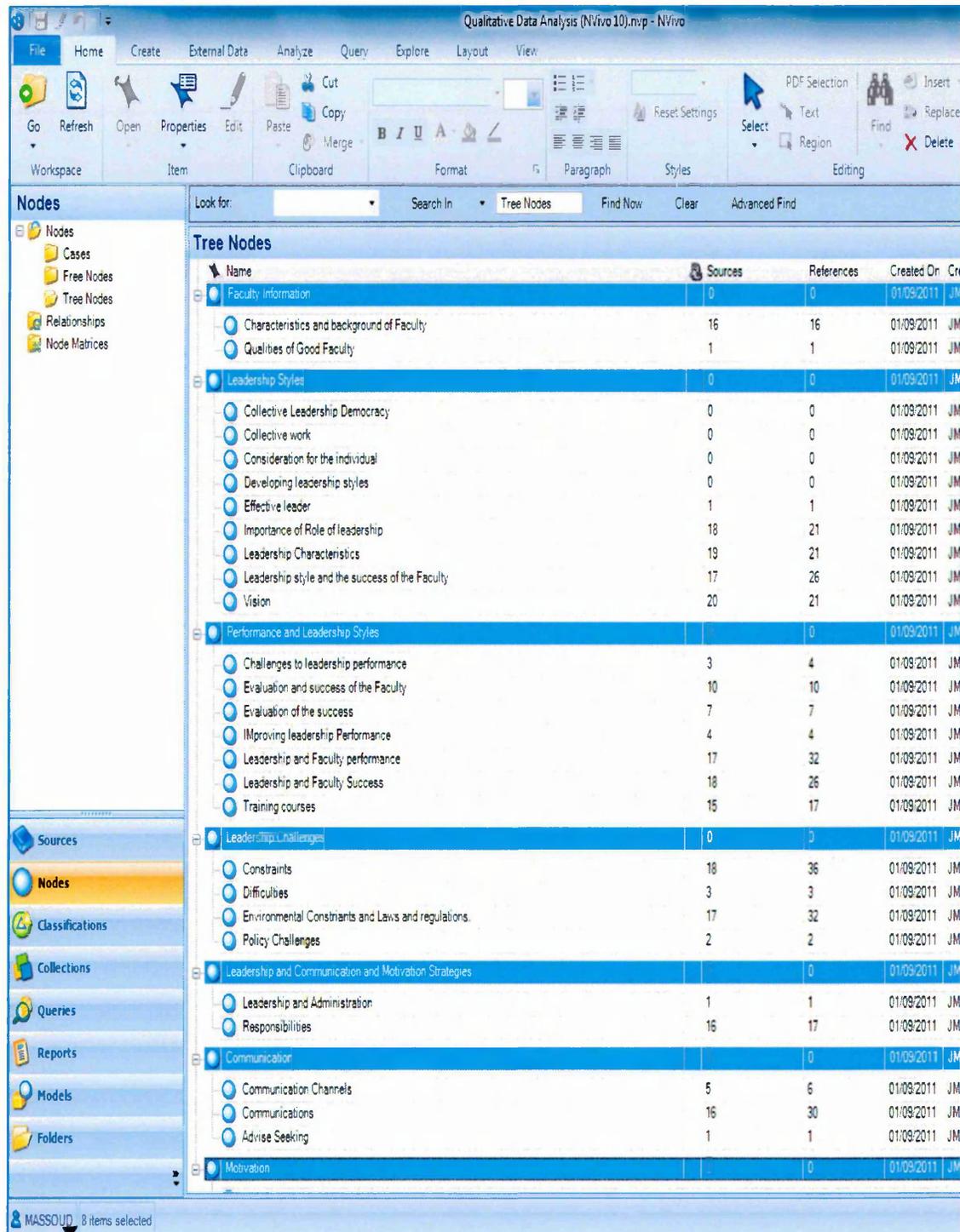


Figure 5-3: Further NVivo coding

The researcher created the final 6 items below according to the categories in figure 5.3 above.

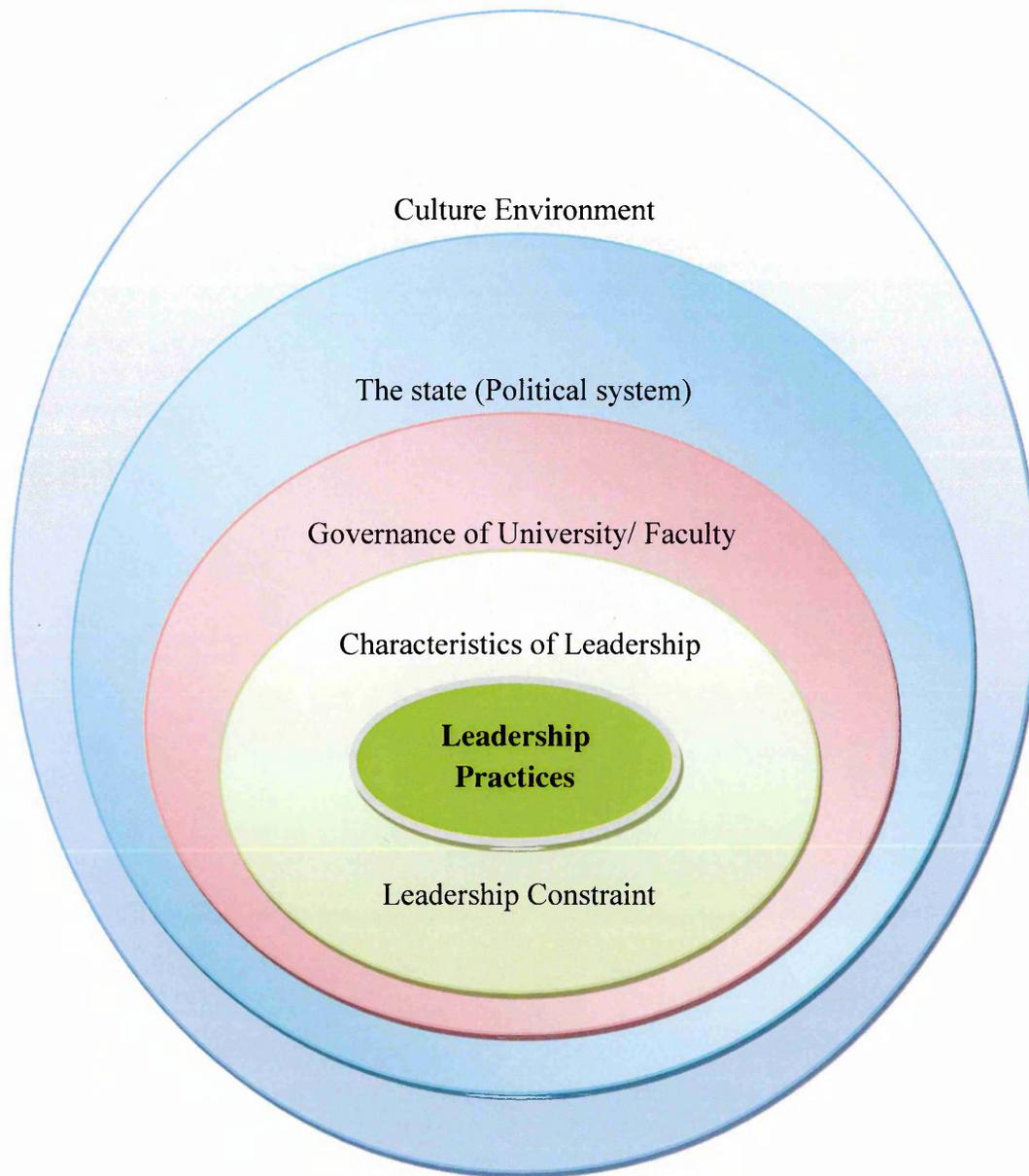


Figure 5-4: A Schematic of the Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) Model

The figure indicates that the Leadership Practices in the Libyan Faculties are influenced by Culture Environment, Governance of University/ Faculty and the Political system of the state according to the researcher's thought, which is dependent on the categories of Deans' responses in figure 5.3. Consequently, the researcher decided to start building the LCL model with three items 1, 2, and 3 below:-

1- Culture Environment

4- Characteristics of Leadership

2- Governance of University/ Faculty

5- Leadership Practices

3- Political system

6- Leadership Constraints

The main item is Leadership Practices which is influenced by other two items, Characteristics of Leadership and Leadership Constraints according to the researcher's thinking. According to these 6 items the researcher reduced 8 Tree nodes shown in Figure 5.3 to 6 Tree nodes as the following extract shows.

Name	Sources	References	Created On
Political System	0	0	01/09/2011 14:21
Policy Challenges	2	2	01/09/2011 20:16
Laws and regulations.	17	32	01/09/2011 20:04
Ideology of the stat	16	17	18/04/2013 20:02
Centralization and Bureaucracy	3	3	01/09/2011 15:07
Leadership Practices	0	0	01/09/2011 14:17
Motivation Strategies	0	0	01/09/2011 14:46
Consideration	0	0	01/09/2011 14:47
Communications Strategies	16	30	01/09/2011 14:47
Collective work	0	0	01/09/2011 14:44
Collective Leadership Democracy	0	0	01/09/2011 14:44
Leadership Constraints	0	0	01/09/2011 14:20
Lack of	18	35	01/09/2011 14:48
Governance of University Faculty	0	0	01/09/2011 14:45
Role of people's committees of Faculty	16	16	01/09/2011 14:43
Role of Dean	18	21	01/09/2011 20:07
Responsibilities of Dean	16	17	01/09/2011 20:17
Communication Channels	5	6	01/09/2011 14:45
Advise Seeking	1	1	01/09/2011 14:42
Cultural Environment	0	0	01/09/2011 14:16
Social relations	1	1	01/09/2011 20:04
Islamic culture	18	26	01/09/2011 20:14
Effect of culture on Leadership style	19	21	01/09/2011 20:15
Culture challenges	3	4	01/09/2011 14:43
leadership Performance	4	4	01/09/2011 20:07
Characteristics of leadership	0	0	01/09/2011 14:18
Vision	20	21	01/09/2011 20:20
Traits and characteristics of Dean	0	0	01/09/2011 14:14
Preception of a successful leader	0	0	01/09/2011 14:48
Dean perception of Leadership	1	1	01/09/2011 20:13

Figure 5-5: Final NVivo categories

5.11.2 Questionnaires Survey (MLQ)

To summarize, the detailed analysis of the MLQ results presented in Chapter 6 of this thesis, the researcher scored the responses to the MLQ items provided by the faculty workers to obtain the frequencies of the items. The researcher then obtained overall and mean scores on the items across all deans in all the sampled universities and in individual universities. These results are explained in more detail in Chapter 6 of the thesis.

It is noteworthy that the scores obtained will vary from item to item and university to university (essentially faculty to faculty) depending on the base numbers of staff that responded to the MLQ in each faculty. The analytical procedure used was to obtain a mean score for the items and minimum and maximum possible scores for each item. These scores are used as follows in assessing the way staff rate their Deans on the MLQ items. Firstly, a middlemost score is obtained using the middlemost rank of 2 on the Likert scale with scores 0, 1, 2, 3 and 4. Secondly, the observed score for an item is compared to both the middlemost score available for the item in a particular faculty or university and the minimum and maximum scores. The interpretations are as follows.

The more the observed average score (which is essentially an arithmetic mean of the item scores) is above the middlemost score, the higher a dean is perceived by the faculty workers to perform on that item or criterion. Contrariwise, the lower the average score is below the middlemost score, the less the dean is perceived to perform on that criterion. Again, the closer the average score is to the maximum score for an item, the more intense the dean's performance on the criterion is, enabling the researcher to describe the quality or force of deans' performances on the various criteria.

Interestingly, the scores provide information on how the deans' leadership performances are rated by staff. Taken further, the scores also rank the deans' performances relative to each other in the overall sample across all the universities and for deans in particular universities. This way, a sense of how well deans are doing on different leadership performance indicators represented by the MLQ items emerges. This has important implications for how deans can develop leadership capabilities to strengthen areas of weaknesses or be selected as role models to coach other deans on the areas where they excel in possible leadership development training sessions, for instance.

It should be noted that whereas in a strictly quantitative approach to data analysis the calculated mean scores would have been used to implement appropriate statistical tests of hypotheses to confirm a priori presuppositions about how leadership performance depends on some mediating factors, the mean scores are used in this study to rate qualitatively and rank deans' leadership performances.

Also, the staff rating of the deans' performances will confirm for the researcher to what extent deans' perceptions of their leadership styles (hence insights from these perceptions about a possible working model for higher education leadership in Libya) are corroborated in their staff views. This is the sense in which the MLQ results help the researcher to triangulate the interview results obtained from deans' responses.

Overall, it is safe to label the use of average scores in the above way as quasi-quantitative and to see the MLQ analysis as a qualitative scoring of the staff MLQ responses which complements the mainstream qualitative analysis of the deans' opinions using Analytic Induction.

5.12 Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the research methodology which underpins the entire study. Importantly, the chapter developed the linkages among research questions (hence research objectives and aims), the interview questions and MLQ survey items in order to clarify how the research questions are investigated through those research instruments. It described in some detail the research approach as primarily qualitative and motivates the philosophical commitments of the approach and the positionality of the researcher within this commitment (Section 5.3). The chapter also discussed the sample selection, research instruments/strategies, and detailed description of the data collection and analysis process (Sections 5.4 – 5.9).

CHAPTER 6: DATA ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the semi-structured interviews conducted for this study and the analysis of faculty staff responses to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Whilst the interview results present the deans' perceptions of leadership and their own leadership styles, the MLQ results present the opinions of faculty staff on deans' leadership styles, effectiveness of deans; staff extra effort, and how satisfied they are with the deans' leadership style.

The interview procedures, data transcripts and analysis were discussed in the methodology section. The purpose of the semi-structured interviews of the faculty deans was to draw out information from deans of Libyan universities about:

- Their responsibilities;
- Difficulties and challenges encountered in managing the faculties; their visions for the faculties;
- Importance of the role of leadership in a faculty;
- Characteristics of effective leaders; leadership styles;
- Strategies for consulting and motivating staff;
- Success criteria for faculties and universities;
- Leadership constraints; the relationship between leadership styles and faculty success;
- Views on how to improve leadership effectiveness and performance; and
- Nature of internal and external influences which affect leadership performance for example socio-cultural relationships, use of power, favouritism and policy contexts.

The key leadership constructs gleaned from the findings are summarized using the leadership idea nodes elicited from NVIVO.

The analysis of staff responses to the MLQ questionnaires is at two levels:

- a) A qualitative level in which text-based evidence from the staff responses are related to the above mentioned dimensions of the MLQ (leadership styles, staff effort, effectiveness of deans and staff satisfaction);

- b) Quantitative analysis of the response data and qualitative scoring of the dimensions to reveal the relative force with which the dimensions surface in the deans' leadership practices as viewed by faculty staff.

In summary, as discussed earlier in Chapter 5 of this thesis, the analysis of data presented in this chapter is primarily qualitative as it relies mainly on the textual evidence from deans and faculty staff. This qualitative analysis is supported by quantitative analysis and overall scoring of the revealed leadership practices. The chapter is presented in two parts; part I covers the results related to deans' interviews and part II covers the results related to the MLQ completed by faculty staff.

6.2 Part I: Results from Analyses of Deans' Responses (interviews)

6.2.1 Respondents' information: educational background and experience

The educational background and experiences of a leader are important foundations on which the effectiveness or otherwise of their leadership is based. For example, in higher education leadership it is of interest to assess to what extent faculty deans are qualified to lead faculties in order to produce sustained progress of the faculties, the staff and students and enable the faculties contribute meaningfully to local and national communities with which the faculties and their graduates relate. In answer to the interview question; '*May I ask you about your education background and your previous jobs?*' or some variations of the question, the chapter examines the educational background and experiences of faculty deans. The following notes are typical of the responses given by the deans to the above question on their educational background and previous jobs:

"I am a graduate of Faculty of Science-chemistry department- (Libyan University) in 1967 in Tripoli, then I went to Britain in 1970 where I studied for an MSc. and PhD in Biochemistry at the University of Birmingham" (Dean B).

"Regarding my previous work experiences, I worked as the head of Chemistry Department in the faculty for one academic year, as well as I acted as the head of the "Examinations Committee" in the faculty the same year. In 2001, I was appointed as the dean of the Faculty of Engineering at Azawyah University; also, I was the founder of this faculty. Finally, in early academic year 2008/2009, I was appointed as the Dean of Faculty of Science at Azawyah University" (Dean G).

These responses are summarised in Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1: Educational background and experiences of Deans

Respondents	Formal Education	Work Experience
Dean A	BSc. in Agriculture in 1967 in Libya; Master and PhD degrees were in 1986 in USA.	Researcher, Agriculture Research Centre in Tripoli for 17 years (1986 to 2003), during this work period in the centre, I was appointed various academic and administrative positions, such as "Research Coordinator" for "Al-jabal Elgharbi" district. Coordinator of food legumes at the level of Libya. Head of the crop department. Director of the grain station in the city of Aljafara. Faculty Dean of Veterinary and Agriculture Sciences since 2006.
Dean B	BSc in Chemistry in 1967 -Libya; Master and PhD degrees in 1986 in UK.	Assistant Lecturer; Faculty of Medicine, University of Garyounis; Teaching staff member faculty of Medicine, University of Garyounis in 1977-1979; Dean of the Faculty of Medicine-Al-Fatah University-Tripoli for ten years. Dean of the Faculty of Medicine- 7th April university since 2007.
Dean C	BSc in Economics and Political Sciences in 1981- Libya; MA in 1991- Libya; PhD in 2007-Morocco.	50 months in charge of local people congress in Sabrata. Dean for the Faculty of Economics in Surman 2007; Dean for Faculty of Economics Since October 2008.
Dean D	BA in Economics, 19881 -Libya; MA in 1999 - Libya PhD in 2006 - Jordon.	Head the financial department at 7th April University; head of Accounting department, faculty of Economics in Algalat; Academic Affairs department as deputy. Dean of faculty since 2006. Worked in different committee at 7th April university such as (Assistant Lecturer Evaluating committee; Studies Programs Committee; Examinations Committee).
Dean E	BA -1984 -Libya; MA -1996 - Libya; PhD - 2006 -Algeria.	Dean Since August 2008.

Dean F	BA in law - Libya; MA in 1987 -Turkey; PhD, sociology in 1997 -Turkey.	Libyan Insurance Company as legal advisor. Head of cultural affairs in Libyan' Embassy in Turkey. Head of the Libyan Cultural Centre in the Libyan embassy in Mauritania and other countries. Secretary different committees inside Libya. Dean for more than four years.
Dean G	BSc, MSc and PhD degrees in Chemistry from Canada	Head of Chemistry Department in the faculty for one academic year; the head of the "Examinations Committee" in the faculty the same year; in 2001 Dean of the Faculty of Engineering, Zawya. Dean of Faculty of Science, Zawya (2008/2009)
Dean H	BSc in Education 1979 -Libya; Master degree in 1984 - Libya; Ph.D. in 1987 - Egypt.	Assistant lecturer; Teaching staff member; Head for the Arabic Department; Head for Teacher Union at the level of the region; Now Dean for the faculty beside the position of the coordinator for higher studies at the faculty.
Dean I	BSc in Agriculture 1976 - Libya; MSc - USA; Ph.D. in Agricultural economy - USA; 1985	Assistant Lecturer in the Faculty of Agriculture; (1985 to 2000) Head of the Department of Agricultural Economics, Head of Syndicate of the faculty of members and Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty of Agriculture since 2001.
Dean J	BSc in Libya; Master's degree and PhD –USA.	Head of the General Administration of public issues - the Central administrative control 1977-1978; Director-general of the Department of Administrative and Financial Affairs,1980; Director General of the National Institute of Public Administration,1981 - 1983; Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty of Economics 1987-1988; Head of Administration Department at the Faculty of Economics - University of Aljabl Algrbi 1997; Head of study and examinations department of the Faculty of economy; Management consultant in different institutions; Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty of Economics since 2005.

Dean K	BSc - Germany; MSc - USA; PhD- Bulgaria	Head-department of media for about eight Years; Dean since 2007.
Dean L	BSc- Social Sciences in 1984/1985-Libya; Higher Diploma in Social Welfare in 1994- Libya MA in 1997- Libya; Ph.D. sociology- Egypt.	A social worker and head of the disabled department in the Social Security / Tripoli (1987-1992); Also supervisor of Field Training in the Faculty of Social Sciences, Al-Fatah University (1993-1997); Also head of the Department of Social Work in this Faculty (1998-2002); Finally, Secretary of the Committee of the Faculty of Arts in 2007.
Dean M	MA- Libya. Master and PhD-USA- 1979.	lecturer since 1992; Assistant Dean of Faculty of Education; Dean of Faculty of Education for three years; assistant Dean of Faculty of Arts; Dean of Faculty of Arts for four years; Administration of faculty members; General Director of Al-Fateh University; Dean of Faculty of prepare teacher Tripoli since 2007.
Dean N	BSc -1974 - Libya; Master's in 1981 - USA PhD in 1989 - USA.	Libyan Foreign Ministry and UN in 1975; Libyan embassy in Gambia in 1976; assistant Lecturer; 1990 - member of the teaching staff -Language Centre at the Faculty of Education, Coordinator- English Language for Faculty of Engineering; head of the Department of English Language, 1988 to 2008; Dean of the Faculty of Languages since 2007.
Dean O	BSc.- Alexandria University - Egypt; MA and PhD in Poland	Assistant Lecturer; Lecturer for 4 years; Head of physical education department; head of study& examination department; Registrar for the Faculty; head for Olympic Committee at the Libyan Athletic Unions. Dean since 2004.
Dean P	BSc in Chemistry - Libya; MSc & Ph.D. in inorganic chemistry - 1992-1998- UK	Assistant Lecturer; Director, Center for Basic Science Research, (1990-1993); Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty of Science, (1994 - 1999); General Secretary of General People's Committee for Higher Education (2001 - 2004) Lecturer in the Department of Chemistry; Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty

Dean Q	BA- Economics and Political Science- Libya; MSc and PhD - UK in 1997.	(1999 -2001), Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty of Economics and Political Science of Al-Fatah University; (2001 - 2006), the Secretary of the School of Humanities Academy of Graduate Studies; the Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty of Economics and Political Science at Nasser International University since 2001 until now.
Dean R	BA Computer Science-1984- Libya MSc - 1992 - Republic of Hungary; PhD in 1998 in the field of (IT) - Republic of Hungary.	Lecturer in the department of computer for four year; Head of Computer department for four years; Dean of the Faculty of Science 2004.
Dean S	BA in Department of Media, 1982 - University of Garyounis - Libya MA in Canada PhD in journalism in Egypt	Manager of Sabha's Radio broadcasting station; Secretary of the People's Committee for Transportation in the Sabha region; Assistant Lecturer at the Faculty of Arts, University of Garyounis. At that time, I was responsible for the foreign Media and general administration of culture; director of the Institute of Islamic research and studies, Faculty of Islamic Da'wa; also director of the Research and Documentation Centre; General-Secretary for the General Press Corporation; also secretary of the General Assembly of the General Company for Paper and Printing; I have been appointed a second time as the president of the centre of research, documentation and information materials in Libya; as well as President of the Journal Editorial media; Currently Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty of Arts and Education of the University of Nasser.

Dean T	<p>BSc in electronic engineering, Al-Fatah University- Libya</p> <p>MSc in electronic engineering, specialised in “Communications”, from Canada;</p> <p>PhD in the same field from Krakow University, Poland.</p>	<p>Lecturer in the Physics Department at the Faculty of Science, Seventh of April University; head of Physics Department in the faculty; head of a department at the Faculty of Engineering in city of Subrata for 5 years (2000 to 2004); head of Electrical and Electronic Department, Faculty of Engineering in city of Azawya; Dean of the Faculty of Engineering, Azawya in October 2006.</p>
Chancellor I	<p>BSc with Merit in Chemistry, 1979, Al-Fatah University - Libya</p> <p>MSc in Chemistry in 1984, University of Warwick - UK</p> <p>Ph.D. in Chemistry in 1987, University of Warwick - UK</p>	<p>Assistance Lecturer in 1980 at the Faculty of Science Al-Fatah University; 4 years working in University of Warwick - UK as a professor researcher for ICI company, one of the largest companies for the production of chemicals. In (1991) Lecturer in the Department of Chemistry Al-Fatah University As a professor in this section; head of Chemistry department in 1998; head of study and examinations department; Assistant Secretary of People's Committee of the Faculty of Science (Assistant Dean); in 2003- Secretary of People's Committee of the Faculty of Science (Faculty Dean); in 2006- Secretary of People's Committee of Al-Fatah University (University Chancellor)</p>
Chancellor II	<p>BA & MA & PhD in Law from Faculty of Law, University of Garyounis - Libya.</p>	<p>Assistant Lecturer (1977 -1985); A member of the General People's Congress (1985-1987); Assistant Secretary of the General People's Congress (1987- 1990); Secretary of General People's Committee for Higher Education, (1990 - 1992); Ambassador in Iraq; head of the Institute of Diplomacy; Lecturer as a professor at Al Fatah University; Secretary of the People's Committee of the International University of Nasser since 2004.</p>

A frequency count of the countries from which the Deans received their qualifications and experiences is as follows:

Table 6.2: Deans' qualifications by country of award

Country	BA/BSc	MA/MSc	PhD
Algeria			1
Bulgaria			1
Canada	1	3	1
Egypt	1		3
Germany	1		
Hungary		1	1
Jordan			1
Libya	17	4	
Morocco		1	1
Poland		1	2
Turkey		1	1
UK		3	4
USA		6	4

Tables 6.1 & 6.2 show that almost all the Deans have PhD qualifications and different ranges of leadership and administrative experiences within and outside the University system; a few of the Deans have served as University Chancellors. Also, most of the Deans had their first degrees in Libya and MSc/MA/PhD qualifications from international, mainly Western, universities.

The Deans having higher education obtained in foreign countries has implications in terms of the cultural context in which they are now engaged since in their faculty leadership they would be in a position to combine higher education experiences and their understanding of the differences in practices at the foreign universities they attended and the universities they are currently working for in Libya. It was realised that though the deans have the requisite technical or scientific education, very few have undertaken any training programmes on leadership though most of them have work experience in other areas of management before they were appointed as deans. Hence, in answer to the interview question:-

What training programmes about leadership and management did you go through before being appointed as the dean of this faculty? The following responses were obtained:

- ♦ *'I did not take any training programs' (Deans M,J)*
- ♦ *'Nothing' (Deans A,B,C,D,E, H,)*
- ♦ *'Regrettably I did not do any training programs' (Deans N,S,T)*

These responses are typical of the deans in the sample. It is perceived from the tone of the last response that apart from indicating a lack of leadership training for deans generally in Libyan universities, respondents seem to lament the lack. The researcher further explores deans' views about the relevance of leadership training later in the chapter. Table 6.1 above summarises the educational backgrounds and work experiences of deans across all universities used in the study.

In summary, the results show that Faculty Deans have a wide range of academic and administrative experiences. Examples are highest qualifications in specific disciplines they studied, serving as heads of departments or university units in different faculties and some industry or wider societal experiences. This point is made on the basis of the researcher's understanding of the university roles undertaken by university academics in both Libya and the United Kingdom where this research is undertaken.

Hence, the Faculty Deans sampled in this study have obtained PhDs in their respective fields and held related positions within Libyan universities and in the wider Libyan society. However, the Deans have generally not been formally trained in leadership and management as is the case with other universities where such training is continually provided as part of staff development. This suggests that organizing training in leadership and management for Libyan university deans could help to improve their leadership effectiveness.

6.2.2 Deans' perception of their responsibilities

A leader's success in an organization naturally depends on their understanding of the responsibilities associated with their position. This is in terms of both the statutory duties associated with the role (as examined in the functions of higher education in Chapter 2 of the thesis) and the flexibilities allowed the leader to effect change in the

organization whilst operating within the rules. Hence, Deans' perceptions of their responsibilities in leading Libyan university faculties are important in this research.

This section presents the Deans' responses to questions about their responsibilities, with some links to approaches towards developing the faculties academically and administratively, including staff training. The thrust of the qualitative analysis of Deans' responses in this section is on these ideas, while questions about their responsibilities are cues to get into discussing the ideas. In other words, while the findings are presented under the above headings, it should be noted that further questions were also asked directly on the ideas as the interviews progressed.

The interview process did not follow a particular order of questions but covers the issues in the most natural way the Deans could take the questions as conversations and provide the researcher with interesting perspectives on the ideas. Hence, the introductory question for this section reads something like: *'What are your main responsibilities as the Secretary of the People's Committee of this faculty (Dean)?'* It seemed natural to discuss the deans' responsibilities before looking at the related issues mentioned above. The perceived overall responsibility of the faculty dean includes the efficient functioning of the faculty, setting overall policies of the faculty in consultation with academic and service departments in the faculty and implementing these policies.

It was acknowledged that the responsibilities of Deans are academic and administrative / managerial. The evidence from Deans' responses presented below show that the academic aspect can be summed up as issuing decisions and regulations which relate to running and managing teaching, and controlling the academic business such as: setting terms and conditions for accepting students and employing staff members; organizing public lectures and conferences; and participating in academic activities within the university and beyond.

The administrative and managerial responsibilities of the Dean include faculty correspondences, chairing meetings, making sure that regulations and instructions are observed, providing the required resources for staff, and motivating staff. The responsibilities of Deans are defined according to the objectives of Libyan higher education stated in Chapter 2 of the thesis and the Deans' position is seen as one of a coordinator and a leader who sees to the efficient operation of the faculty to serve societal needs. Officially, the Deans implement the resolutions of the people's

committee of the faculty and those of the university. Deans perceive their responsibilities as indicated in the following quotes:

- *“My responsibility as Dean of the faculty is to implement the faculty policy, which is set out at regular meetings in the form of resolutions” (Dean J).*
- *“My responsibilities are a kind of coordination between the faculty and the university” (Dean M).*
- *“The most important responsibility of a Dean is the direct supervision in operations of the faculty” (Dean T).*
- *“The responsibilities of Deans are of two parts: the first is the scientific aspect; (attention to curriculum and the performance of faculty members). The second part is to manage the faculty through the heads of sections and members of the people's committee of the faculty” (Dean K).*

In order to see the full gamut of Deans' responsibilities the researcher lists out the key ideas in the responses across the sampled universities as follows:-

- Scientific and administrative; continuous development of the university (faculty); development of relevant curricula (Deans IA).
- Delegating control to heads of departments and following them up (I gave the control for the heads of departments as my responsibilities are to follow-up them – (Deans MO).
- *‘Touring the lecture halls laboratories and fields to follow up the progress of the educational process in the faculty’ (Dean P).*
- *‘Emergency meetings to resolve some urgent issues ... and also to develop strategies for the conduct of the educational process’ (Dean E).*
- Issuing decisions and regulations which have to do with running and managing teaching and controlling the academic business such as setting terms and conditions for accepting students and employing staff members; also organising public lectures and conferences within and beyond the university (Deans KS).

The above quotations show that the Deans actually engage in activities which maintain excellence where possible in academic activities (research and teaching) and underpinning administrative processes.

The Deans' responsibilities therefore combine leading faculty staff and managing faculty processes and resources through shared roles with heads of departments and other staff, in line with the spirit of collective leadership. As is reflected in the Deans' responses on their leadership styles, Deans' leadership styles are generally collective

since they involve the staff opinions through Peoples' Committee of the Faculty meetings in which action plans are determined, and since the deans distribute leadership responsibilities to heads of departments and other staff as appropriate.

6.2.3 Visions of Deans

Generally, leadership involves the implementation of the visions of leaders regarding directions in which they wish to take their organizations and how compelling the visions are contributes to the eventual success of the leader in motivating staff to become committed to the vision and action plans devised to realize it (Avolio et al, 1991; Bass, 1985, 1990; Yukl, 2002). Hence, it is important to explore the visions of university Deans in Libya as the following results reveal.

A question that draws out responsibilities as well as future ambitions of the deans for developing their faculties is: *'What is your vision for the faculty? What is your vision for the future of the faculties and university (in case of a Chancellor)?'*

The vision of Deans can be seen from three perspectives. The first relates to the development of course curriculums up to required advanced levels and standards just as any modern educational institution. The following statements support this view.

"My future vision for this faculty is to develop the courses curriculums and syllabuses, as well as to develop the Faculty buildings, through constructing new lecturing halls, highly equipped laboratories (Dean A).

"First of all we work to develop the syllabus to be at the advanced level just as any modern educational institution" (Dean G)

The second perspective relates to the development of infrastructure such as faculty buildings by constructing new lecturing halls and highly equipped laboratories. Their vision is to increase the number of teaching theatres and halls. Some faculties do not have well-equipped laboratories and the vision of the Deans is to improve on this.

"My future vision for this faculty is to overall develop it, especially most of the laboratories in this faculty have been well-equipped" (Dean P)

"We are working to increase the number of teaching theatres and halls" (Dean J).

"My future vision for this faculty is to be a distinctive faculty; one with the best facilities in Libya and internationally. Currently, there is a new

building under construction for the faculty, this building is well designed and fully equipped, and the faculty is due to move to the new building very soon. Hopefully, when the faculty moves to the new building, this will solve most of the resources problems, in addition, the new building contains an integrated library with good internet web, and new halls equipped with computers, all these resources are resources for the educational process through which high quality graduates from this faculty is guaranteed” (Dean G).

The third perspective relates to human resources and relates to staff development and public relations.

“We equally look forward to have training courses for the employees and the administrative staff in the Faculty” (Dean A).

“There are programs to train the employees either inside Libya or abroad” (Dean D).

The Deans hope to establish links with other faculties and the society so that the community can benefit from the work of the university and the university will also have placement for their students. The Deans also intend to link their faculties with the outside world by establishing good relations with other universities where they can send their staff for training.

“We aspire to provide computers to all Faculties and connected to the Internet, and in fact we are working to make this technology available to all Faculties (Chancellor I).

“One our future goals is our endeavour to make the faculty an outstanding on the level of Arab countries and globally through our research, studies and conferences. Needless to say that these objectives are require adequate facilities and preparations. We try to link the faculty with the surrounding environment and participating in tackling the problems and trying to solve them” (Dean C).

“We are working hard to make sure that our graduates are of very high standards, and suitably qualified to fulfil and satisfy the needs of work-market” (Dean E).

“one of our objectives is to link the Faculty with the society so it work as a server and provider for the community needs; we intend to link the Faculty with the outside world by establishing good relations with other universities” (Dean H).

“I would like the faculty to reach to an advanced level in performance and achievement, to develop to high professional standards and to be open and linked to the community to whom it will serve” (Dean O).

The vision of Deans is to develop their faculty to be outstanding in terms of excellence in the Arab countries and globally through research and the provision of adequate facilities.

To alleviate the challenges posed by traditional examinations in terms of the burden on the student, his/her family and the educational institution, the vision of some Deans is to develop a new form of evaluation as an alternative to the traditional examination systems.

It was mentioned (see the overall view of the visions presented below) that the main vision of Deans is to ensure that their graduates are of very high standards and suitably qualified to satisfy the needs of the market. For example, they want to develop the faculty to be a reference point for society, where other institutions will seek the services of the faculty because of their experience and the expertise.

The Deans intend to improve the overall performance of the faculty within the resources available and create more possibilities for students to have a better level of scientific and research work. In addition, they hope to improve the efficiency of professors in terms of scientific research. It is the vision of Deans to produce highly qualified graduates to meet the future requirements of Libya and they want to see their products contributing actively in society.

The Deans want to see their faculties as assisting other faculties to improve the teaching and learning experiences for both lecturers and students (collaboration). For example the Dean of faculty of computer science wants his faculty to provide IT products and services to other faculties. He hopes that his faculty will link other faculties to the internet, facilitating the use of IT in the library and laboratories and classrooms. The following quote is an indication of such vision.

“We aspire to provide computers to all faculties and connect them to the internet, and in fact we are working to make this technology available to all faculties. Now, we have begun to link faculties to the internet and in the future students can use this technology in the library and laboratories and classrooms to facilitate the educational process” (Chancellor I).

In summary, Deans envision excellence in research, teaching and community service facilitated by excellent resources such as laboratories, ICT equipment, lecture theatres and well trained staff as fundamental to achieving success in their faculties. There is no

doubt in their minds that these factors influence the quality of graduate outcomes realised from training students in Libyan universities. The following points support this overall view of the Deans' visions:

- To see university (A) in the top of all Libyan universities, with outstanding students and effective Professors (Chancellor I /Dean J).
- To continually improve the overall performance of the university within the resources available (Deans ML).
- To be a reference point for all faculties of Arts in Libya (Dean K).
- To make the university an ideal in terms of quality output with skills that fit the job market; train young faculty in the best universities in the world; and build excellent facilities (Deans DEH).
- To produce top quality graduates who are deeply skilled in both theory and practice and can play a major role in society (Deans QRS).

Clearly, there is a natural link between a leader's vision and their view of their role in an organization. The next section summarises the research results on deans' perception of the importance and role of leadership in Libyan universities.

6.2.4 Deans' perception of the importance/role of leadership in universities

The perception of the Deans on the importance of leadership in Libyan universities was explored and the following are the views of the Deans. Some respondents were of the opinion that the importance of leadership lies in supervision.

"The role of the dean is just for supervision" (Dean H).

"In my view the importance of leadership lies in supervision" (Dean F).

Some of the interviewees believe that a leader should have the ability to delegate effectively and that his absence from the faculty for a short time should not be felt since work must go on whether he is around or not.

They noted that the Dean's role as a leader is to effectively supervise his team to achieve institutional goals. There is no doubt that the Deans recognise the importance of leadership and stated that leadership is essential. However, its success is dependent on

the collaboration and cooperation of the teaching staff and the heads of the departments in the faculty.

“No doubt that the leadership role is essential, however, its success is dependent on the collaboration of the teaching staff and the heads of the departments in the faculty” (Dean F).

I believe that the role of leadership comes on top of the concerns of any educational institution (Dean L).

The cooperation among the leader and his team was termed “collective Leadership” by the deans and they see the role of the leader as facilitating this collective leadership approach by creating a cooperative family environment. While this term is introduced at this point in the chapter, it was also used in relation to other aspects of leadership in Chapter 3 and was an important recurring theme in the deans’ responses. It is explained further in the discussion of the findings presented in Chapter 6 that in addition to other supporting influences, collective leadership draws from the Islamic practice of oneness and a national culture in which people belong to extended families where people care for one another as the Islamic faith demands (Haddara & Enanny, 2009; Hofstede, 1994; and Hofstede et al., 2010).

Hence, a successful faculty leadership can be accomplished via intensive collective work and the role of the dean is essential for the maintenance of mutual respect and good relationships within the faculty similar to way collective leadership is enacted in family life. Also, the role of an effective dean is their ability to develop good relationships with other departments in the institution. It was suggested that for deans to be effective in their role as leaders, deputy deans for academic affairs should be appointed to assist the deans to allow them time to concentrate on leadership and creative tasks, such as developing relationships with other academic institutions locally and internationally.

“Leadership is the point of convergence for all components of the Faculty becomes a collective work” (Dean J).

The role of leadership is seen as important and essential by the Deans. A respondent stated that leadership should have two main characteristics: resilience and resoluteness. For the leader to be successful they have to be resilient. This is a necessary characteristic due the cultural norms in Libya where it is expected that leaders (who often times employ their own relationships in their organisations) should take care of

the personal needs of their staff (Hofstede, 1994, pp. 50-53). Hence, resilience is required to enable leaders resist the temptation to break the rules because of social pressure. The following statement nearly says it all:

“Leadership should have two main characteristics: resilience and resoluteness. For the leader to be successful he has to be resilient”. The leader should be able to be in control and to exert discipline on others; he should have a certain level of resoluteness (Dean E).

In effect, the deans associate leadership with personal characteristics such as seen in the case of rational leadership models examined in Chapter 3 for examples transformational and transactional leadership. The importance of leadership is seen in the leader’s ability to deal fairly with all departments, ensuring that work is done with minimum interference. A dean’s role is to effectively lead the faculty and recognise the specialisations of their team members. The role of the dean is to align the authorities and responsibilities of their team members to achieve faculty goals. The main role of the dean is to supervise effectively. Another perception of Deans’ leadership roles is as follows:

“In the Third World in general, the personal influence has a very big role in the transformation of any institution; this is different to what is found in the developed world as the developed world is run by institutions, but our third world managed by persons, and therefore the impact of the persons to the institutions will have a very big role (Chancellor I)

Hence, contrary to the developed world where institutional rules play a key part in the development of institutions, in Libya and most of the Third World the personality of the leaders is very important and impacts on the role of the leader, their effectiveness and thus institutional development.

The deans feel that their role is to successfully lead the faculties, but the environment in which they operate plays a key part in this. For example if the Dean is not in control of the University budget related to running the faculty, and the quality of the students admitted, their chances of achieving targeted leadership goals are limited. Also, lack of operational effectiveness in Libya due to the political environment contributes to this disabling environment. For example, sometimes deans are appointed not for their abilities but through institutional connections which undermine the role and importance of leadership at the universities. These feelings are demonstrated in the following quotes:

“If the leadership does not possess the full powers and full independence, then cannot say that it is responsible for the success or failure of the Faculty. For example, the role of the dean and president of the university is proposal the value of the budget, but the budget granted in another form and is not the value required to meet the needs of the Faculty” (Dean J).

It is believed that the role of leadership comes on top of the concerns of any educational institution. Leadership is seen a point of convergence for all components of the Faculty and the success of the faculty is a collective responsibility with everyone doing his job well to achieve faculty goals with leadership serving as a catalyst. The role of leadership is essential and good leadership is necessary to achieve total success.

“If the leadership is the point of convergence for all components of the Faculty becomes a collective work and everyone is doing his job well” (Dean K)

The role and importance of leadership is a key one but it is believed by the Deans that leadership should always be collective. Respondents believe that Faculty Deans and heads of departments all have equally important roles since they cannot work in isolation. It was stated that:

“Leadership is collective. A leader’s role is to coordinate and give guidance to his team members and should ensure that every member of his team is fully responsible for the implementation of programmes” (Dean M).

“Leadership role is an important one. The Dean as the leader should have initiative, and be committed to the implementation of set plans” (Dean N).

“The role of the leader is very significant because it can reflect the standard of achievement of the faculty. For example if there is good leadership, faculty outcomes will be good, if leadership is bad the outcome will be bad and it lead to failure” (Dean O).

As seen in the following response which is typical of the opinions of deans generally, a majority of the interviewees noted that the character of the leader is very important. They indicated that it helps create a positive spirit among employees, teaching staff and students. A good leader is one who invites others to share responsibilities in taking decisions and such a strategy creates favourable and cooperative attitude amongst staff. A leader must be an open minded person who accepts criticism and must have a high level of awareness and understanding of his role and environment and the ability to deal with others.

“The Faculty Dean must be an open minded person and accepts any criticism from others” (Dean A).

There is consensus on the role and importance of leadership and its contribution to the achievement of faculty goals. The Deans noted that leadership is very important and essential in the coordination of scientific and administrative work at universities. Leadership brings together the varied capacities of team members to achieve the goals of the Faculty. It was noted that academic leadership is different from the traditional leadership. However, this view was not expanded upon but seems to be related to the following points.

Some respondents noted that there are two sides to leadership. The first is the science that has to be learnt and the second is the experience that has to be gained in relation to the requisite skills. In essence, the leader should be qualified, capable and should have the ability serve as a role model. In the case of deans, they should have expert knowledge of the disciplines they studied as evidenced in higher degree qualifications and understand how to lead and motivate faculty staff to contribute their best to the success of the faculties.

In summary, the role of leadership is very important and it is the foundation for the success of any organization. Leadership particularly in the Libyan context is associated with the collective responsibility where everybody in the organization must feel that they are part of the institution which is seen as one family with every member functioning at their fullest capacity. The respondents described leadership as being an art as much as a science that depended on the characteristics of the leader as well as the environment in which they operate.

6.2.5 Motivation strategies of deans

The Deans use a variety of motivation strategies to get the best out of their staff. They work with their staff in a spirit of brotherhood, treating staff as members of one family.

“I think the motivation strategy is to work with staff in a spirit of brotherhood; as members of one family” (Dean B).

The Deans are of the view that if the staff are made to feel part of the institution they will work hard to achieve the goals of the faculty.

"I realized they all work very hard because the institution is theirs and they are part of it" (Dean F).

Some Deans motivate employees by recognising their contribution by giving certificates of appreciation and sometimes they motivate their staff verbally.

The Deans write letters of appreciation to hardworking staff as a demonstration of their gratitude.

"Sometimes through "oral praises", while in most times I write "Acknowledgments Letters". I remember I have signed "Acknowledgments Certificates" for some distinctive employees" (Dean G).

"I also motivate my employees by giving them certificates of appreciation and sometimes a good word such as a word of thanks to them" (Dean A).

"I send a letter of thanks to some of them and I give a certificate of appreciation to others" (Dean K).

Also, some Deans motivate staff by mentioning their good works in the meetings for other members to know their achievement; this also encourages staff to work harder to earn such recognitions. This point is supported by the following quote:

"There is a mention of them in the meetings and thank them" (Dean K)

As shown in the following quotes, the Deans also motivate hardworking staff financially even though resources to support this are limited.

"I always try to send list with the names, of hard working staff, to the university to reward them financially, although the resources are limited" (Dean B)

"When some is exceptional I motivate him, either by rewarding the person financially" (Dean P).

Some Deans build relationships with staff as a form of motivation and show gratitude and appreciation for hard work. This point is supported by the following quotes:

"I noticed that the staff and faculty members work more effectively and more effort than I expected, because of the good relationship with them and that created a strong sense that this college is their institution and should be given a greater effort to develop them" (Dean K).

"In addition to a stronger incentive that I think which is my relationship with staff and faculty members" (Dean J).

Some Deans listen to their staff, evaluate their ideas and discuss their problems and difficulties as a way of motivating them.

“I sometimes go in my spare time to the staff and say hello, sometimes discuss with them some issues and listen to their point of view in many of the themes regarding the Faculty and this is my attempt to feel everyone in this Faculty that we are one family and this Faculty is our institution and all of us must all work to developed it to serve our society, which we are a part of it” (Chancellor II).

“Motivation is moral thing rather than anything else. It could be in form of gratitude or appreciation, sometimes in listening to the person and evaluating his or her ideas and thoughts, discussing their problems and difficulties “(Dean C).

In addition to financial incentives, staff training, refresher courses are used to motivate staff, as in the following statement:

“I motivate staff members by offering them opportunities for a training course“ (Dean T).

The Deans see motivation from two aspects, moral and material (financially or non-financial) and they encourage their heads of departments to motivate their staff by rewarding them whenever they have the opportunity. Sometimes some Deans go to the office of their staff members, greet them, tell them god bless you, and thank or praise them personally for a good work done.

“Motivation is included moral and material aspects. The moral aspect would be through the thankful, praise and honour some times. The material aspect will be by given something unique i.e. given a monetary value as purpose of motivation “(Dean S)

The faculty members are sometimes made to swap roles to create an atmosphere of appreciation of the various roles in the faculty and mutual trust, a sense of ‘one family’ within the faculty. This strategy was termed “collective leadership” by the Deans. They also believe that the leader must be a role model to motivate staff.

“The Director of Administration and Finance can serve as sweeper and cleans some passages from the leaves and debris, and this caused by mutual trust and a sense that we are one family within the institution and we are working together to develop and this is what is known as the collective leadership, and the Leader must always be a role model for them“(Chancellor I).

Some faculties organise annual day to honour high performing employees who are competitively selected. Thus annual performance assessment of staff becomes meaningful and motivates staff to work effectively to achieve set targets. Informal meetings are also organised by Deans to discuss issues and listen to views of faculty members on issues regarding the faculty. They believe that such approaches make staff feel part of the 'one family' which they should help to develop.

The above quotes show that the Deans' understanding of motivational strategies is coherent with what is known in leadership theory about the importance of motivation in influencing staff to go beyond self-interest in promoting the success of an organization. Such strategies enhance team work, individual commitment and excellence, through listening to others and showing consideration to their welfare (Collins, 2001; Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2010; Blake and Mouton, 1985).

In summary, the motivation strategies used by Deans to encourage staff to contribute their utmost best to work in the faculty include:

- Working with staff in a spirit of brotherhood;
- Creating in staff a deep sense of collective ownership;
- Giving them letters of appreciation;
- Awarding them certificates of appreciation;
- Mentioning staff achievements in meetings;
- Rewarding exceptional performances financially;
- Discussing issues with staff irrespective of their rank; and
- Offering staff opportunities for a training course.

The Deans noted that they believe the strongest motivation for members of their team is to create a strong relationship that binds the team with a sense of collective responsibility to serve society of which they are a part.

6.2.6 Communication strategies of deans

Similarly to the above notes on the importance of vision in leadership, the way leaders communicate to followers is very important for motivating them to offer their best in their organizational work.

The Deans communicate through periodic meetings with faculty members who represent the heads of the academic departments, and the secretariats of the services sectors. During these meetings complaints and issues are raised and discussed. These issues would have been discussed at the departmental level before they are raised at faculty meetings.

“There are regular half-monthly meetings held in all the departments. Then, any suggestions in all departments are brought to the Faculty meetings by the heads of the departments, and these suggestions or problems are discussed in the meetings of the People's Committee of the Faculty” (Dean A).

Decisions are made and approved by all members. Such meetings also set strategies collectively for the attainment of faculty goals.

“The college managed by People's Committee and the decisions taken at meetings of the People's Committee, Faculty is managed by the decisions of the People's Committee of the Faculty which consisting of the heads of academic departments and directors of service departments” (Chancellor I)

The Dean's communicate with heads of departments in the implementation of these decisions. However, at times they communicate directly with employees when it is necessary. The Deans also communicate with other stakeholders such as student groups to find out their views on the performance of the faculty. This is a policy in some universities. Deans communicate both formally and informally with the team members. The following quote illustrates this.

“I am using my good relationship with the staff of the College and my direct contact with them which is formal and informal and I sometimes consult the ordinary person who is working as guarding of the college after the end of official working hours, and I know how to take his idea indirectly, and sometimes in my free time I pass on the staff and greet them and I discuss with them their point of view in some things in college and this is by talking to them “(Dean S).

“I communicate with them in a friendly way, even when we meet in colliders. However, I prefer to communicate with them through the secretariat of the administrative affairs, as he is the responsible person for them, especially in the formal matters“(Dean G)

Though the official mode of communication is usually by written letter, some Deans use verbal communication to discuss issues depending on circumstances and then follow it up by a letter or memo.

Though the Deans may have their personal opinions on issues, they were of the view that it is better to consider the views of other members to have a collective agreement on decisions made. There is thus a regular consultation with team members. Below is a typical comment.

“Any leader must consult with others or people who are around him, what is known as the collective leadership and I think this are the cause of leadership success” (Dean O)

“Decisions in this college [must] be collective, and with the consent of all members of the People's Committee of the College and this is what is known as the collective leadership” (Dean L)

Some Deans have an open door policy and adopt informal communication styles and see themselves as role models as the following statements indicate:

“My relation with the staff is friendly and professional. I do not interfere in the official procedures except when it comes to reward or punishment. The staff consider me as an elder sister, they often come to consult me about their personal matters because they find my office open to them, for I am in this position to serve my society” (Dean H).

My relationship with staff of the Faculty is good and I do not ever let them feel inferiority in any way and my relationship with them is the relationship of a fraternal and friendly (Dean S).

It was found that the faculties are managed in accordance with the decisions of the people's committee of the faculty which consists of the heads of academic departments and directors of service departments. Communication and implementation of decisions are seen as collective responsibilities. Thus, Deans stress on collective leadership as the following statements indicate:

“Decisions made at the faculty are collective and with the consent of all members of the people's committee of the college and this is what is known as the collective leadership” (Dean J).

“I believe in collective leadership and I always given the opportunity to department heads, because he is responsible for his department. I always give everyone the authority to perform their duties in accordance with his responsibilities” (Dean M).

“Any leader must consult with others or people who are around him, what is known as the collective leadership” (Dean O).

“Communication is done with mutual respect to create a family teamwork environment where decision taken is more collective in nature. This is what is known as the collective leadership” (Dean T).

It was noted that the Deans do not have the final authority at the meeting of the people's committee of the faculty. The following statement expands on the above statement.

“I am an integral part of the committee/faculty; I mean, I am like any other member. I offer my proposals, and it discussed like other proposals. These proposals may be decline and may be approved by the committee” (Dean P).

In summary, communications within faculties is a collective activity done formally and informally with the Dean acting as a facilitator, creating a family atmosphere to ensure the attainment of faculty goals discussed and developed collectively.

6.2.7 Leadership styles of deans

As explored in the literature in Chapter 3 of this thesis, leadership styles are known to differ in their effectiveness in different leadership situations; hence, there are autocratic, democratic, transformational, and transactional for examples. Again, leadership styles condition leadership success depending on the context so that situational leadership style is often applied to suit different contexts. For these reasons it is important to understand the types of leadership styles which are used by university Deans in Libya. In order to elicit the most common styles of leadership used by the Deans, the following question was used:

Which of these leadership styles do you think best describes your leadership style?

1. A leadership style that expands the interests of their staff, generates awareness and acceptance of goals and tasks, and stirs the staff to look beyond their own self-interests for the good of the faculty community [transformational leadership];
2. A leadership style that emphasizes corrective actions, mutual exchanges and rewards only when performance expectations are met [transactional leadership];
3. A leadership style that avoids taking decisions and leaves things for the responsible people to make decisions [Laissez-faire]
4. Another leadership style that you think best describes you.

Some of the Deans chose more than one styles preferring to combine the first and the second. Indeed, 5 Deans mentioned this combined approach as closest to their styles in such statements as:

'I prefer the first and the second procedures. I believe they are important'
(Dean G)

'I think the first and second Leadership styles are very basic and important because they are complementary to each other. I am with the first style more than the second style because it encourages incentives, for any work without incentives could not be accomplished in a satisfactory manner' (Dean E).

'Of course the third leadership style is rejected completely [since this is in no leadership in the opinion of the respondent]. However, the first and second leadership styles could be combined... .. The first style is excellent whereas the second style is reasonable and important. For example, giving motivations and awards is the base of the second method' (Dean Q).

The third leadership style was not chosen by any Dean as suggested in the above statement. Only 3 Deans chose the second style exclusively. The first leadership style "Transformational" was overwhelmingly chosen by most of the Deans (14 Deans) and 3 Deans chose to combine first and second "Transformational" and "transactional".

The results and further notes below show that Deans are more inclined to practise transformational leadership acted out in a collective way as represented by the first leadership style, combined with transactional and proactive strategies which motivate staff to contribute their best performance to the faculties as represented in the second style.

Indeed, some Deans believe that their leadership style is such that it emphasizes corrective actions, mutual exchanges and rewards only when performance expectations are met. They are of the view that the leader should be alert at all times and be prepared to take corrective action to problems whilst providing incentives for good work.

"I think that the first style of leadership put forward earlier, more suitable for this college or other colleges, at least at the present time, a style of Leadership that drives collective action in the institution" (Dean M).

The Deans see their leadership style as one that considers the interests of their staff, generates awareness and acceptance of goals and tasks, and encourage their staff to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the faculty community. They termed this style as collective leadership.

"I see the first style expresses collective leadership and this is exactly what I practice and it is the main part in my job. I do not take any decisions in behalf of any department if the head of the department is available, also the general policies for the Faculty are set in agreement with the heads of the departments in the Faculty during the scheduled periodical meetings, I give every head of the department the appropriate authorities in his department and I follow him to make sure that he execute them, This is known as the collective leadership (Dean B).

"The success of the college has good leadership and effective and the leadership is collective from staff and faculty members, students, and the process begin from the smallest employee, for example, the person in charge who opening the doors of the College in the early morning. If this person absent; the educational process will stop in that day, so the responsibility is collective and each person responsible on work is very important in this institution" (Dean L).

"I prefer the first Leadership style as it is the procedure I follow in leading the faculty....., however, its success is dependent on the collaboration of the teaching staff and the heads of the departments in the faculty. No success will be accomplished without this cooperation, which is called collective Leadership and the role of the leader is to activate this collective leadership through joining them to work together as a cooperative family. A successful leadership in any faculty can be accomplished via intensive collective work, and the role of the leader or the dean in the faculty is essential through his/her containment of all teaching and administrative staff and workers by maintaining mutual respect and good relations with everybody" (Dean T).

From the above quotes, it was noted that some Deans were reluctant to take any decisions on behalf of other departments if the head of the department is available, also the general policies for the faculty are set in agreement with the heads of the departments in the faculty during the scheduled periodical meetings. The Deans delegate to heads of the departments the appropriate authorities and supervise their actions. They believe this is collective leadership. They added that they work through and with their faculty members in devising strategies and plans for the efficient operation of the faculty. Hence the whole faculty assumes responsibility for the performance of the assigned tasks.

The Deans were of the view that their leadership style is a combination of one that expands the interests of their staff, generates awareness and acceptance of goals and tasks, and stirs the staff to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the faculty community as well as one that emphasize corrective actions, mutual exchanges and rewards only when performance expectations are met. They were of the view that such leadership styles were most common and complement each other.

“I think a mixture between first and second styles can be most apply to the style that I follow in this college, at least in the current circumstances” (Dean S).

The Deans also favour a leadership style that incentivises hard work as in style 2. They believe that freedom to operate is very important in the decision-making and gives their heads of department the freedom to operate within set regulations.

“We believe that freedom is very important in the decision-making so that should not be conflicting with reality or with the regulations and laws. The other point which is very important is establishing what is known as belonging to the institution, the most important thing in leadership that establishes when the subordinates of their belonging to an institution, and we should applied in this way the theory of reward and punishment, I mean, and good work has been done should be rewarded, and any wrong work should be punished, and this will create incentives for people to be a kind of competition in order that they as a service to the institution and thus become the foundation in their blood and their lives within the institution and feel like a part of them and take care to make it and that the services be distinct” (Chancellor I).

The faculty was described as a family house with open doors where there is mutual respect and a feeling of belonging. Thus it is believed that the success of the faculty is a collective responsibility of all faculty members and this makes the leadership styles of deans to become predominantly collective as seen in the statement:

“Generally my relations with my colleague are very good, we work as one family’ (Dean E).

Whichever leadership style is adopted, it is vital to create what they termed “belonging to the institution atmosphere” which supports the collective leadership practice. They stated that the most important thing in leadership is to instil in subordinates a sense of belonging to the institution which creates incentives for people to work hard and feel part of the institution and the leader should lead by example and respect his team.

“The other point which is very important is establishing what is known as belonging to the institution, the most important thing in leadership that establishes when the subordinates of their belonging to an institution, and we should applied in this way the theory of reward and punishment, I mean, and good work has been done should be rewarded, and any wrong work should be punished” (Chancellor I).

“I always like to create awareness among workers in the Faculty, and that they are belonging to the Faculty, and they are part and parcel of it and Interests of the Faculty be above personal interest” (Dean J).

The Deans noted that their leadership styles put the interests of the faculty above the personal interest of team members. The Deans were of the opinion that leadership style should not be static but should adapt to changing circumstances and should drive collective action in the institution.

“The responsibility is collective and each person responsible on work is very important in this institution” (Dean L).

It was also noted that leadership style is moderated by availability of resources and there are times where they have to adopt their style to match available resources in order to achieve their goals. A leadership style that leads to the centralization of work was not a popular strategy among the Deans and they prefer responsibilities to be distributed according to specializations of team members.

As discussed in Chapter 2 of the thesis, the political environment (laws and regulations) also affects the leadership styles and success of the Faculty. It was noted that there is a direct correlation relationship between the environment in which Deans operate and the level of success they achieve. The political system in Libya creates an environment where leaders are elected by a politically oriented audience. This is the practice in the universities where the Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty¹⁷ is elected.

Relating leadership styles to the success of the faculty, the Deans stated that style of leadership can lead to either success or failure of the institution. When the style is convincing it's likely that it will lead to success and vice versa. When leadership is successful it will make people work hard and feel that they are doing something good and useful for themselves and for their society. There is a direct correlation between leadership style and success of the faculty and the following quote indicates this:

- ♦ *“An effective leadership will ensure a successful faculty” (Dean P).*
- ♦ *“A leadership style that encourages collective responsibility from even the least member of the team promotes the success of the faculty” (Dean J).*

The creation of a work environment where staff members see themselves as members of one family, ready to help each other creates mutual respect and cooperation and strengthens the relationship between staff members. This also motivates team members to work actively and effectively. In spite of the family atmosphere a leader has to be strict as well as flexible and be able to earn respect of team members.

¹⁷ The Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty is Faculty Deans

6.2.8 Leadership constraints of deans

During the interviews the Deans mentioned many constraints that affected their work. Such constraints include:

6.2.8.1 Limited formal training in leadership and management

The Deans were divided on their opinions on training programmes. Some indicated that they have not had any leadership training before and after their appointments with statements such as:

- ♦ *“Regrettably I did not have any leadership training” (Dean A).*
- ♦ *“I did not take any leadership training programs” (Dean C).*
- ♦ *“I have not taken any training course in this field” (Dean B).*
- ♦ *“Nothing” (Dean J).*
- ♦ *“Actually I did not take any training course in this area” (Dean M).*

On the other hand, others have had some leadership training and are of the view that leadership training programmes are very useful and indicated it gave them clear pointers on how to lead people especially in academia. However, they admitted that there are an inadequate number of leadership training programmes in Libyan universities. The Deans are in agreement on the view that their past work experience has been useful and has helped them in their present role. The following statement is an indication:

“I did not take any leadership training courses, but I have been working in many management positions in the Libyan state and my past experience has helped me in my current role as a Dean” (Dean R).

The Deans indicated that for them to perform their role efficiently, they must be trained in management and leadership. The training courses must be in educational administration and not in the public administration. There should also be training in languages as well as in computing. They mentioned that leadership training is good and helps considerably in the style of leadership and hence performance and productivity of the Dean and the faculty.

It was noted that though the Deans are technically qualified in their various fields, they must be given training in leadership since in most cases they do not have enough knowledge in management, administration and especially leadership to help them perform their leadership roles. It was suggested that though such training programmes are helpful, the leadership qualities of a Dean depends on his personal characteristics

and the environment in which he/she operates. The following quote illustrates the above statement.

“I think that the efficiency of a Dean is related directly or indirect to the person himself and his experience” (Dean T).

6.2.8.2 Lack of Qualified Staff

It is believed that the most important constraint facing Deans in the performance of their duties is the lack of qualified administrative and teaching staff to support them. Running the day to day business of the faculty requires some kind of discipline. Although some members of the staff have university education, they did not receive any kind of training on the job they are currently doing. As shown in the following quote, lack of qualified English language fluent teachers was cited as a challenge to the efficient delivery of academic programmes.

“We face many difficulties such as shortage of qualified staff with experience in teaching. We continually try to solve these problems and to provide temporary staff to fill the gap. Also we have a shortage in the technical staff, (Dean F)

The lack of management capabilities, poor salaries, lack of computers to computerise records for future use, the absence of database and over-centralisation of financial administration, poor classroom infrastructure (shortage of resources, availability of equipment and space) were also cited as constraints as shown by the following statement:

“One of the most outstanding problems is the premises of the faculty. It is insufficient, ill-equipped and mismanaged” (Dean C).

6.2.8.3 Lack of infrastructure

A poor maintenance culture, by which basic facilities in the universities are not properly serviced, affects the supply of services such as telephone, functional internet and water and this was mentioned as constraints that affect the efficiency of Deans. For example:

“Land lines and internet are not functional and this makes it increasingly difficult to communicate” (Dean J).

The lack of bookshops and well equipped libraries were cited as constraints. It was mentioned that even when there are libraries, the librarians are not trained and a leader

cannot function effectively in such an environment. The library lacks many of the textbooks, and computers. The Deans argued that this does not facilitate effective teaching and learning. The quote below is an indication of the view of Deans on resources.

“There are no adequate resources, for instance we still suffer from the very poor library: in spite of our efforts to build a good library we are unable to provide the needed books and periodicals. The buildings of the faculty are inadequate and are poorly equipped” (Dean D).

The existence of such constraints means that Deans may have desire to carry out their functions effectively but are impeded from achieving their aims.

6.2.8.4 Tenure and environmental factors

Tenure for the Deans was mentioned as a constraint. The frequent changes do not promote continuity and stability for the Deans to perform their work. Such changes do not auger well for administrative stability of the faculty and do not allow Deans enough time to develop and implement their vision. They were of the opinion that a Dean should stay in his/her position for at least four years. Also, it was suggested that the political influences associated with the appointment of deans affect the quality of people chosen as deans and thus the quality of their performance. The following quote illustrates the concern of a dean on how deans are selected.

“More care should be given to the methods by which people chosen for the job; we should make sure the right person in the right place and not vice versa. Administrative stability is required to give a chance for the secretary to develop his plan of action and must be given the opportunity to implement this plan” (Dean T).

The Deans are of the opinion that the frequency of changes and the quality of people appointed as Deans creates mistrust and negatively affects the work of the faculty. The lack of clear policy guidelines for Deans was also cited by the Deans as a constraint since it creates uncertainties and unfairness in the way rules and regulations are applied.

Lack of financial autonomy was another constraint that was mentioned and the Deans stated that it causes delays in the operations of the faculty since all financial matters are centralised and plagued by bureaucracy. In effect there is over centralisation of financial administration in the universities and this restricts what Deans can do.

There are also legislative problems which cause instability for the universities; some universities complained of the volatility of legislation such as the frequent issuance and changes of regulations from the political leaders. For example, the frequent changes in the education systems such as the switches between school year system, open semester system and close semester system impede the operations of the faculties. The following quote highlights the problem.

“As you try to consolidate and understand the regulations in relation to the context of your work, new regulations are issued which may eliminate the existing ones” (Dean T).

Faculty/staff and student ratio was also mentioned as a constraint to effective learning and teaching and this impacts negatively on the effectiveness of the Dean. In summary, the interviews show the following as constraints faced by Deans in Libyan universities: Centralization of financial issues, inadequate finances, shortage of qualified and experienced teaching and administrative staff, limited lecture halls, poor and inefficient equipment, limited library resources, and bureaucracy. Also, though the Deans have a good understanding of leadership, most of them do not have formal training in leadership and advocated for such training.

6.2.8.5 Socio-cultural constraints

Cultural norms were cited as a major constraint as the following quotes illustrates.

“Our society is governed by social norms more than anything else. Though we have very highly developed modern civil law and so many regulations and rules, social norms, societal, tribal and personal relationships are dominant and exerts huge pressure on our work especially during the beginning of academic year: society expects us to admit more students than we planned and more than we could manage and to find none existing solutions to the real existing problems” (Dean C).

“Libyan society is built on social relations; some people do not look at matters from the scientific aspect but from the social perspective” (Dean O).

“we are a tribal society and socially interdependent and this relationship inevitably affects leadership”; “The cultural and tribal environments in which we operate do not help” (Dean R).

It was mentioned that the constraints that Deans face are because of the socio-cultural environment in which they operate. They stated that:

"Our culture is still not developed to the extent which makes people stick to the official rules and regulations. In other words social dimension and customs still influence how work is done in Libya" (Dean A).

It was noted that social relations and customs have a big effect on how deans operate and though they try to limit such effects they are unable to isolate themselves because of socio-cultural nuances. Thus culture and the social environment have enormous effect on leadership efficiency.

The Deans categorised constraints into two, internal and external. They noted that whilst the internal constraints (financial, administrative or managerial, lack of well qualified staff and employees) can be controlled within the faculty; the external constraints are more difficult to control. The external constraints emanate from societal expectations (favouritism; admission of family members and friends) and political interference in their operations.

6.2.9 Deans' perceptions about internal and external influences which affect leadership performance

In answer to the question: What are the internal and external influences that affect your performance of leadership? The following responses were obtained:

"Difficulty in satisfying the public in a socially cooperative society" (Dean D)

"All influences either internal or external come from our culture"..... "Our culture [is] still not developed to the extent which makes people stick to the official state rules of law" (Deans BJ); and

(Tribal or clan system which encourage favouritism) (Deans CEF)

In other words, the Deans observe that the collectivist culture of Libya predisposes people to expect that Deans should fulfil their personal interests as part of their societal obligations to take care of others. The researcher feels that the Deans, having been trained in other countries where favours can only be done within stipulated regulations, would rather prefer that people understand that university rules can sometimes stop them from being able to meet all such requests.

In sum, the Deans view the same cultural setting which makes for collective leadership in Libya as limiting if deans are not trained to maintain discipline and fairness when pressures for favours are put on them by the people.

This point suggests a negative side of collectivism, so that while Deans take advantage of the collective spirit which may motivate faculty workers to excel in their roles, they should have effective strategies for managing such negative aspects of the 'family-oriented' culture like faculty staff and local communities expecting the Deans to fulfil any demands for considerations either at work or in relation to progress of their wards even when the regulations do not allow such considerations. These implications of the collectivist culture for leadership practices in general and faculty leadership in Libyan universities in particular were mentioned in the Section 8 of the literature review (Chapter 3 of this thesis) which explored collective and leadership (Hofstede, 1994; Hofstede et al, 2010).

6.2.10 Characteristics of effective leaders

The following key characteristics of leadership are revealed from the interview in answer to the question: '*what are your perceptions regarding the characteristics of effective leaders?*' and related questions;

- Wide vision; setting specific objectives; patience; allocating reasonable time frames for programs to achieve set objectives; not being dictatorial; capable of dialogue; humility in giving up own ideas in preference for better ideas; firmness and flexibility as appropriate (Deans IAC)(Chancellor II).
- Sense of responsibility; trustworthiness; flexibility; firmness (Deans MFQ).
- Being ambitious; being realistic; not arrogant; flexible and tolerant with excellent manner; should be distinguished (expert) in something; humility and respect for others; responsibility; should maintain a relationship of brotherhood instead of boss to employee; should therefore inspire love and trust (Deans BEK) (Chancellor I).
- Personal traits (*'I think that the process of leadership comes from the person himself'*); ...should pursue excellence as dictated by the Islamic religion;....must honest (Deans MJP).
- Should be open-minded; be able to accept criticism; have high level of awareness and understanding (Deans DO).
- Good role model ('should be good example for others'); be qualified for the position (Deans IE).

- Should be democratic and practice collective leadership; persistence and rigour; love/passion for his work; faithful, sincere; honest and trustworthy; strict and disciplined (Deans NST).
- Should maintain positive spirit at all levels; share responsibilities (delegation / democracy); experience and wisdom; should be seen as the head for the family; be responsible for executing agreed plans (Deans KLS).
- Should be collaborative and collective; adequately qualified (Deans CGIM).
- Resilience and resoluteness; flexibility; good communication skills; have respect for others (Deans AJ).

Some of the above characteristics reinforce the principle of collective leadership in Libya through such terms as ‘head of family’, ‘brotherhood’, and ‘love’, which may be too strong if used in Western leadership contexts. For examples, item c) directly mentions brotherhood, love and trust which are basic to collective leadership; item d) requires deans to adopt Islamic principles in their dealings with staff which implies being considerate to staff and treating them as family in some senses; item g) emphasizes democratic and collective leadership and the related values of trust, sincerity, honesty, love and passion; and items h) and i) again emphasize shared responsibility which connotes collectivism.

6.2.11 Success criteria for faculties and universities

In answer to the question: *'How do you evaluate the success of the Faculty?'* the following typical responses were obtained:

- By level of its graduates and the number of graduates as well as quality of graduates (Deans AF)
- The evaluation of the success of the Faculty can be through its output and also a contribution of the Faculty in community service is one of the factors to evaluate the success of the Faculty (Deans BIJMR) (Chancellor I).
- By such criteria as effectiveness of planning and degree of performance (low or high for example), employing the right mix and number of staff, equipping laboratories, by staff-student ratio, hence quality of students (Deans CN)
- Our goal is to graduate students at the highest scientific level possible and this is the ultimate goal (Deans QKS) (Chancellor II).

The above notes show that altogether Deans have an all-round perception of faculty success which comprises provisional metrics such as state of facilities and adequacy of work force and academic excellence criteria mainly in terms of the quality of graduates.

6.2.12 Deans' views on how to improve leadership effectiveness and performance

In answer to the question: *'What do you think could be done to improve the performance of your leadership? Are there any support mechanisms that can help you develop your leadership styles?* The following responses were obtained:

"Supposed to be training courses in management and leadership and that these courses are inside Libya and is not outside Libya; in order to be able to attend as many leaders as possible.... For example, if these courses running in each university every Deans could attend these courses in the evening, outside of working hours and each university can bring such lecturers from outside of Libya to give such courses" (Deans OA);

"The need for heads of departments and deans to have budgets" (Deans IE)

"The need to 'innovate new mechanisms for work which can help keep up with new developments in society and at the same time keep up with the rules and regulations of the institution" (Deans NST)

In sum, the deans feel that improvements can be achieved through training and innovations in processes, leadership and management skills, university-community relationships, and knowledge exchange.

6.2.13 Summary of Part I

This part of the chapter has examined the leadership ideas and issues which in the opinion of faculty leaders relate to their leadership styles and performances. These include their responsibilities, difficulties and challenges, strategies for consulting and motivating staff, and view on how to improve leadership effectiveness and performance. Part 2 explores complementary views of faculty staff regarding their experiences of faculty leadership, hence enabling the researcher to triangulate the findings from Part I.

6.3 Part II: Results from Analyses of the Multifactor Leadership

Questionnaire (MLQ)

In this section the researcher presents the results obtained from the analyses of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (see Appendix 6). The results are presented below in six tables namely:

- ♦ Table 6.3: Interpretation of the MLQ scores
- ♦ Table 6.4: Detailed Analysis of the MLQ scores
- ♦ Table 6.5: MLQ results for all the sampled universities combined
- ♦ Table 6.6: MLQ results for University (A)
- ♦ Table 6.7: MLQ results for University (B)
- ♦ Table 6.8: MLQ results for University (C)

6.3.1 Interpretation of the MLQ scores

The researcher used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to measure the evaluation of faculty staff about their deans. The scale of this Questionnaire is: (0 = not at all; 1 = once in a while; 2 = sometimes; 3= fairly often; and 4 = frequently if not always). Table 6.3 below explains the framework for the analysis of the MLQ scores (see Appendix 6).

Table 6.3: Interpretation of the MLQ scores

Leadership Dimension	Number of Questions	Scale	Arithmetic Mean
Transformational Leadership	26	(0-----4)	$(0*26---4*26) = (0---52--104)$
Transactional Leadership	12	(0-----4)	$(0*12---4*12) = (0----24--48)$
Laissez-faire Leadership	5	(0-----4)	$(0*5----4*5) = (0----10---20)$
Extra Effort	3	(0-----4)	$(0*3----4*3) = (0-----6-----12)$
Effectiveness	4	(0-----4)	$(0*4----4*4) = (0-----8-----16)$
Satisfaction	2	(0-----4)	$(0*2----4*2) = (0-----4-----8)$

The table shows how the range of scores obtainable for indicated dimensions of leadership performance varies according to the total number of questions in the MLQ which explore the dimensions. For example, under Transformational Leadership there are 26 questions each of which faculty staff should scale with numbers 0 to 4. Hence, for this dimension, the lowest score a faculty staff can rate a dean if the staff scores the dean '0' on all the 26 questions is $0 \times 26 = 0$ and the highest score a faculty staff can rate a dean is $4 \times 26 = 104$, if the staff scores the dean '4' on all the 26 questions. Similarly, the middlemost total score a faculty staff can rate a dean is $2 \times 26 = 52$, if the staff scores the dean 2 on all the 26 questions.

These figures are benchmarks against which to evaluate the strength of faculty staffs' rating of deans' leadership performances on the dimension. To do this, the researcher will obtain the total scores given by all the faculty members who rated a dean's transformational leadership across all the 26 questions and calculate the average of these total scores. For this transformational leadership, the higher the average score above 52 the stronger the transformational leadership performance of the dean in the opinion of faculty staff, and the lower the average score below 52, the weaker the staff perceive the dean's transformational leadership performance to be.

Similar interpretations obtain for the other dimensions using their indicated ranges in column 4 of Table 6.3. For example, average scores above 24 indicate transactional leadership inclination on the part of deans and scores less than 24 imply a lack of transactional leadership.

For the leadership styles, an overall assessment of the strength of deans' inclinations to the different leadership dimensions is made by a combination of this quantitative evaluation using arithmetic means of scores and textual evidence from the deans' responses to the interview questions on their preferred leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire or combinations of the styles) (see question 8 of the deans' interview guide presented in Chapter 5 of the thesis).

6.3.2 Detailed analyses of staff opinion of deans' leadership

Table 6.4 presents the detailed textual and quantitative analyses of the MLQ scores as described above. The scores for the different leadership styles performance attributes according to the Likert scales used in the MLQ survey are:

Transformational: - (0---52---104)

Transformational (Medium level)	Transformational (High level)
52-78	79-104

Transactional: - (0---24---48)

Transactional (Medium level)	Transactional (High level)
24-36	37-48

Laissez-faire:- (0---10---20)

Laissez-faire (Medium level)	Laissez-faire (High level)
10-15	16-20

Extra Effort: - (0---6---12)

Extra Effort (Medium level)	Extra Effort (High level)
6-9	10-12

Effectiveness: - (0---8---16)

Effectiveness (Medium level)	Effectiveness (High level)
8-12	13-16

Satisfaction: - (0---4---8)

Satisfaction (Medium level)	Satisfaction (High level)
4-6	7-8

Table 6.4: Detailed Analysis Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) scores

	Interviews	MLQ				
		Number of staff who evaluated their Dean	Staff Views; evaluating Leadership style of their deans	Staff Views; evaluating their Extra Effort as a result of leadership styles of their deans.	Staff Views; evaluating Effectiveness of their deans	Staff Views; evaluating their Satisfaction of their dean's Leadership styles
Deans	Deans self-view; evaluating their Leadership styles according to Transformational, Transactional & Laissez Faire Leadership styles		Transformational (0-----52----104) Transactional (0-----24-----48) Laissez-faire (0-----10-----20)	(0-----6---12)	(0-----8---16)	(0-----4---8)
Dean A	The Dean feels that the Transactional Leadership style is the closest to his Leadership style, but he works with the heads of departments as a team work. <i>"I believe the second leadership style which is the Transactional Leadership style is the closest to my leadership style but I am always working with my heads of departments as group work" (Dean A).</i>	4 HODs & 6 Lecturers	Transformational & Transactional with Medium level	His leadership style produces staff extra effort with Medium level	He is effective with High level	They are satisfied with Medium level
			Mean: Transformational 77.55 Transactional 28.50 Laissez-faire 3.20	Mean: 9.10	Mean: 13.10	Mean: 6.50

Dean B	<p>The Dean sees the Transformational Leadership is the closest to his leadership style but he works in collective way.</p> <p><i>"I see the first style "Transformational Leadership style" expresses collective leadership and this is exactly what I practice and it is the main part in my job. I do not take any decisions in behalf of any department if the head of the department is available, also the general policies for the Faculty are set in agreement with the HODs in the Faculty during the scheduled periodical meetings, I give every head of the department the appropriate authorities in his department and I follow him to make sure that he execute them, This is known as a collective leadership"</i></p>	4 HODs & 5 Lecturers	<p>Transformational with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: Transformational 68.87 Transactional 21.16 LaissezFaire 1.11</p>	<p>His leadership style produces staff extra effort with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: 6.00</p>	<p>He is effective with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: 9.77</p>	<p>They are satisfied with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: 5.55</p>
Dean C	<p>The Dean sees that the Transformational Leadership style is the closest to his leadership style, but his style is more collectively with the heads of departments in devising strategies and planning and problems solving.</p> <p>He sees that will help in assuming the responsibility during performance and executing the assigned tasks. "Collective Leadership"</p>	4 HODs & 2 Lecturers	<p>Transformational & Transactional with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: Transformational 76.00 Transactional 26.16 Laissez-Faire 2.66</p>	<p>His leadership style produces staff extra effort with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: 7.80</p>	<p>He is effective with High level</p> <p>Mean: 13.33</p>	<p>They are satisfied with High level</p> <p>Mean: 7.00</p>

Dean E	<p>The dean sees his Leadership style is the closest style to the transformational Leadership style.</p> <p><i>"I think the first style which is Transformational Leadership style and the second style which is Transactional Leadership styles are very basic and important because they are complementary to each other, I am with the first more than the second because it encourages incentives; for any work without incentives could not be accomplished in a satisfactory manner. I am with the incentives because they can be very important drive to work affectively, and I am speaking as an individual who tried that"</i></p>	4 HODs & 2 Lecturers	Transformational with Medium level	His leadership style produces staff extra effort with Medium level	He is effective with High level	They are satisfied with Medium level
Dean G	<p>The Dean thinks that both Transformational and Transactional Leadership styles are the closest style to his Leadership style but he is working in collective way with the heads of departments.</p> <p><i>"I prefer the first (Transformational Leadership style) and the second (Transactional Leadership styles) procedures. I believe they are important but heads of departments and I working collectively in this Faculty"</i></p>	5 HODs & 6 Lecturers	Transformational with Medium level	His leadership style produces staff extra effort with Medium level	He is effective with Medium level	They are satisfied with Medium level

Dean H	<p>The Dean sees her Leadership style is the closest style to the transactional leadership style.</p> <p>"I believe in the second style (<i>Transactional Leadership styles</i>)"</p>	4 HODs & 2 Lecturers	<p>Transactional with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: <i>Transformational</i> 48.66 <i>Transactional</i> 25.66 <i>Laissez-faire</i> 7.83</p>	<p>Her leadership style produces staff extra effort with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: 6.33</p>	<p>She is effective with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: 8.00</p>	<p>They are satisfied with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: 4.66</p>
Dean I	<p>The dean sees his leadership style is the closest style to transformational leadership style and he believes that all the staff is belonging to the faculty and working as one Family which indicates collective work.</p> <p>"I think that the first style of <i>Transformational Leadership style</i> is the closest style to my leadership style in this faculty, because I always like to create awareness among staff in the faculty, and that because they are belonging to the faculty, and they are part and parcel of it and Interests of the faculty be above personal interest. This is what is in the first method. moreover we all working as one family"</p>	6 HODs & 13 Lecturers	<p>Transformational & Transactional with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: <i>Transformational</i> 76.05 <i>Transactional</i> 24.00 <i>Laissez-faire</i> 3.66</p>	<p>His leadership style produces staff extra effort with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: 7.77</p>	<p>He is effective with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: 11.94</p>	<p>They are satisfied with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: 6.33</p>

Dean J	<p>The dean see his Leadership style is closest to Transformational Leadership style</p> <p><i>"The first one (Transformational Leadership style) because it always help to push forward to the best"</i></p>	3 HODs & 1 Lecturers	Transformational with Medium level Mean: <i>Transformational</i> 69.50 <i>Transactional</i> 22.75 <i>Laissez-faire</i> 4.50	His leadership style produces staff extra effort with Medium level Mean: 7.75	He is effective with Medium level Mean: 9.75	They are satisfied with Medium level Mean: 5.50
Dean K	<p>The Dean sees his Leadership style is closest to Transactional leadership style</p> <p><i>I think that the second Leadership style (Transactional leadership style) is the closest style to my leadership style. Mean is supposed to be always on the alert. If we see something wrong we need to fix it and must find the incentives, which start with word of thanks...etc.</i></p>	14 HODs & 6 Lecturers	Transformational with Medium level Mean: <i>Transformational</i> 56.40 <i>Transactional</i> 23.40 <i>Laissez-faire</i> 7.10	His leadership style does not produce staff extra effort Mean: 5.00	He is effective with Medium level Mean: 8.60	They are satisfied with Medium level Mean: 4.00

Dean M	<p>The Dean sees his leadership style as closest to the Transformational Leadership style. Also he believes that his leadership is collective leadership.</p> <p>.....<i>The Transformational Leadership style is perhaps the closest to my leadership style in this faculty....., but I believe that the Leadership in this faculty and other faculties is more collective which is related to the policy of Libya that depend on the Islamic religion as the source of legislation(Dean M)</i>".</p>	6 HODs & 11 Lecturers	<p>Transformational with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: Transformational 64.58 Transactional 23.47 Laissez-faire 3.11</p>	His leadership style produces staff extra effort with Medium level	<p>Mean: 6.82</p>	He is effective with Medium level	They are satisfied with Medium level
Dean O	<p>The Dean feels that his Leadership style is close to the Transformational Leadership style.</p> <p>".....<i>Transformational Leadership style because I believe it is the best for the Faculty and always helps to develop and upgrade the faculty as a whole</i>"</p>	4 HODs & 9 Lecturers	<p>Transformational & Transactional with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: Transformational 64.92 Transactional 25.84 Laissez-faire 4.92</p>	His leadership style produces staff extra effort with Medium level	<p>Mean: 8.07</p>	He is effective with Medium level	They are satisfied with Medium level

<p>The Dean sees that his leadership style is closest to both Transformational & Transactional Leadership styles together but with more collective work</p> <p><i>"However, the first (Transformational Leadership style) and the second (Transactional Leadership styles) could be combined. The first style is excellent whereas the second style is reasonable and important. For example, given motivations and awards is the base of second method"</i></p> <p>Dean Q</p>	<p>3 HODs & 2 Lecturers</p>	<p>Transformational with High level & Transactional with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: Transformational 84.25 Transactional 25.20 Laissez-faire 1.60</p>	<p>His leadership style produces staff extra effort with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: 8.80</p>	<p>He is effective with High level</p> <p>Mean: 13.60</p>	<p>They are satisfied with High level</p> <p>Mean: 7.60</p>
<p>The dean sees his Leadership style is closest to Transformational Leadership style but he sees that the policy of Libya is encourage collective work to produce more democracy and freedom for Decision-making</p> <p><i>"I think that the first method (Transformational Leadership style) is the one which is the closest to that I am using and work with, because in this method there is some kind of motivation for staff to push them to the creativity and development. This is what we try to do in this Faculty"</i></p> <p>Dean R</p>	<p>2 HODs & 4 Lecturers</p>	<p>Transformational with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: Transformational 59.33 Transactional 18.00 Laissez-faire 7.83</p>	<p>His leadership style does not produce staff extra effort with</p> <p>Mean: 5.00</p>	<p>He is effective with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: 8.16</p>	<p>They are satisfied with Medium level</p> <p>Mean: 4.66</p>

<p>The Dean sees that his leadership style is closest to both Transformational & Transactional Leadership styles together; but he says that he use collective leadership style</p> <p>"I think a mixture between first (<i>Transformational Leadership style</i>) and the second (<i>Transactional Leadership styles</i>) can be most apply to the style that I follow in this college, at least in the current circumstances. in addition to the People's Committee of the Faculty working with more democracy and freedom and make the leadership in the Faculty is collective leadership "</p> <p style="text-align: right;">Dean S</p>	<p>2 HODs & 3 Lecturers</p>	<p>Transformational & Transactional with Medium level</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Mean: <i>Transformational</i> 73.80 <i>Transactional</i> 24.80 <i>Laissez-faire</i> 2.40</p>	<p>His leadership style produces staff extra effort with Medium level</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Mean: 7.40</p>	<p>He is effective with High level</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Mean: 13.40</p>	<p>They are satisfied with High level</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Mean: 6.80</p>
<p>The Dean sees his leadership style as closest to the Transformational Leadership style.</p> <p>I prefer the "the first style..... Transformational Leadership style which I follow in leading this faculty (Dean T)"</p> <p style="text-align: right;">Dean T</p>	<p>4 HODs & 2 Lecturers</p>	<p>Transformational with Medium level</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Mean: <i>Transformational</i> 57.20 <i>Transactional</i> 23.83 <i>Laissez-faire</i> 6.50</p>	<p>His leadership style produces staff extra effort with Medium level</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Mean: 6.50</p>	<p>He is effective with Medium level</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Mean: 10.00</p>	<p>They are satisfied with Medium level</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Mean: 5.33</p>

Discussions:

Table 6.5 below shows the minimum, maximum and average scores recorded in Table 6.4 above for each leadership attribute:

Table 6.5: Overall performance scores for the Deans

Leadership Attribute	Average Score/Range	Minimum Score	Maximum Score
Transformational Leadership	52 (0 - 104)	56.40	84.25
Transactional Leadership	24 (0 - 48)	24.00	28.50
Laissez-Faire Leadership	10 (0 - 20)	0.00	0.00
Extra Effort	6 (0 - 12)	6.00	9.10
Effectiveness	8 (0 - 16)	8.00	13.60
Satisfaction	4 (0 - 8)	4.00	7.60

Using the above mentioned interpretational scheme in Table 6.5, the results show that compared to benchmark average scores of 52, 24, 10, 6, 8 and 4 for the attributes, taken in the order presented above:

- a) The faculty staff score the Deans very highly on the transformational leadership style (the average scores are above 52 and the maximum average score is close to the highest possible value of 104). The faculty staff rate the Deans as moderately transactional (the average scores range from the benchmark value of 24 to 28.50 which is not close to the highest possible value of 48). The workers do not rate the Deans as laissez-faire in their leadership style (with a score of 0). These results are consistent with the notes in Part I of this chapter, in which the Deans describe their leadership styles as dominated by a combination of transformational and transactional approaches. Indeed, column 2 of Table 6.4 summarizes Deans' opinions of their leadership style that they practise according to transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership style, and these opinions support the above observation.
- b) Row 4 scores show that staff rate Deans highly on the way the leadership provided by the Deans generates extra effort on the part of the staff; the maximum score of 9.10 is close to the maximum possible score of 12.00. In effect, some faculty

workers rate leadership style of their Dean at about 75% (9 out of 12) to Produce extra effort of the staff.

- c) Row 5 on Deans' leadership effectiveness shows that faculty workers similarly rate the effectiveness of their deans highly with a maximum mean score of 13.60 close to the highest possible score of 16.
- d) Finally, row 6 of the Table 6.5 scores the Deans very highly with respect to staff satisfaction with their leadership of the faculties, with a maximum score of 7.6 out of 8.00.

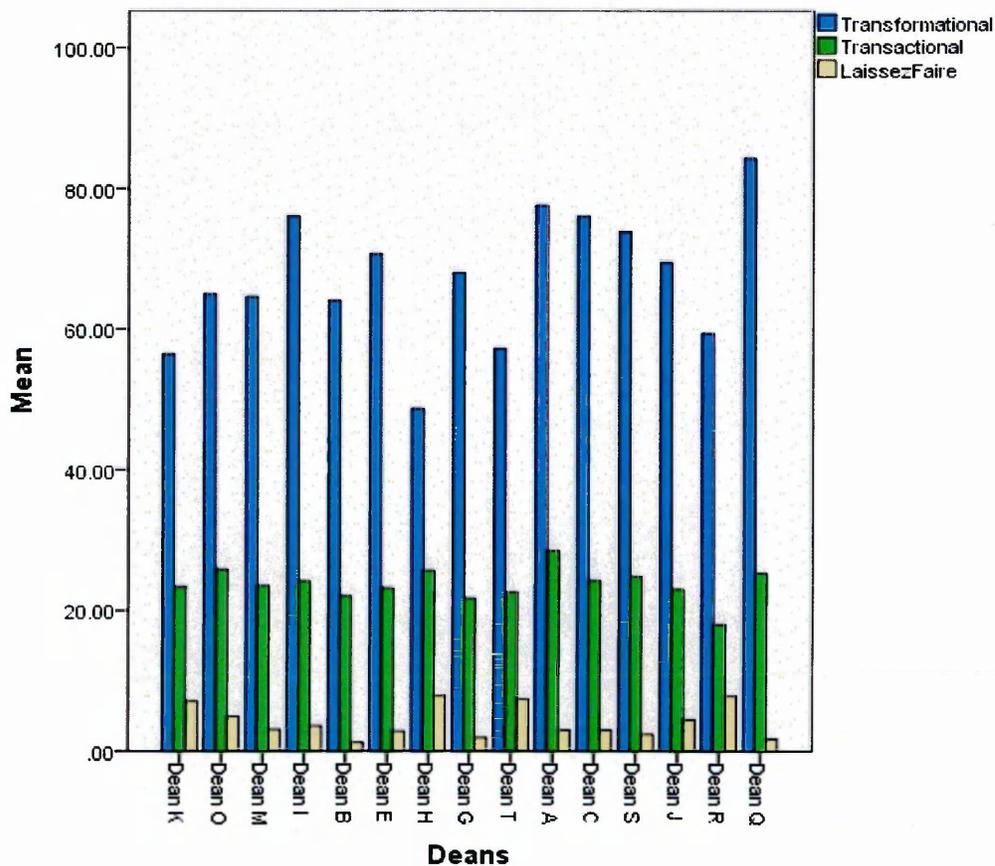


Figure 6-1: Comparative Bar Charts of Dean's Scores on Different Leadership Styles

The above conclusions are shown vividly in the bar chart of Deans' scores on the three leadership styles explored by the MLQ for all the sample universities pooled together. It shows much higher spikes for the Transformational style compared to the other leadership styles. It also shows much higher values for transformational versus transactional and transactional versus laissez-faire leadership styles.

In summary, in line with the above scores, all the university deans in this study are perceived by their faculty staff to be highly transformational and moderately transactional in their leadership styles, a result that conforms to the collective leadership model which the Deans mainly practise. The faculty workers also consider the Deans to be effective and hard working in terms of the way their leadership style motivates them to put in extra effort and become more effective in their tasks. These results reiterate the overall view of this thesis that leadership in Libyan universities is collective in the sense that deans enact transformational and transactional leadership styles in a collective way.

The quantitative analysis presented above is in a sense a qualitative way of analysing the MLQ scores which instead of doing complicated statistical tests uses the arithmetic mean scores to benchmark Deans' perceived performances on the indicated leadership attributes. This approach clarifies the message of the MLQ survey which complements the findings related to collective leadership elicited from the qualitative analyses of Deans' responses to the leadership interview questions presented in part I of this chapter.

Finally in this sub-section, the author notes that the rich textual information in Table 6.4 provides more details on the qualitative analysis of Deans' perceived leadership styles discussed in Part I of the chapter. In that part, due to limitations of space, only selective quotes from the deans were used to illustrate different points made with regard to different leadership characteristics surfaced in the collective leadership model. In Table 6.4 a lot more detail is presented as further evidence of the actual statements made by the Deans during the interview. See for example column 2 of the Table 6.4 which captures the Deans' statements on their leadership styles in detail.

6.3.3 Detailed analyses of MLQ results for sampled Universities

The results in (Tables 6.6 to 6.8) below show the order in which the leadership styles of Deans are rated by faculty staff according to the criteria of leadership styles, staff extra effort, Deans' effectiveness and staff satisfaction, for all Deans as in Table 6.6 and then for deans in each sampled university as in (Tables 6.6 to 6.8). The detailed analyses also reinforce the strong relationship between high scores on transactional and transformational leadership and positive leadership outcomes.

Table 6.6: MLQ scores for all Deans in all the sampled Universities (A & B & C)

Order	Transformational	Transactional	Extra Effort	Effectiveness	Satisfaction
1	Dean Q 84.25	Dean A 28.50	Dean A 9.10	Dean Q 13.60	Dean Q 7.60
2	Dean A 77.55	Dean C 26.16	Dean Q 8.80	Dean S 13.40	Dean C 7.00
3	Dean I 76.05	Dean O 25.84	Dean O 8.07	Deans CE 13.33	Dean S 6.80
4	Dean C 76.00	Dean H 25.66	Dean C 7.80	Dean A 13.10	Dean A 6.50
5	Dean S 73.80	Dean Q 25.20	Dean I 7.77	Dean I 11.94	Deans EI 6.33
6	Dean E 70.66	Dean S 24.80	Dean J 7.75	Dean G 11.82	Dean G 5.82
7	Dean J 69.50	Dean I 24.00	Dean S 7.40	Dean M 10.88	Dean B 5.55
8	Dean B 68.87		Dean G 7.18	Dean O 10.46	Dean O 5.53
9	Dean G 68.00		Dean M 6.82	Dean T 10.00	Dean J 5.50
10	Dean O 64.92		Dean E 6.66	Dean B 9.77	Dean T 5.33
11	Dean M 64.58		Dean T 6.50	Dean J 9.75	Dean M 4.94
12	Dean R 59.33		Dean H 6.33	Dean K 8.60	Deans HR 4.66
13	Dean T 57.20		Dean B 6.00	Dean R 8.16	Dean K 4.00
14	Dean K 56.40		Deans K R 5.00	Dean H 8.00	

The table shows that (Dean Q) from University (C) achieved the highest mean score in transformational Leadership (84.25) and fifth highest mean score in transactional leadership (25.20). He achieved the second highest score in staff extra effort which recorded (8.80) and highest score in the effectiveness of Dean (13.60), and staff satisfaction which was recorded (7.60). This shows how (Dean Q) rates overall as a very effective Dean who is an example of good leadership in Libyan universities.

Similarly, (Dean A) from University (B) is recorded as second in transformational Leadership (77.55), and first in transactional leadership (28.50) and in staff extra effort (9.10). Moreover he was fifth in the effectiveness of Dean which recorded (13.10) and in staff satisfaction which recorded (6.50).

Similar to Figure 6.1 above on the leadership styles, Figure 6.2 shows the bar charts of different Deans' scores on the other leadership dimensions – Extra Effort, Effectiveness and Satisfaction – across all the sampled universities.

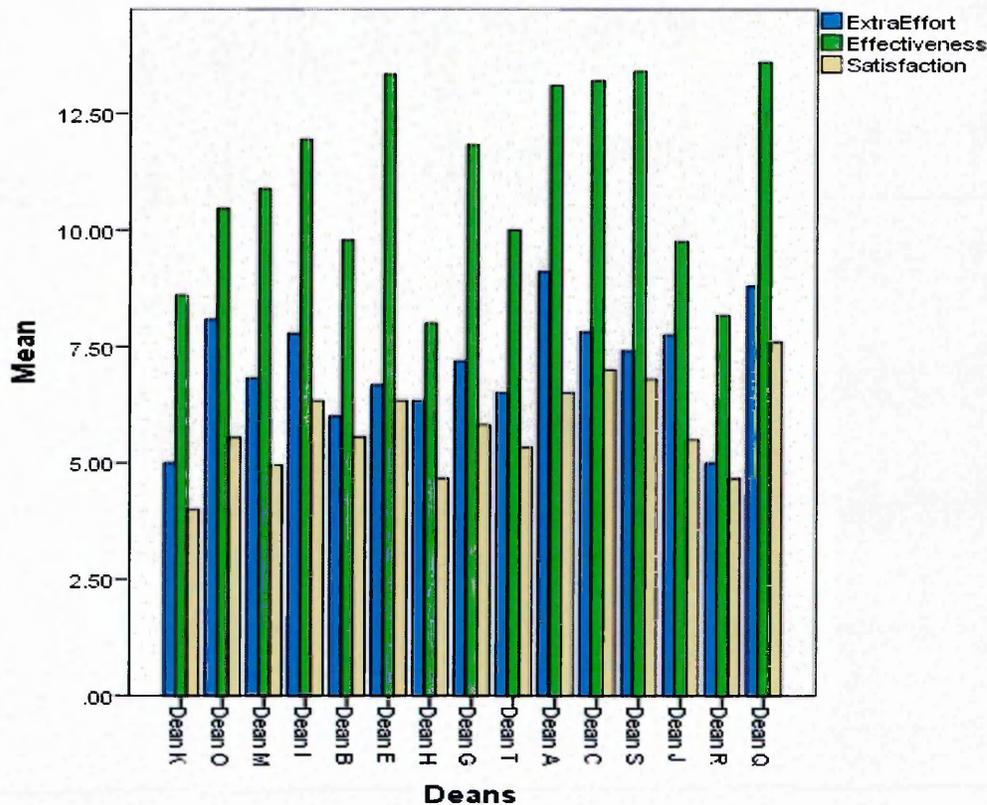


Figure 6-2: Dean’s Scores on Different Leadership dimensions – Extra Effort, Effectiveness and Satisfaction

Again, the figure shows the faculty staff evaluate their deans very highly on effectiveness followed by extra effort and satisfaction, in that order. These results reveal the fact that while the faculty staff perceive the deans to be generally effective and hardworking, there is room for improvement in the satisfaction rating. There is, therefore, a useful contribution to knowledge from this study with respect to faculty leaders in Libyan public universities, and possibly other sectors of the Libyan public service, possibly benefiting from leadership training that facilitates their leadership effectiveness, effort and satisfaction.

Figure 6.2 also shows which deans are outstanding or weak in their performances in terms of these criteria, so that the outstanding deans could serve as role models for the weaker deans and facilitators of leadership effectiveness within the Libyan university system.

Similar interpretations obtain for Deans' MLQ scores (rankings) in their particular universities as shown in (Tables 6.7 to 6.9) below.

Table 6.7: MLQ results for University A

Order	Transformational	Transactional	Extra Effort	Effectiveness	Satisfaction
1	Dean I 76.05	Dean O 26.84	Dean O 8.07	Dean I 11.94	Dean I 6.33
2	Dean O 64.92	Dean I 24.00	Dean I 7.77	Dean M 10.88	Dean O 5.53
3	Dean M 64.58		Dean M 6.82	Dean O 10.46	Dean M 4.94
4	Dean K 56.40		Dean K 5.00	Dean K 8.60	Dean K 4.00

The table shows that (Dean I) is highest in Transformational Leadership (76.05) and second in Transactional Leadership (24) and in staff extra effort (7.77). Moreover, (Dean I) achieved the highest score in the effectiveness of Dean (11.94) and in staff satisfaction (6.33). Hence, for this particular university, (Dean I) is again an example of good leadership in Libyan universities. The scores for the other Deans are interpreted similarly.

Table 6.8: MLQ results for University B

Order	Transformational	Transactional	Extra Effort	Effectiveness	Satisfaction
1	Dean A 77.55	Dean A 28.50	Dean A 9.10	Dean CE 13.33	Dean C 7.00
2	Dean C 76.00	Dean C 26.16	Dean C 7.80	Dean A 13.10	Dean A 6.50
3	Dean E 70.66	Dean H 25.66	Dean G 7.18	Dean G 11.81	Dean E 6.33
4	Dean B 68.87		Dean E 6.66	Dean T 10.00	Dean G 5.81
5	Dean G 68.00		Dean T 6.50	Dean B 9.77	Dean B 5.55
6	Dean T 57.20		Dean B 6.00	Dean H 8.00	Dean T 5.33
7			Dean H 6.33		Dean H 4.66

It can be seen from Table 6.8 that Dean A is an example of good leadership with highest score in Transformational leadership (77.55), Transactional Leadership (28.50), staff extra effort (9.10) and second highest figures in the effectiveness of Dean (13.10) and in staff satisfaction (6.50); the other scores show the relative performances of all the Deans for the different attributes.

Table 6.9: MLQ results for University C

Order	Transformational	Transactional	Extra Effort	Effectiveness	Satisfaction
1	Dean Q 84.25	Dean Q 25.20	Dean Q 8.80	Dean Q 13.60	Dean Q 7.60
2	Dean S 73.80	Dean S 24.80	Dean J 7.75	Dean S 13.40	Dean S 6.80
3	Dean J 69.50		Dean S 7.40	Dean J 9.75	Dean J 5.50
4	Dean R 59.33		Dean R 5.00	Dean R 8.16	Dean R 4.66

In this table, the exemplary leadership qualities of (Dean Q) are revealed by the fact that the Dean achieves the highest scores in all the leadership attributes - Transformational leadership (84.250), Transactional Leadership (25.200), staff extra effort (8.800), effectiveness of Dean (13.600) and staff satisfaction (7.600). In contrast, (Dean R) has the lowest staff rating in all the attributes.

6.3.4 Implication of the MLQ Results for Research Objectives and Leadership Development

The above results are important for possible policy interventions for leadership development in Libyan universities. First, they provide insights on how to suitably arrange exchange of leadership skills among deans in a training workshop, by knowing which deans are rated highly in some respects so as to be grouped with others who may learn from them, for example. The results are also useful for the deans' self-evaluation of their leadership performance as perceived by their staff. For example, deans in similar position as (Dean R) in Table 6.9 will benefit from efforts to improve their leadership performance on all the leadership dimensions, and can learn from the successes of deans in same positions as (Dean Q) in the Table 6.9.

In terms of the research objectives in this study, the MLQ results confirm the extent to which Faculty Deans are enacting collective leadership through mainly the transformational and transactional leadership styles. It is shown that faculty workers consider the Deans' leadership styles to be highly transformational and moderately transactional, similar to the way Deans view themselves based on the interview results in Part I of this chapter. Hence, the results contribute to a deeper understanding of perceived leadership styles and characteristics of Faculty Deans in Libya, which is the main aim of this research.

Methodologically speaking, as already argued in the preceding notes, the mainly qualitative analysis and semi-quantitative of the MLQ scores is innovative in helping to surface a number of insights on how collective leadership is generally performed by Faculty Deans in Libya. These insights include:

- A collation of Deans' opinions about their preferred leadership styles in which the Deans see themselves as practising transformational and transactional leadership in a collective way;
- A ranking of the leadership performance attributes of the Deans as perceived by their faculty workers, for all the Deans in the sampled Universities;
- A ranking of Deans' leadership performances in their own universities; and
- Implications of the results for higher education leadership development in Libya.

6.4 Conclusion

This chapter analysed the research results from both the interview of faculty deans and opinions of faculty staff regarding the deans' leadership performances. It was noted that deans predominantly practise what could be described as a Libyan perspective on shared and collective leadership mainly through the transformational and transactional leadership styles. The key findings from Part I are summarised as follows.

Firstly; Deans are generally academically qualified with PhD degrees in their chosen fields. They also have a wide range of administrative experiences. Secondly; the Deans understand their responsibilities to include typical roles expected of senior academic leaders in universities such as listed in Chapter 2 of this thesis on functions of Libyan higher education. These include excellence in teaching, research and community service.

The above understanding is linked to the fact that the Deans have powerful visions of where they like to take their faculties in the future which in addition to academic excellence includes effective development of the faculty staff. Deans use a wide range of motivating and communication strategies to mobilise faculty staff to contribute their best to achieving the faculty visions. These include personal appreciation, merit awards, financial rewards, direct and informal communication to and with staff such as make them feel valued.

In terms of their leadership styles, the Deans generally prefer transformational leadership style which is mixed with transactional leadership strategies to obtain maximal results from staff. The Deans mentioned that a number of constraints militate against their leadership effectiveness and performance, including limited training in leadership and management, lack of qualified staff, lack of enabling infrastructure, and issues of volatile tenures and socio-cultural influences.

Finally, Deans view the amelioration of these constraints as necessary for improvement of leadership effectiveness and performance in Libya. From the analysis of MLQ responses by staff carried out in Part II of the chapter, it was found that faculty staff also perceive the Deans' leadership styles as mainly transformational and transactional; they generally rate the Deans highly in terms of staff extra effort, leadership effectiveness, and staff satisfaction with their leadership. However, the performances of different Deans vary across the six leadership attributes explored through the MLQ survey.

The MLQ analysis was also drilled down to a ranking of the Deans according to the leadership, for all the sampled universities combined and individual universities. These rankings are potentially useful for self-evaluation of the Deans regarding how effective they are according to the evaluation of their staff, as well as for grouping Deans in possible leadership training, whereby low-performing Deans are enabled to learn from high-performing Deans in activities focused on enhancing performances on particular leadership attributes.

The results were also related to the research objectives and support the thesis of collective leadership as enacted through transformational and transactional leadership styles. In Chapter 7, the researcher uses the results to explore in more detail how faculty leadership in Libyan universities conforms to a leadership style which can be described as Collective Leadership, and how this model of leadership could contribute to higher education leadership development in Libya and similar Arab countries.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION OF KEY FINDINGS

7.1 Introduction

The analyses in Chapter 6 of this thesis (Deans of Faculties and Chancellors) reveal that the Libyan higher education system is, despite any constraints of man power and resources, best run on a style of leadership that seems to be a Libyan version of shared leadership which the researcher refers to as Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL). This leadership process was seen in Chapter 6 to involve transformational and transactional leadership styles practised in a more collective and family-oriented way by the Faculty Deans, in which university staff directly participate in decision making in universities and faculties through regular meetings of the People's Committees of the Universities and Faculties, and for which Deans inspire the staff to take fuller ownership of the issues involved, within a feeling of common ownership of results achieved and interest in the welfare of the staff themselves.

In LCL, Faculty Deans implement exactly the decisions agreed at the People's Committees of the faculties; hence, staff members have more influence on the future direction of the faculties and management staff members are personally closer to the individual situations facing the staff as a result of the Islamic culture of seeing people in Libya as one family. The LCL approach is democratic in the sense that Faculty Deans implement decisions which are reached by all faculty staff during meetings of the peoples' committees of the faculties; hence, faculty workers participate more fully in the leadership process. Since in traditional democratic leadership a Dean can consult with staff on faculty issues and implement related decisions, it can be argued that collective leadership is more democratic than traditional democratic leadership.

It is also worth noting that this form of collective leadership shares similar characteristics as other forms of shared leadership which are based on Gronn's concertive action and conjoint agency ideas (explored in Chapter 4 of the thesis), but it has some negative impacts. For example, as explained in Chapter 6 of this thesis, the fact that faculty staff and members of communities in which universities are located may expect faculty deans to meet their personal expectations, despite the regulatory constraints limiting the deans from doing so, is a challenge on the LCL process. It is expected that for this leadership model to be effective, deans should be able to manage these and other challenges to leadership success better. Hence, the researcher recalls the

following quote from Chapter 4 of the thesis which encapsulates the object of the discussion of the key findings in this chapter:

Libyan university deans and higher education leaders in general should be trained to excel in key traditional leadership skills which are drawn from a number of leadership practices, especially transformational , democratic, transactional, collaborative and distributive leadership styles, but in a way that uses their belongingness to the Islamic faith and culture to more deeply exhibit motivation, effective communication, consideration for workers, family feeling/environment and collective decision making.

Hence, the purpose of this chapter is to use the key findings from Chapter 6 to explicate the LCL idea as a working model of faculty leadership in Libyan public universities, and to show how it is linked to the analytical frameworks for leadership analysis discussed in Chapter 4, including traditional ‘collective leadership’ idea examined in the context of other shared leadership models in Figure 4.1. In other words, the LCL idea has been developed from the researcher’s analysis of the empirical evidence obtained from the interview responses of deans and senior university leadership and staff they manage which were analysed in Chapter 6 of the thesis.

In this chapter, combined evidence and ideas from the empirical data and the literature on leadership styles and characteristics is used to explicate what the LCL style of leadership means in the Libyan context.

The evidence base is also used to determine what factors in the opinion of the respondents promote or limit the effectiveness of this style of leadership. This is done within the framework of a visual schema that links the key leadership themes to the Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) style. This process is presented in Figure 7.1 below and informs discussions of related ideas in this chapter.

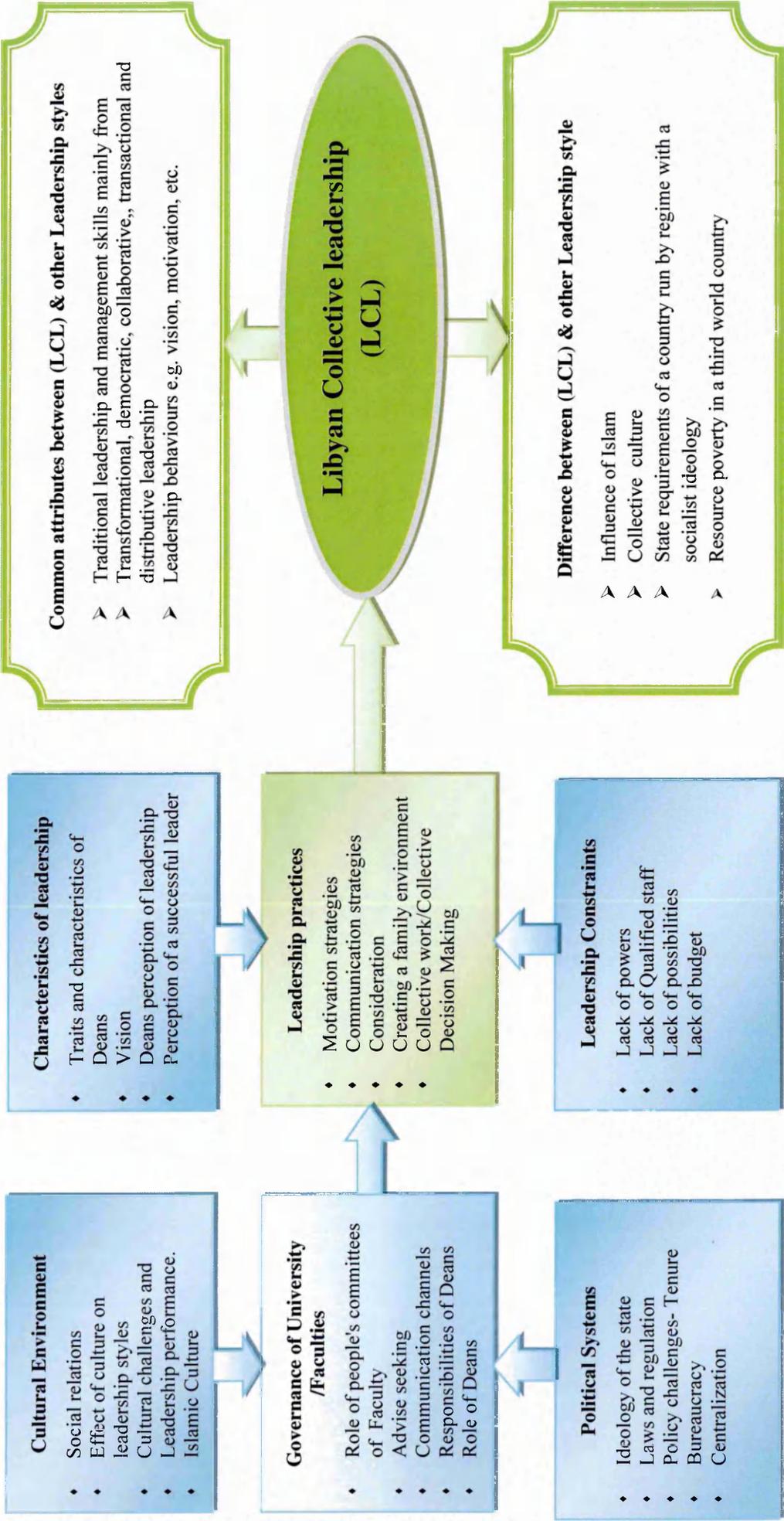


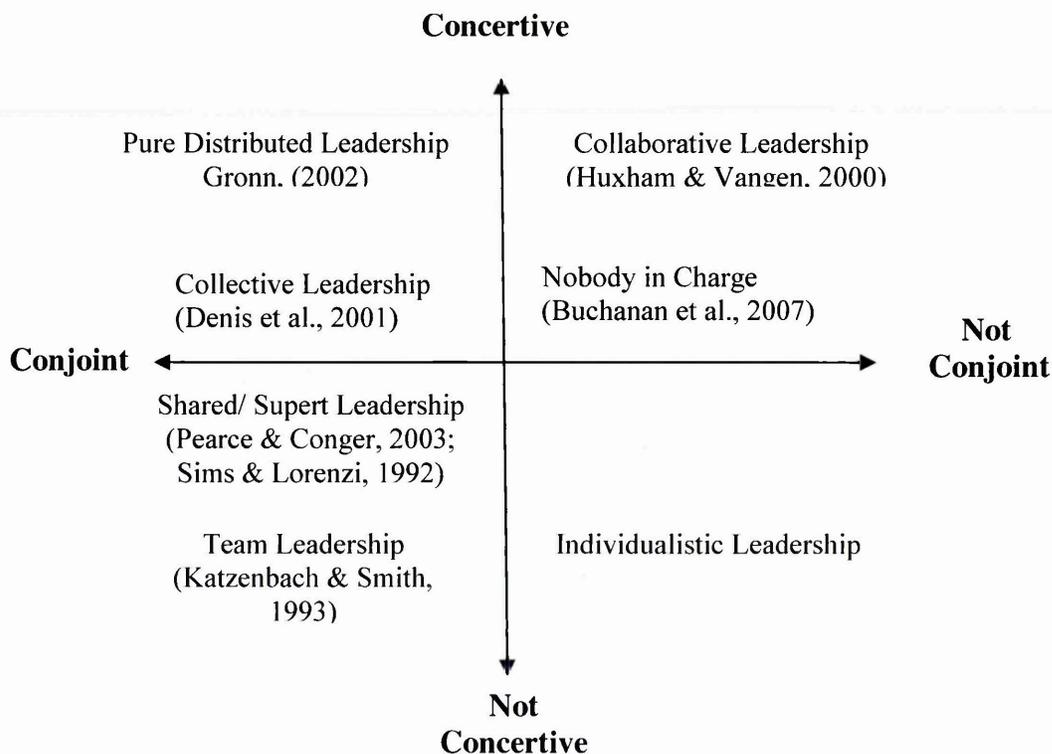
Figure 7-1: Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) process situated within Libyan socio-cultural contexts

7.2 Meanings of collective leadership in Western and Libyan contexts

In this section the researcher examines the meanings associated with collective leadership (CL) in both the traditional leadership literature and the Libyan context. Consequently, it relates the Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) concept, which is argued as a description of the leadership styles of Faculty Deans in Libya as examined in Chapter 6 of the thesis, to the traditional collective leadership concept. It is argued in this chapter that the CL style of leadership subsumes key features of other leadership styles or practices which resemble it more closely in character for example democratic, distributive, transactional, and transformational leadership, but within the Libyan context it is a deeper concept than these latter styles suggest, hence it is called the LCL.

7.2.1 Collective leadership in traditional leadership literature

The researcher reminds the reader that collective leadership in traditional leadership literature, which was examined in Chapters 3 and 4 of the thesis, is an aspect of shared leadership practices. Hence, the researcher refers the reader to Figure 4.1 of the thesis, which is recalled below for easy follow-through in this discussion:



The figure shows that collective leadership warrants a moderate degree of concertive action and conjoint agency which is similar to that associated with shared and super-leadership. It is mentioned in the leadership analysis in Chapter 4 based on the figure that concertive action and conjoint agency imply that these forms of leadership are spontaneously collaborative and involve an ‘alignment of leadership action across different people based on reciprocal influence’.

In particular, as mentioned in Chapter 4: the collective leadership aspect of shared leadership (see Denis et al., 2001) allows the effect of external factors such as externally imposed higher education and government policy on the enactment of DL in higher education. Consequently, context frames the interactions of leadership actors such as deans with faculty staff, rules, and learning facilities in the discharge of their leadership responsibilities. This view reiterates Spillane’s (2006) ideas earlier discussed in this literature. In other words, Spillane and co-authors suggest that executing change within complex organisations like universities requires a sharing of strategic roles with members of a ‘leadership constellation’ akin to ‘strategic distribution.

In this way, the constellation members work more harmoniously recognising that there is a limit to the potential with which each alone can drive the transformational change in a complex organisation with multiple roles, responsibilities, and expectations. In effect, “this, more collective leadership approach, assembles the necessary variety of skills, expertise and sources of influence and legitimacy” required to smooth the path of leadership. These ideas clearly apply to all organisations to different degrees, depending on the nature of rules and institutionalised practices which govern human interactions in the organisations.

For this study, it has been argued earlier in this review that faculty deans could deploy different forms of distribution of leadership (possibly power and influence) to different levels of faculty staff – heads of department, directors of research institutes, senior administrators, and so on. All in all, ‘collective’ leadership is not as top-down as pure DL, for instance. It is more bottom-up and democratic. The point to remember here is that ‘collective’ leadership by dint of its location nearer the middle of Figure 4.1 is flexible enough for a leader to mix appropriate degrees of concertive action and conjoint agency as leadership situations may demand.

The above points explain why faculty leadership in Libyan universities is basically collective, but it was mentioned above that the character of the LCL process is subtly different from this traditional meaning of CL. The key reasons for this include the pervasive influences of Libya's Islamic religion, collectivist national culture and socialist political ideology of the Ghaddafi regime (including the direct democracy approach to governance) on leadership activities in the country. Hence, the LCL process is an extension of shared and collective leadership ideas to accommodate these specific Libyan factors. The following notes clarify this point.

7.2.2 The meaning of the Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) concept

Collective leadership as revealed by the interview results and analysis for this research is a style of leadership in which there is a very deep sense of joint decision making among university staff, whereby key issues are discussed in typically bimonthly meetings in departments in what are called Peoples' Committees of the departments and faculties. The issues discussed in People's Committees of the faculties lead to agreements of what lines of action to take. These collectively agreed actions are then implemented by the respective Secretaries of the People's Committees of the departments (HODs) under the supervision of the Secretaries of the Peoples' Committees of the Faculties¹⁸.

The essential feature of this leadership style is that there is a family feeling in the way issues are discussed; this breeds a sense of trust, love and co-ownership of the goals of the university by all staff. Family feeling here refers to the fact that university staff are made to feel as if their work is important for the collective welfare of all members of the faculties who are a family unit, albeit in an educational as opposed to normal family contexts. This family feeling also means that Deans are particularly concerned with the individual staff situations in the way they run the faculties. The following typical opinions from the research survey in Chapter 6 illuminate this point more clearly:

'I always use a clear style of leadership ... and I noticed that all staff work vigorously because I made them feel as if the institution is part of their life and we are all brothers and sisters in this institution as a family, to the extent that a staff told me one day that he respects me and that I just made

¹⁸ The Secretaries of the Peoples' Committees of the Faculties is Faculty Dean

him and whole staff (through my fair treatment) to actively work from his heart.’ (Dean S)

This shows that there are fundamental values that underpin collective leadership such as fairness, trust, creating a family environment, and commitment. From the results in Chapter 6 the following extracts demonstrate some of the key terms that define the character of Collective Leadership:

- ♦ *‘The leadership we have in educational institutions, faculties and universities [is] based on the principle of collective leadership’, (Chancellor II)*
- ♦ *‘... you have to have a sense of responsibility, must always be firm; and implement a policy of ‘Maaouya’, which according to the first Khalifa of the Umayyad dynasty means that ‘between me and the people is a piece of hair’ (Dean FT).*
- ♦ *‘... All of this is to make team work environment more collective and of mutual respect. In other words, work as family, and this is what is known as the collective leadership’ (Dean J)*
- ♦ *‘The second issue is that when everyone participates and shares his opinion to solve problems, it is clear that everyone has got the feeling that this problem belongs to him or her, because it is in front of him and it requires him to participate in the resolution. This is the collective work’ (Dean J)*
- ♦ *‘I see the first style [of leadership out of a list of four styles in the survey] expresses collective leadership and this is exactly what I practice and it is the main part of my job. I do not take any decisions in behalf of any department if the head of department is available, also the general policies for the Faculty are set in agreement with the heads of department in the faculty during the scheduled periodical meetings, I give every head of the department the appropriate authorities in his department and I follow him to make sure that he executes them. This is known as the collective leadership’ (Dean B).*

These quotes show, respectively, that: collective leadership is embedded in the Libyan system; facilitates deep closeness between leaders and the staff; connotes key leadership values of team work, mutual respect, and family feeling; co-ownership of problems, participation and voice in decision making; and also embodies such leadership styles as delegation of authority, planning and execution.

These are just excerpts from a few of the survey responses that distil the essence of collective leadership; the reader will encounter further details in other accounts of the survey results about the Perceived Leaderships styles of Faculty Deans in Libyan public Universities under the different sections of this chapter below.

In summary, below are the two styles of leadership that almost all the respondents identified as close to their approach to leadership. These leadership styles particularly delineate collective leadership.

Style 1

Leadership that expands the interests of the staff, generates awareness and acceptance of goals and tasks, and stirs the staff to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the faculty community (*Transformational Leadership*)

Style 2

Leadership that emphasizes corrective actions, mutual exchanges and rewards only when performance expectations are met (*Transactional Leadership*).

As discussed in Chapter 4, transformational and transactional leadership styles are part of an effective leadership continuum in which transformational leadership behaviours are used to raise followers' perceived values of needs and goals following attainment of certain levels of transactional performance (Burns, 1978 and Yukl, 2010). Hence, to the extent that university staff need to perform stated duties commensurate with their ranks and abilities, Faculty Deans in Libyan universities correct and reward staff in their day-to-day performance of these duties.

Thus, transactional leadership is basic to faculty leadership in Libyan universities as captured in Style 2, but Style 1 enables deans who adhere to it to go beyond just getting staff to perform stated duties to motivating them to give their utmost best to the good of the faculty. This way, deans can influence staff to make self-sacrifices, commit to difficult objectives, and achieve more than originally planned for (Yukl, 1999, p. 286). Yukl (2010) also argues that this leadership style truly elevates the performance of both leaders and followers who in this educational context include deans and faculty staff.

The research evidence from Chapter 6 of this thesis shows that out of four styles discussed with them during the research interviews, Faculty Deans in Libyan universities in their practice of collective leadership identify the above two leadership styles primarily as closer to their personal leadership styles. Some of the Deans state

clearly that they use a combination of the two styles and relatively few indicate that they use mainly the second style.

In light of ideas explored in Chapter 4 regarding these two leadership styles, transformational leadership is justifiably popular since it ‘moves followers to accomplish more than what is usually expected of them’ (Avolio et al., 1991; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Northouse, 2004); enhances followers’ sense of self-actualisation and worthwhileness of their achievements of organisational goals (House et al., 2004); and achieves these gains in an environment of warmth and trust (Bass, 1990). These attributes of transformational leadership explain why collective leadership practices, which in the opinions of Faculty Deans encompass transformational leadership at the core, are potentially effective in producing effective leadership of Libyan universities. This effectiveness will be enhanced further if other limiting factors explored in this chapter are addressed with a view to mitigating the constraints they place on university leadership in Libya.

It is further noted in Yukl (1999) that transformational leadership hinges on individualized consideration and inspirational motivation. This is why the framing of Style I above includes such terms as ‘expands the interests of staff’ and ‘stirs [motivates] staff to look beyond self-interest’. In contrast, transactional leadership does not go that deep in stimulating followers’ commitment since the associated contingent reward behaviour is more passive than emotions of trust and family feeling evoked by transformational leadership. It is, therefore, interesting that Libyan university deans are more strongly attracted to transformational leadership in the leadership of their faculties (Yukl, 1999. p. 287).

In summary, Libyan collective leadership (LCL) when viewed through the lenses of these styles embodies focused motivation of staff to give of their best to the service of the faculty and is considerate of the welfare of staff. It also implies effective performance management and application of stipulated rules in rewarding and sanctioning staff for their conduct. Thus it captures the instincts of other leadership styles such as transactional and transformational leadership as the researcher explains in subsequent discussions in this chapter.

The above remarks provoke a question as to what makes it different from, say, democratic and distributive leadership (Spillane, 2006; Buchanan et al., 2007). Whereas democratic leadership in the Western context requires a dean to run a faculty in consultation with key staff for example heads of departments, the deans can take decisions on their own, but in collective leadership in the Libyan context the decisions must be agreed collectively through the departmental and faculty meetings.

As discussed in some detail in Chapter 2 of the thesis, this is a deeper and more direct shade of democratic leadership than Western concepts of democracy. It is reinforced by the socio-cultural and political environments of Libya post-1969 and enhances employee voice and deliberative legitimacy in leadership (Dundon et al. 2004; Fishkin, 2009; Dryzek 2012).

The researcher therefore notes that the emerging concept of Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) in this chapter is not a completely new idea since similar concepts of leadership exist in the literature for example 'democratic leadership' and 'collective leadership'. But as contextualized in Libya by the political systems and cultural environment, the LCL model depicted in Figure 7.1 connotes a deeper shade of democratic leadership in which individual workers have more say in faculty governance, through meetings of the appropriate People's Committees. Thus, whereas in Western leadership contexts deans are deemed democratic in so far as they lead by consultation (and can take decisions as they deem fit), in Libyan Collective Leadership, as revealed in this study, Deans only implement what the People's Committees agree to.

In effect, the degree of freedom to lead is somewhat reduced in the CL model, and interestingly provokes thoughts as to how the model should be played out in order to more effectively address the core goals of higher education through innovative research, teaching and community service. This is why in this chapter ideas are drawn from the literature on leadership theory and practices overall as well as deans' perceived leadership styles, in order to explicate the LCL model.

7.3 The value of the LCL process to other researchers

As noted earlier in this chapter, the LCL model derives from the perceived leadership styles and practices of Deans in Libyan universities which were discussed in Chapter 6

of the thesis. The primary value of the model to other researchers is that, given the pervasive nature of the literature on leadership overall and educational leadership in particular, it brings together visually the key points which underpin the way educational leadership in Libyan universities is enacted, at least from the opinions of Faculty Deans. The model particularly surfaces the issues which shared and family-oriented leadership in Libyan universities has to grapple with, as it aims to achieve the key goals of higher education summarised in Chapter 2 of the thesis. For example, we recall the following ideas from Chapter 2:

'A successful university in Libya requires effective leadership that supports innovation, learning, creativity, and utilizes the maximum potentials of its leaders. universities ultimately vest in individuals with whom successful leadership will motivate, develop, and focus on the global trends of convergent social, cultural and organizational change' (Document from General People's Committee for Higher Education¹⁹).

This statement simply indicates that effective leadership in Libyan universities is expected to attain such key goals as innovation, creativity, maximization of the leaders' human potential, and fittingness with global trends conducive to transformation of the universities, to enable them produce excellent graduates.

The idea of collective leadership and its links to core leadership constructs such as democratic leadership, consideration for the individual, and the running of faculties and universities as families, coherent with Islamic tenets of equality amongst human beings, is the central point of this chapter. For instance, as mentioned by the Deans in the interviews, they do not have to run faculties with some form of concentration of powers, which could prove useful when strategic decisions have to be quickly taken and pursued in order to achieve stated goals. They rather have to secure the agreement of all faculty members on vital issues of faculty development through people's committees. This shows that collective leadership has pros and cons and needs continuing improvement through research and effective practice in order to support the above goals.

This example shows the benefit of having a visual model that:

- Explains the different aspects of leadership theory and constructs which conduce to Collective leadership as witnessed in Libyan universities;

¹⁹ *General People's Committee for Higher Education = Ministry of Higher Education*

- Recognises the perceived challenges involved; and
- The pathways for making collective leadership more effective.

That said, there is a limit to which all intriguing aspects of leadership theory and practice reviewed in the literature as pertinent to collective leadership can be captured in one visual representation such as Figure 7.1. Hence, the researcher presents the key facets of the model visually, as shown in Figure 7.1, and expands on the model textually within the discourse of this chapter.

7.4 Aspects of the LCL process (Figure 7.1)

In this section the researcher examines key aspects of the LCL model in more detail and relates them to both the findings in Chapter 6 and the literature in Chapters 3& 4.

7.4.1 Key aspects of the LCL model

The researcher first briefly explains the key dimensions of the LCL leadership style or process as depicted in Figure 7.1. As revealed by the arrows and looking at the model elements horizontally, the second row of elements shows that collective leadership is a culmination of received *leadership practices* which are contextualized by the rules setting out the *governance of universities and faculties*.

The core constructs of the leadership practices include: motivation strategies, communication strategies, consideration, creating a family environment, collective work and collective decision making. This is the essential character of the LCL process described in this thesis. The story is not that simple, however, since the contributing contexts to this concept of leadership, as portrayed in the arrows feeding into this second row from the sides, are also explored. These broadly include the:

- Cultural environment;
- Governance of universities and faculties;
- Over-arching political systems;
- Leadership characteristics; and
- Leadership constraints.

7.5 Relationship between LCL and other styles of leadership

The third column of elements captured in Figure 7.1 lists out common attributes and differences between the LCL process and other styles of leadership examined in the literature. Recall that these attributes and differences have been discussed in some detail in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 of the thesis, especially within the Libyan context. Hence, the purpose of showing them in the figure is to focus the character of LCL which is such that it accommodates general leadership practices explored in the literature differentiated by the influence of key features of Libya – influence of Islam, collectivist culture, socialist political governance, and resource poverty in a third world company.

The common attributes include traditional leadership and management skills which can be enacted through transformational, transactional, democratic, collaborative, and distributive leadership practices, and leadership behaviours such as vision setting and motivation. All these aspects of practical leadership are examined in Chapter 2 and the literature, and particularly related to the Libyan higher education context as will be further amplified in this chapter.

It is seen, for example, in Chapter 6 that the Deans combine transformational and transactional leadership styles in the way they lead the faculties. Hence, the idea of exploring the LCL process of Figure 7.1 in this chapter is not to see it as a completely different style of leadership compared to traditional leadership styles, but to understand in what ways it accommodates such perspectives of leadership discussed in the literature within the particular socio-cultural contexts of Libya.

As noted above, these subtly different perspectives are listed in the second group of elements in the third column to include the influences of Islam, the collectivist cultures of Libya, state requirements of a country run by a regime with a socialist ideology, and resource poverty in a third world country. Among these influences, the two main differences between LCL and other leadership styles are the Islamic religion and the collectivist culture of Libya.

In a nutshell, the LCL process can be conceived of as framed by the following three key elements:

- Features of Libya as developing country with a socialist political ideology;
- The underpinning leadership practices including transformational and transactional leadership styles; and
- The influence of Islam and collectivist national culture of Libya.

7.6 Link between LCL, transformational and transactional leadership ideas

It is noted in the literature review that '*Leadership in the field of education has had a long and ambivalent relationship with the world of business management and education institutions embrace business leadership techniques*', Halinger and Snidovry (2005). This reality applies forcefully to Libyan higher education in which leadership attempts to meet the specific contexts outlined above and also to get the business of faculty management done. The implication of this reality therefore is that leadership development using the LCL process in Figure 7.1 as a canvass will have to train the Deans in the transactional processes of managing faculty and university enterprises in addition to the ability to empathise with the staff in many ways. This interestingly positions LCL as a much more holistic leadership approach compared to other modes of leadership for example democratic leadership. This is why it is argued that Collective Leadership is intrinsically more nuanced than democratic leadership even if the instincts of this latter mode of leadership are core to LCL.

The reason for having deans become skilled in or at least become aware of business management tools and techniques, even if professional experts will carry out these functions, is simply because in modern times educational institutions produce knowledge that stakeholders could pay for, be they internal stakeholders such as students and other faculty members or external clients (through consulting and community service). Hence, they are inherently businesses, albeit with a key social mission to educate the minds of students, not mainly for-profit.

Table 4.2 of this thesis and the discussion following it summarise the character of LCL such that combining Figure 7.1 with this table provides the key aspects of faculty and

university leadership in Libya which this research has found out. The said character of the LCL practices is explained in column 3 of Table 4.2 entitled Libyan leadership Perspectives. The researcher is therefore referred to the table and enjoined to see the LCL process as a process that consists of the leadership elements and influences schematized in Figure 7.1 and the manner the LCL process is enacted in Libya as shown in Table 4.2 (Column 3).

Hence, as shown on Table 4.2, the primary aspects of the LCL approach include: the power-influence dynamics, servant-leader approach, transformational and transactional leadership styles, trait approach, collectivist national culture of Libya, and Libyan political system, which are all influenced by the Islamic religion of the country.

7.7 Detailed discussion of the different aspects of the LCL process

7.7.1 Leadership practices

It is noted above that the leadership practices part of Figure 7.1 is the hub around which collective leadership is based, since these practices actually define the essence of collective leadership. In other words, two Faculty Deans will manifest different degrees of collective leadership according as they deeply enact or fail to enact those practices which characterise collective leadership, for examples being empathic of staff situations and democratic in leading workers on ideas and tasks.

7.7.1.1 Motivation strategies

As found in Chapter 6 of the thesis, the motivation strategies used by Deans include:

- a) Working with staff in a spirit of brotherhood;
- b) Creating in staff a deep sense of collective ownership;
- c) Awarding staff certificates of appreciation;
- d) Giving them letters of appreciation;
- e) Mentioning the staff achievements in meetings;
- f) Rewarding exceptional performances financially;
- g) Discussing issues with staff irrespective of their ranks; and
- h) Offering staff opportunities for a training course.

Hence, the LCL process requires a good mix of rewards, motivation and involvement in order to instil a deep sense of loyalty in faculty staff. A reference to the base leadership literature in Chapter 3 of this thesis shows that some motivation strategies and contingent rewards cut across many approaches to leadership and that motivation strategies underpin successful leadership including such components as influence, context and goal attainment (Northouse, 2010; Yukl, 2010; Davies et al., 1990; West and Ainscow 1991). This is because good motivation strategies may overcome in-built contextual constraints in getting staff to achieve set targets. For example in resource-poor environments like Libya in some respects, Deans may motivate staff so well that they work hard enough to achieve results despite lack of adequate resources.

Naturally, motivation strategies which reinforce the collective spirit of faculty workers, for example the family feeling of oneness, are more likely to move staff to go beyond narrow self-interests in doing university work more diligently. Such motivation strategies would seem to be those which show concern for personal and professional growth of workers e.g. items (f) and (g) above. These strategies, if well-mixed with the other strategies as appropriate for different situations, will enlarge a Dean's repertoire of choices in effectively mobilising staff to excel in their duties. What is learnt from the research results, therefore, in terms of motivation and reward is that Deans could be brought to learn about these ranges of strategies and how well they work for those who use them, in order to rightfully flex their use in their own leadership practices.

To some extent, a Dean's preparedness to use these strategies reflects their leadership values and the meanings they attach to those values in their personal relationships with staff, since motivation is a subjective phenomenon of regard and appreciation for workers' achievements expressed tangibly through the above strategies (Beare et al., 1997, p. 25). In this thesis, as foreshadowed in the introduction to this chapter, it is expected that these personal values and relationships are influenced by such socio-cultural and political contexts as the Islamic faith, post-1969 socialist ideologies which inform the Peoples' Committees approach to university and national governance, and the availability or otherwise of resources with which to effectuate the motivations. Again, having a good range of strategies enables deans to shape worker performances in line with these contexts.

It can be argued that, albeit to different degrees, motivation strategies and contingent reward cut across different leadership approaches ranging from Great Man Theory approach to power-influence approach. For a leader's 'greatness' in the former approach encompasses greatness related to ascribing to themselves most of the success of their organisations or greatness achieved through populist use of motivation and reward to spur staff to create the ascribed success in the first place. Also, motivation and reward are even more manifestly related to the power-influence approach to leadership, since they are the principal pathways for exercising such power and influence on workers. The same reasoning applies to the other leadership approaches (trait, situational, behavioural and path-goal approaches) explored by several writers in the literature (Bass, 1990; Bennis & Joan, 2010; Gill, 2006; Northouse, 2010; Blanchard, 2009; Yukl, 2006; Wright, 1996), among others.

A reasonable conclusion to make in the context of the above findings is that Faculty Deans appear to use the revealed motivation and reward strategies interestingly more within the relatively empowering leadership approaches other than the Great Man Theory approach. This conclusion derives especially from the socialist ideological and Islamic influences which compel leaders to be rather humble about their achievements and work towards collective empowerment of the workforce (Chowdbury, 2002).

In sum, when Stogdill & Bass (1990) notes that efforts to find common traits that would guarantee leadership success failed, it is clear that in their practice of collective leadership Faculty Deans would be better placed to use different strategies as situation demands in motivating and rewarding their staff.

In a nutshell, motivation as viewed through the CL and LCL lenses are not essentially different since it is part of the basic leadership concepts which underpin these leadership practices.

7.7.1.2 Communication strategies

Typical responses from Deans regarding their communication strategies were:

'The advice can be through periodic meetings of the faculty members who represent the heads of the academic departments, and the secretariats of the services sectors. During these meetings, any complaints or uncertainties are raised and discussed in order to be decided and approved by all members. In other words, during these meetings all issues related to the faculty are discussed and the faculty's strategies are also set and agreed by all members (Dean H)

However, if the issue to be discussed concerns a specific matter, I discuss this matter with the person in charge or with the specific sector. For example, if a matter concerns zoology department, I discuss this issue with the head of zoology department, and if we find that this complaint requires taking a decision, then this issue is raised in the faculty meeting for taking the right decision' (Dean G).

The above quote shows that Deans really seek advice through meetings at various levels in the faculty which is a key feature of the LCL process under the University Governance set of ideas described below. The Deans also use different channels of communication e.g. with students in order to assess their needs and learning experiences and non-academic staff. Also, the communication could be rather informal or formal in keeping with the family approach, hence the statements:

'I follow the policy of consulting students as groups in an indirect way to understand what is going on: what they like what they don't, what is good and what is bad... how they feel about the performance of the faculty in general. How they evaluate the services at the faculty and what they hope for' (Dean C)

'Mostly I communicate with a kind of intimacy and friendly manner, only rarely I use the official (formal) approach' (Dean N).

The author reflects on the links between leadership literature, the above mentioned Deans' decision making strategies, related leadership elements discussed below such as consideration, creating a family environment, under the over-arching elements 'collective work and collective decision making' to which they belong. In this reflection it will be seen that collective decision making is, just as it is liberally called, the essence of Collective Leadership.

In terms of the link between LCL and general leadership perceptions of communication, there is the common ground of need for Faculty Deans to communicate effectively to staff the vision of the faculty and what is expected of them in order to actualise the vision (Owen, 2009). However, as shown in the above quotes, there is some more depth to the kind of intimate, family-oriented communication (both formal and informal) in the LCL process compared to general motivational strategies in traditional leadership theory.

7.7.1.3 Consideration, creating a family environment and collective decision making

This has been explained above as a practice whereby leaders show strong interest in the welfare of staff. It involves dialogue not dictating in decision making and is surfaced in Style 1 leadership above. It connotes such emotions as family feeling, reward and motivation, brotherhood, and responsibility for others.

As noted earlier, creating a family environment is a core value of the LCL process. Again it signifies oneness through Allah, equality and fairness, love, consideration, co-ownership of issues and decisions, and collective action or team work. It is deeper than mere responsibility for tasks and motivates staff to see faculty duties as similar to their home duties.

Collective work and collective decision making are also central to the LCL process and have been explained above as well and are more piquantly captured in the following quotes:

- ♦ *'The second issue is that when everyone participates and shares his opinion to solve problems, it is clear that everyone has got the feeling that this problem belongs to him or her, because it is in front of him and it requires him to participate in the resolution. This is the collective work' (Dean D)*
- ♦ *'.....during these meetings all issues related to the faculty are discussed and the faculty's strategies are also set and agreed by all members' (Dean H)*

As noted above, collective decision making and collective work constitute the essence of Collective Leadership and it has been explained in Chapter 2 that these leadership elements are reinforced by the Peoples' Committees approach to faculty decision making which gives a stronger voice to workers, more than is possible in related

leadership styles for examples democratic and distributed leadership approaches. Collective decision making basically includes democratic, collaborative and distributed leadership styles, but it transcends them in the way it implements plans that are collectively agreed by all staff through appropriate Peoples' Committees.

Leadership literature such as examined in Chapter 3 of this thesis shows that by being democratic, collaborative and distributive in character, collective leadership is simultaneously participative, evokes trust, team spirit, delegates authority to appropriately qualified staff, is consequently a good basis for systematic and inclusive change that benefits all staff, and shares learning, organizational skills and sustainable progress throughout the university (Northouse, 2012; Flecknoe, 2006; Fink & Hargreaves, 2006; and Spillane, 2006).

The basis of all these traditional characteristics of collective leadership as derived from these three leadership styles is the ability of Deans to forge effective formal and personal relationships with faculty staff in a way that makes the best of existing and emerging organizational situations (Spillane, 2006). To this extent, effective collective leadership entails an even deeper level of trust and connectedness in the way Deans and faculty workers conceive of faculty and university business as personal targets to attain, and empathy or consideration for the welfare of staff themselves. Hence, a sense of familial ownership of set objectives permeates the leadership atmosphere in a collective leadership environment.

It has been mentioned that this family feeling is reinforced by situational and socio-cultural contexts such as the Islamic consciousness that underpins life in Libya as well as the socialist ideology facilitated by the dictates of political life in Libya mandated by the Green Book ideas post-1969.

In a nutshell, the researcher agrees with the view that a combination of leadership styles – transformational, transactional, democratic, collaborative and distributed styles – confers on leaders more freedom, responsibility and authority to produce effective and sustainable leadership results (Bolman & Deal, 1997). Since Libyan Collective Leadership subsumes and transcends these different styles, it follows that Faculty Deans in Libya are in a strong position to produce such leadership results in their faculties, especially if they are able to overcome some of the drawbacks of this leadership style,

an example of which is unreasonable expectation on the part of Libyans that Deans could find ways to help them personally despite what the University Governance rules allow.

7.7.2 Characteristics of leadership

7.7.2.1 Traits and characteristics of leadership

A look at the LCL model in Figure 7.1 shows that leadership characteristics and constraints directly affect leadership practices. This follows from the fact that deans' characteristics such as vision, perceptions of leadership, and perceptions of a successful leader are fundamental to the way different deans produce leadership results, successfully or unsuccessfully.

Similarly, leadership constraints limit the capacities of even a very capable, visionary and perceptive leader from achieving targeted faculty goals to the extent they would have waned to if such constraints do not exist or are not too severe.

Hence, it is important to examine these aspects of leadership within the LCL process in order to further delineate the character of collective leadership which emerges from the research results in Chapter 6 of this thesis. This sub-section dwells on the leadership characteristics while the next examines the constraints.

The following key characteristics of leadership are revealed from the Deans' interview responses in answer to the question: *'What are your perceptions regarding the characteristics of effective leaders?'*

- Wide vision; setting specific objectives; patience; allocating reasonable time frames for programs to achieve set objectives; not being dictatorial; capable of dialogue; humility in giving up own ideas in preference for better ideas; firmness and flexibility as appropriate (Deans IAC)(Chancellor II)
- Sense of responsibility; trustworthiness; flexibility; firmness (Deans MFQ)
- Being ambitious; being realistic; not arrogant; flexible and tolerant with excellent manner; should be distinguished (expert) in something; humility and respect for others; responsibility; should maintain a relationship of brotherhood instead of boss to employee; should therefore inspire love and trust (Dean BEK)(Chancellor I)

- Personal traits (*'I think that the process of leadership comes from the person himself'*); ...should pursue excellence as dictated by the Islamic religion;...must honest (Deans MJP)
- Should be open-minded; be able to accept criticism; have high level of awareness and understanding (Deans DO)
- Good role model ('Should be good example for others'); be qualified for the position (Deans IE)
- Should be democratic and practice collective leadership; persistence and rigour; love/passion for his work; faithful, sincere; honest and trustworthy; strict and disciplined (Deans NST)
- Should maintain positive spirit at all levels; share responsibilities (delegation/democracy); experience and wisdom; should be seen as the head for the family; be responsible for executing agreed plans (Deans KLS)
- Should be collaborative and collective; adequately qualified (Deans CGIM)
- Resilience and resoluteness; flexibility; good communication skills; have respect for others (Deans AJ)

The above adjectives and words summarise the characteristics revealed in the survey responses across all the sampled universities. They clearly accommodate all the personal traits suggested by the literature on leadership styles and characteristics in Chapters 3 and 4. They also reinforce the centrality of the principle of collective leadership in Libya through such terms as 'head of family', 'brotherhood', and 'love', which may be too strong if used in Western context of leadership. The researcher elaborates on these theoretical links in the following points.

The researcher notes that leadership characteristics underpin leadership theory and practices in different contexts including leadership approaches, styles, and behaviours. Hence, most aspects of the literature reviewed in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 apply to this aspect of the LCL in some ways. These include key concepts examined in Table 4.1 such as sense of belonging, less emphasis on individualism, and friendship (Edwards, 2011).

Similar useful leadership concepts which are related to leadership characteristics are explored in Table 4.2 which delineates the Libyan perspectives on leadership even more directly applicable to the LCL ideas discussed in this chapter. These perspectives include non-centralisation of power and authority, servant-leader approach, transformational and transactional strategies, and family-oriented approach (Sweedan, 2000; Al-Buraey, 1985; Atari, 2000; Chowdbury, 2001; Beekub and Badawi, 1999; Ahmad, 2002; Bangash, 2000; Bass, 1985, 1990; hoestede, 2004; Hofstede et al., 2010).

7.7.2.2 Vision

Vision is a key theme in leadership practice generally, as it is in collective leadership. Clearly an effective leader who hopes to use a range of leadership practices must have a good and sufficiently powerful vision of where they want the organization to be in the future. In case of the faculty deans this requires a vision of where a faculty should be, given where it is now, also given the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats for/to achieving the vision in the local and national Libyan, as well as international higher education contexts.

The vision is in effect a summary of the core strategy or main goal which focuses all faculty activities in a specified planning horizon, say, five to ten years from now. This is why having a vision is vital for the Deans and therefore relevant to the LCL model discussed in this chapter. In a sense, a faculty dean needs to properly delineate and communicate their vision of the future of the faculty to workers in an empowering way and it is hoped that the collective approach to leadership if effectively practised by the dean will accentuate this empowerment and galvanize staff to excel in their work. This is because staff are more deeply motivated to own the vision as their personal visions of the future of the faculty.

The following typical responses were obtained from the Deans in answer to the question: *What is your vision of the faculty (or university)?*

- To see always University (A) in the top of all Libyan universities; with outstanding students; and effective Professors (Chancellor I / Deans JK).
- To continually improve overall performance of the University within the resources available (Deans RS).

- To be a reference point for all faculties of Arts in Libya (Dean K).
- To make the University an ideal in terms of quality output with skills that fit the job market; train young faculty in the best universities in the world; and build excellent facilities (Chancellor II/ Dean Q).
- To produce top quality graduates who are deeply skilled in both theory and practice and can play a major role in society (Deans BCDE).

These sample vision statements show that the leaders are impassioned to drive Libyan universities to both national and global excellence as is characteristic of effective leadership in other contexts.

A look at item a) in the general leadership characteristics presented above shows that to actualize these visions, the Deans need effective execution skills such as goal setting, strategic planning, firmness and flexibility. In effect, they need to lead and manage effectively. These skills will help the Deans to use the visions as a canvass for transforming the faculties, by aligning the behaviour, values, needs and motivations of workers with this vision, thereby making them more creative, self-directing and highly responsible for their roles in the faculty (Avolio et al., 1991; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Bass, 1985,1990; Yukl, 2002; and Northouse, 2010).

The contribution of effective vision framing to an understanding of the collective leadership concept is that even more so than in traditional leadership models, faculty Deans need skills for collegially agreeing motivating visions with faculty workers, so as to deeply motivate their follow-through on plans devised for realizing the visions. The Deans will be more likely to succeed in this task when their leadership practices are intrinsically democratic, transformational, collaborative and distributive, as argued earlier in this chapter.

7.7.2.3 Deans' perceptions of leadership and successful leaders

These perceptions are effectively accommodated in the above traits and characteristics of leadership and as noted above reflect core characteristics of effective leadership discussed in the literature. These characteristics are sometimes common to all leadership styles e.g. execution for success, motivation and drive, good planning, team work, effective and communication.

The implications of all these notes so far is that collective leadership as practised by Faculty Deans in Libyan universities could combine characteristics found in other leadership styles, mainly democratic, transformational, transactional, collaborative and distributed styles as argued above, but enacts these in a family environment which gives full scope for all staff to share in the decision making on key issues.

Based on insights from leadership literature, faculty deans will succeed more in their leadership practices depending on: how helpful for collective leadership their perception is; how empowering their visions are (Avolio et al., 1991; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Bass, 1985, 1990; Yukl, 2002; and Northouse, 2013); how transformational, democratic, collaborative and distributive their perceptions and related characteristics summarised in a-j) above are (Northouse, 2013; Flecknoe, 2006; Fink & Hargreaves, 2006; Bolman & Deal, 1999; and Spillane, 2006).

In a sense, for collective leadership to succeed even more in Libya, deans and other leaders should imbibe the above traditional skills of good leadership and management and reinforce the skills with collective leadership values such as empathic, democratic, and collective decision making. Indeed, the nature of characteristics a) – j) above suggests that these values are present in the perceptions and leadership practices of the faculty deans surveyed.

7.8 Contextual Influences on Libyan Collective Leadership

The researcher views the influences on collective leadership as regards the factors that promote or limit its effectiveness in two perspectives: a) factors that enable leaders (VCs, Deans, HODs, Directors) to mobilize staff to achieve their maximal performance in the conduct of their duties as implied by the leadership styles and characteristics; and b) the enabling or disabling environments and constraints which if resolved will enhance leadership performance.

Having dwelt on the first set of positive factors, the following sections deal with other influences such as university governance, leadership constraints, political and cultural environments of Libya which contextualise the practice of collective leadership.

7.8.1 Governance of University/Faculties

The researcher summarises the insights from the survey results on this factor from Chapter 6 under the following headings.

- ◆ Role of people's committees
- ◆ Advise seeking
- ◆ Communication channels
- ◆ Responsibilities and roles of Deans.

It has been explained in the foregoing notes that the People's Committees of departments meet sometimes twice a month to discuss issues which are then taken up at the People's Committees of the faculties so that action points are collectively agreed and implemented through the usual lines of authority.

It is also explained that Deans seek advice from HODs, and Directors and from all staff through formal committee meetings and informal one-to-one meetings with staff. The idea again is to carry every one along in the leadership and management of the faculty.

In the same vein, the different communication channels are used by the deans to relate with faculty workers such as through their HODs and Directors or privately. The spirit of these actions is oneness and family feeling even when staff are disciplined in accordance with the rules.

In terms of responsibilities and roles of Deans, the following facts were noted: *Administrative and technical leadership of faculties; delegation of duties to HODs and Directors, ensuring that top quality graduates are produced, maintaining faculty-community-industry linkages; representing the faculties externally; and forging (international) collaborations with other faculties within and outside Libya.*

Again, these are traditional leadership roles which exist in all universities in the world, and they actually require adequate provision of resources for success to be realized. The next section looks at some of the constraints that can limit the achievement of these goals.

7.8.2 Leadership constraints

In this section, by Leadership Constraints the researcher means all these factors which negatively affect the success of higher education leadership in Libya. The constraints indicated by the Deans in Chapter 6 of the thesis are listed as follows:

Poor infrastructure; lack of qualified staff; inadequate funding; cultural challenges (cultural factor); volatility of legislation (political factor); large number of students compared to number of teachers; many teachers having master's degrees with huge resource pressures when they go on study leave for their PhD research; poor infrastructural facilities (lecture theatres, laboratories, libraries); no Internet coverage; lack of leadership training; and centralization of resources at top levels e.g. VCs and Peoples Committee of Higher Education, thereby starving Deans and HODs of basic funds to run their units.

These constraints limit the effectiveness of collective leadership in promoting excellence in university research, teaching and community service. The constraints are easily summarised under the following main headings:

- Lack of powers, qualified staff, possibilities (resources), and budget.

In the opinions of respondents as explored in Chapter 6, Deans and VCs feel that Collective Leadership is itself impressive as a leadership style but their leadership effectiveness is constrained by these lacks of resources and authority to deliver their goals. In order therefore for university leadership to succeed even more these constraints should be unblocked.

Hence, faculty leaders who understand how to lead collectively could engage workers more effectively for better personal and professional development as well as deal more effectively with their cases for resources to fulfil faculty developmental targets. The above ideas indicate the pervasive influence of resource poverty in limiting the success of collective leadership as argued in the literature review Beekun & Badawi (1999). See Chapter 4, the section on *Leadership and resource poverty in a third world country*, where it is noted that these challenges

'Mean that Faculty Deans in their practice of collective leadership in Libya may benefit from training in skills that will enhance their capacities to attract to and effectively manage resources in the faculties. These skills include personal winning

and negotiation skills for making better cases for funding from senior leadership of the universities, communities, government and wider stakeholders, and good project management skills for delivering projects creatively, up to quality, on time and with good value for money, for example.

7.8.3 The political system

As discussed in Chapter 2 and espoused in the Green Book detailing the key pillars of the 1969 revolution led by Muammar Ghadaffi, the political system of Libya influences all the key societal systems through a socialist political ideology. Hence, it encompasses other influences such as:

- ♦ Ideology of the state (socialism with the organizations run by People's Committees);
- ♦ Laws and regulations which are strongly instituted but whose observance is weakened by social ties and corruption;
- ♦ Frequent policy changes in tenure of positions and school semester systems, for examples;
- ♦ Bureaucracy which slows down budget releases and funding of universities thereby degrading effectiveness of educational leadership; and
- ♦ Centralization of power at the top which, as pointed out above, denies Deans of the resources and authority to effectively lead faculties.

Similar to the researcher's views on the leadership constraints, these difficulties should be progressively ameliorated to enable the visions held by the Deans to be realized. This will make Collective Leadership increasingly more successful in Libya education and other systems. The reason for this is as follows.

In terms of the political systems as with national cultures and Islamic faith, Libyan and Arab leaders should be trained to understand the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats which the political systems bring to bear on their leadership experiences and develop skills suitable to managing these tensions better. These could be with regards to the state ideology, laws and regulations, policy challenges of tenures, bureaucracy and centralization of resources and authority as appropriate. The following ideas are in order as far as the political influences on collective leadership are concerned.

The above points on the LCL process include the fact that governance in Libyan higher education system is heavily influenced by a new political system which followed the 1969 revolution led by Muammar Al Gaddafi; and more importantly the fact that the Academic Management Structure in Libya universities mimics the people's government approach in the wider polity, with decision making undertaken primarily by People's Committees, so that the Secretaries of the People's Committees of the Faculties (Faculty Deans) are enforcers of the decisions.

Additionally, as mentioned earlier, the faculties are faced with challenges of achieving goals of higher education which transcend geographical boundaries e.g. using effective leadership to 'stimulate learning and change' through an understanding of the intimate links between their own behaviours and these management goals; and the need to achieve excellence in teaching, researching and programme development, in the context of actively collaborating with other universities, locally and internationally (Land, 2003).

These ideas speak directly to the Governance of University/Faculties to Leadership Practices, and then onto Collective Leadership by reminding the reader, other researchers, and the Deans that there is a need to develop leadership skills which maintain positive action in the universities and at the same time navigate the political system more creatively. That is, a need to deploy such leadership traits as motivation of staff, paying due consideration to their welfare and situations, in effect creating a genuine family environment, and inducing a profound sense of collective work among the workforce.

Importantly, there is a need to do all this with a clear recognition of the advantages and disadvantages of working in the political systems warranted by the 1969 revolution, as regards the ideology of the state, the laws and regulations, the policy challenges, and the constraints of bureaucracy and centralization. These latter concepts arise primarily through concentration of ownership of resources and production in the State through the socialist system of economic management engendered by the revolution; these ideas are explored in more detail in the Green Book and related references in Chapter 2.

Hence, whilst it is recognisable that some of the LCL ideas exist in other countries, the way they unfold in Libya places the onus on the Deans to master more carefully key skills of democratic, consensual leadership, in a way that really fosters family feeling amongst the workforce, and at the same time breeds excellence in the core university business of research, teaching, community service as well as staff training. This requirement is pivoted crucially on the *Leadership Characteristics* aspect of the generic process. Together they call for progressive staff and leadership development which fuses transcendental principles of good and effective leadership known in the literature with intimate understanding of the Libyan contexts to draw up sound practices which Deans can rely on as guidelines towards achieving the set goals of higher education.

In these developments, naturally, the intimate understanding of the Libyan context alluded to consists of the social relations, the particular leadership styles that are coherent with such relations, but should navigate the constraints such relations can impose on effective faculty leadership. It also requires universities to determine across-the-board performance challenges which the cultural practices throw up to university leadership and create solutions to cope with them.

Finally, in relation to the LCL process, to achieve the goals of higher education summarised above, the *Leadership Constraints* in the model should be minded and responded to through training, say. These constraints are the lack of sufficient powers to deal with certain issues that arise in faculty management, lack of qualified staff, paucity of the budget, and the lack of control of those budgets by the Deans.

It is not within the scope of this research to develop the kind of solutions hinted above, but explaining how the LCL process provokes these thoughts contributes to the ultimate capacity of university management and leadership to address the underpinning issues.

In any case, solutions that will work well will have to evolve from the collective agreements of the staff through People's Committees and then be implemented effectively by the Deans and Heads of Departments. It is clear that working out such tenets of Collective Leadership is both interesting and intriguing since this mode of leadership is something more than mere democratic leadership as practised in Western countries.

7.8.3.1 State requirements in a country run by a political system with a socialist ideology

As explored in Chapter 2 the literature reviews in Chapters 3 and 4, collective leadership as influenced by the political system in Libya is basically informed by the fact that Libya post-1969 has been run by Leader with a socialist ideology in the person of late Muammar Ghaddafi. Also, The Green Book requires leaders to manage educational, political and financial institutions in a socialist way, through active involvement of the people in Peoples' Committees. This fact distinguishes collective leadership practices in Libya from traditional leadership styles.

7.8.4 Cultural environment

The meaning of cultural environment is embedded in the issues associated with the impact of Libyan familial culture on governance. This is both a positive influence and a negative influence in the sense that the deep family ties and sense of belonging to a common purpose under Allah fostered also by the Islamic religion enables Collective Leadership to succeed in Libya, but at some costs. These include: a) gap between the expectations of the people from Deans about admissions of their wards, interventions when their wards fail, for instance, and what is actually possible by the rules; b) a tendency therefore to ignore the rules and lower standards; and c) difficulties imposed on Deans by patriarchal regions or communities who expect such favours.

In summary, the influences within this cultural environment are grouped under the headings:

- Negative cultural relations; effectiveness of culture on leadership styles; cultural challenges and leadership performance.

As was noted by some of Deans, being firm with the rules, flexible when the rules allow so, and properly communicating the possibilities to community people are techniques useful for avoiding the challenges and managing expectations effectively. It is felt that training in these skills will help the Deans to develop such capacities in addition to the Deans learning through mentorships by good leaders and experiences in leadership positions.

The thesis point made here is that Collective Leadership is naturally effective within a Libyan culture that encourages a family-based and democratic approach to decision making, but its effectiveness will be improved remarkably by training in leadership skills.

A further understanding of the way Libyan and generally national cultural environments affect societies and leadership practices has been examined in detail in Chapter 2 of the thesis and is summarized below based on Hofstede's concepts of collectivism and individualism.

7.9 Collectivist culture

As explored in some detail in Chapter 2, see for example Hofstede (1994, pp. 50-53), collectivist societies such as Libya:

'emphasize the power of the group over that of the individual, are strongly oriented towards extended families, mainly view people as 'we' instead of 'I', and are more easily motivated to 'fully use [their] skills and abilities on the job'.

Hence, collective leadership is native to the faculty Deans interviewed in this research. They see leadership as a shared responsibility and primarily ascribe their achievements as Deans to that of the entire faculty workforce in a much way stronger than leaders with an 'I' mind-set would do.

Also as discussed in Chapter 2, based on Hofstede's analysis of individualism versus collectivism scores, out of a total of 53 entries made up of 50 countries and 3 regions, Arab speaking countries score in the middle range of individualism coming out with 26/27, with highly individualistic countries like USA, Australia and Great Britain scoring 1, 2 and 3 respectively.

In addition to these points, collectivism is associated with large power distances as is the case with most Islamic countries (cf. figure 3.1 in Hofstede, 1994, p. 54). This is because dependence on in-groups in collectivist societies usually goes together with dependence on power figures such as Kings, Emirs, and in some cases dictators. In the case of Libya this fact is reinforced by the post-1969 revolution enshrined in Muammar Ghaddafi's Green Book discussed in Chapter 2 of this thesis.

Also, the collectivist attribute grows from family connectedness in an extended family context as opposed to individualist attitudes which flourish in nuclear family structures prevalent in advanced Western societies. These facts contribute to strong adherence of Faculty Deans in Libya to Collective Leadership practices.

Importantly, a collectivist workplace like a university faculty in Libya may become an in-group in the emotional sense of the word. This facilitates a feeling of family ownership and relationships around faculty duties by the workforce, to the extent that poor performance of a worker would be no reason for dismissal since every effort could be made by a dean to help the staff improve on their performance.

7.9.1 Islamic culture (Influence of Islam on CL)

Additional cultural perspective on these leadership facts come from Islamic culture, which was discussed in the foregoing sections, and in detail in Chapters 2 and 4 of the thesis. See the notes in ((Beekun & Badawi, 1999); Haddara & Enanny (2009) to the effect that:

The following principles of Islamic Leadership explored in (Beekun & Badawi, 1999) further buttress the collective leadership approach. Servant-leader and guardian-leader roles are the two main Islamic concepts of leadership which in the context of this research compel Faculty Deans to see themselves as servants of the people, faculty and university, and also as guardians of the peoples' welfare, personal and career development, a deeper level of consideration of faculty workers not seen in traditional Western styles of leadership, whatever the leadership styles are used.

Other Islamic leadership principles mentioned in (Beekun & Badawi, 1999) and also discussed in some depth in this thesis (see Chapters 2, 4 and 6 and foregoing notes in this chapter) are as follows: a) communicating leaders' visions in ways that generate commitment; b) creating and maintaining organizational culture; c) maintaining unity and cooperation among followers; d) inviting constructive criticisms from followers (this is facilitated by democratic and collective decision making through Peoples' Committees); e) having leadership qualities such as conviction, justice and trust.

Finally for description of the LCL process elements, the researcher notes that a holistic version of the LCL process that includes all its features combines the process elements in Figure 7.1 with the Libyan leadership perspectives summarized in Table 4.2 of this thesis.

7.10 Contributions of the study to leadership theory and practice

As argued in Thorpe et al. (2011, p. 244), there is a small number of critical articles on such shared leadership styles as distributed leadership (DL). The authors further argue that “to improve understanding of the ways in which shared leadership might be taking place within organisations, not only does the way in which we conduct research need to change, but also the focus of what we research needs to be adjusted” (Thorpe et al. 2011, p. 246). An example is the need for case studies of different configurations of leadership in which influence can be exerted by many people in the organisation instead of a single dominant leader. This remark motivates this study into the nature of leadership configurations which are enacted by faculty deans in Libyan universities.

The study anticipates that the collectivist Islamic culture and post-1969 socialist revolution in the country will encourage more active participation of organisational staff (in this case faculty staff) in the leadership process. Hence, it is expected that the leadership configurations which typify higher education leadership in Libya will reflect the characteristics of relationship-based leadership styles.

Interestingly, there is no other study known to the researcher that has examined this kind of context-focused educational leadership in Libya and Arab countries. Hence, the study fulfils to some extent, in the Libyan and Arab country contexts, the need mentioned in Thorpe et al. (2011, p. 247) for studies to explore dynamic nature of leadership which takes account of contextual factors for example cultural, historical and social, and their influence on leadership development in the particular contexts.

Other directions for leadership research on shared leadership suggested in Thorpe et al. (2011, pp. 247-249) and applicable to this study include:

- Giving consideration to the similarities and differences between the particular type of relational leadership style identified in a context such as Libya and related

concepts for example ‘shared’, ‘collective’, ‘collaborative’, ‘emergent’, ‘co-’, ‘blended’, and ‘democratic’ leadership (Bolden 2011, Cope et al. 2011)

- Using Gronn’s (2002) dimensions of concertive action and conjoint agency explored earlier in Chapter 4 of the thesis to explore different conceptualisations of relational leadership styles, their roles in ‘reviving poorly performing public-service organisations’, possible paradoxes limiting their operationalization in specific contexts, and how to resolve them (Currie and Lockett 2011)
- Using the concept of community and related ideas to discuss the relational leadership styles and thereby develop a ‘more context-rich understanding of leadership in organisations and society’, as applies to the Libyan and Arab country contexts (Edwards 2011). The related community-laden ideas mentioned by Edwards (2011) include ‘a sense of belonging’, ‘a sense of community’, ‘individualism’, ‘values and ethics’, ‘language’, and ‘dialect’.
- Appreciating the “nuances, ambiguities and contradictions of shared and distributed leadership” [as of other relational leadership styles], the relevant conceptions of the styles, and how to think about them in relation to leadership research, practice and development (Fitzsimons et al. 2011).

The researcher develops these research directions further and relates them to this study as follows. Bolden (2011) calls for leadership research that: explicates related concepts of DL, extends DL and associated concepts to contexts other than UK and US, where they have received the most attention; recognises the need to balance different ‘hybrid configurations’ of leadership practices; examines the influence of context on leadership; explores the methodological challenges in leadership research as regards relevant meanings, research methods, and leadership development; and extends leadership research beyond descriptive and normative perspectives to include more analytical accounts, which mobilise collective engagement, and challenge or reinforce traditional leadership theories. Examples of these theories are transformational and transactional leadership.

This study, as argued earlier, fulfils aspects of this call for further contextual research on leadership by looking at the Libyan higher education context based on the perceived leadership styles of faculty deans in Libyan universities. With its implications for other

Arab countries, the research results will be a good counterpoise for similar contextualised leadership studies conducted in the UK and US as mentioned above.

The study surfaces a working model of relational leadership (typical of Faculty Deans in Libya), which can be used in conjunction with theoretical constructs of concrete action and conjoint agency, referred to above, to provide a more critical account of Libyan higher education leadership. It examines how the leadership model relates with traditional leadership styles such as transformational and transactional leadership. Hence, any novel methodological contribution of the study to leadership theory and practice is emphasized.

Additional research perspectives developed in Bolden (2011, pp. 252-264) on DL, but applicable to this study, include:

- The fact that a common thread cutting across different forms of relational leadership – shared leadership (Pearce and Conger 2003), collective leadership (e.g. Denis et al. 2001), collaborative leadership (e.g. Rosenthal 1998), co-leadership (e.g. Heenan and Bennis 1999), and emergent leadership (e.g. Beck 1991), dispersed leadership (e.g. Gordon 2010), and distributive leadership (e.g. Brown and Gioia 2002) for examples – is the idea of leadership as a systemic, collective and social process. This requires an understanding of which of these forms of leadership prevails in a specific context and to what extent it facilitates effective leadership.
- The need to examine to what extent these shared and distributed leadership perspectives offer ‘genuine alternative to earlier conceptualisations’, and ‘accurate account of how leadership actually occurs’ or responds to societal demands for a greater sense of equity and purpose in leadership. In this study, therefore, the researcher examines conceptualisations of shared leadership which describe faculty deans’ leadership styles and the significance of same for higher education leadership development in Libya and similar Arab countries.
- Potential opportunities for enhancing the efficacy of shared leadership styles in specific contexts, through such ways as ensuring that power and influence are distributed concomitantly with leadership, and overcoming the ‘challenges and inconsistencies’ in their application. Examples of these challenges are competing

institutional forces (organisational versus local, national and international) and resource constraints.

The above notes suggest a need to explain the relative meanings of different leadership styles mentioned above.

7.11 More critical perspectives on leadership styles and practices

Traditional Western leadership is primarily preoccupied with leadership position being 'reified in single individuals - usually those at the top of an organisation' (Harris 2009). This idea applies to faculty deans in Libyan universities when considered as individuals at the apex of the faculty workforce, but, depending on context, leaders in such positions do not necessarily make all the key decisions (Thorpe et al 2011), since they may consult with other staff or even delegate or distribute leadership to them. Hence, this review of literature examines the character of leadership in Libyan universities in terms of how the faculty deans do or do not strongly exhibit leadership behaviours which are consistent with certain leadership styles associated with Western leadership literature.

It is noted that in the leadership literature that there is at best modest evidence for the dramatic impact of the individual heroic style of leadership (Thorpe et al. 2011, Pfeffer and Sutton 2006), so that the study of leadership as a shared experience to which this study strongly relates will make an important contribution to leadership theory and practices.

The capacities for innovating university faculties are shared by staff with different types of expertise – administrative, technical, and academic. Hence, as argued in Thorpe et al (2011, p. 240) leadership generally (and for this study faculty leadership) should be able to “cope with collective endeavour, where individuals can contribute to the establishment and development of a common purpose (a common vision)”.

Thorpe et al. (2011) rightly argue that in addition to a lack of coherent understanding of the meaning of leadership, there has been a relative under-emphasis on shared leadership practices in the literature, compared to leadership studies which are focused on the characteristics of individual leaders at the top of the organisational hierarchies.

The above points further motivate this study of perceived leadership practices of faculty deans in Libyan universities, in order to examine what types of individual versus shared leadership behaviours are manifested by the deans, and how the specific contexts of Libyan higher educational policies and national culture affect the leadership success. The following notes characterise the various leadership styles which are expected to inform this understanding.

7.12 Further notes on shared, transformational and transactional leadership concepts for this study

Bolden (2011, p. 252) notes that DL as an aspect of shared leadership (SL) dates back as far as 1250 BC making it one of the oldest leadership styles suggested for enhancing organisational objectives through people. However, this idea resided in the literature until about 1986 because of recent dominance of ‘new leadership’ concepts such as transformational and /or charismatic leadership in management and practitioner literature.

Theoretically, shared leadership derives from such concepts as ‘distributed cognition’ and ‘activity theory’, which recognise, respectively, that human knowledge and experiences are dispersed among different individuals, and that human activity is conditioned by individual, material, cultural and social factors. See also Gronn (2000) who draws on activity theory ideas to posit a framework for analysing situated activity as the result of mediated and reciprocal interactions between ‘instruments’, ‘subjects’, ‘objects’, ‘rules’, ‘community’ and ‘division of labour’.

These views apply to this study when one thinks of deans, faculty staff and students as subjects, the learning, research and physical facilities they use in their day-to-day educational activities as objects, the faculty and university procedures they adhere to as rules, and the cooperative behaviour they enact around faculty goals as community and shared responsibilities within that community.

Furthermore, the above social-theoretical ideas apply to this study in the sense that faculty leadership is intrinsically dependent on the skills, knowledge and attitudes of different levels of faculty staff, and the way these staff succeed in their roles is constrained by their individual circumstances as well as institutional regulations, socio-

cultural factors, government, and higher educational policies. Thus, a study of leadership to be useful should at the very least consider these influences in alignment with an identified model of leadership that is the focus of the study.

It is also argued in Bolden (2011, p. 253), following a long tradition of leadership and social theorists, that shared leadership styles have theoretical foundations in such ideas as: reciprocal influence (whereby subjects affect each other mutually in leadership transactions); diffusion of leadership functions across individuals and within groups (for example administrative staff, teaching and research staff, and professional colleagues); distribution of power and influence earlier referred to; dual leadership (for example such as can be enacted by a dean and a deputy dean or two company CEOs with equal powers); the concept of substitutes for leadership (for example team leadership); functions of leadership and leadership performance in relation to those functions; organisations as professional learning communities; and as complex adaptive systems; and high involvement leadership.

Together, these ideas map out the boundaries of theoretical considerations useful for developing a critical understanding of situated leadership in Libyan universities which this study undertakes. They simply suggest why successful leadership practice in university faculties should consider, how interpersonal relationships between deans and faculty staff affect leadership outcomes, how skills and attitudes of faculty should be developed continually to enable them contribute their utmost to faculty success and how teams in specialist knowledge areas should be empowered to lead particular faculty initiatives, to mention but a few examples.

In a nutshell, they portray the true nature of effective leadership as a complex process of behaviours, management, leadership of ideas and resources, and empowerment of a high-performing workforce through motivating relationships.

Despite the attractions of shared leadership ideas, the concept of individual leadership is still difficult to shed in the minds leaders and followers, hence the idea of the 'romance of leadership' (Meindl 1995) associated with transformational and/or charismatic leadership, in which an individual leader heroically changes the tone of organisational performance. What is clear, then, is that such a leadership style is suitable when organisations need a radical re-orientation in their circumstances, but should best be

combined with more collegial leadership styles that recognise and empower other staff to lead their own work patches with similar passion, otherwise the organisational performance will not be sustained in the long-run. This goal is achieved in this study through the constructs of transformational and transactional leadership.

A useful perspective on distributed leadership (DL) for this study is Bolden's (2011) idea of 'patterns and outcomes of DL' captured vividly in table 2, p. 258 of the paper. This perspective summarises previously mentioned concepts of shared leadership such as:

- Gronn's (2002) ideas of spontaneous collaboration, intuitive working relationships, and institutionalised practice;
- Leithwood et al.'s (2006) painful alignment, whereby resulting from consultation, organisational resources are 'deliberately distributed to those individuals and/or groups best placed' to lead particular tasks;
- MacBeath's (2004) forms of DL including: formal distribution, whereby leadership is carefully delegated to capable staff; pragmatic distribution, whereby leadership roles are negotiated and shared between different actors (as between a dean and a powerful and well-connected deputy dean); strategic distribution, in which people with particular talents and access to resources are empowered to undertake specific tasks; incremental distribution, where people are given more leadership responsibilities as they become more experienced, and cultural distribution, where leadership is shared organically between members of a group, as appropriate; and
- Spillane's (2006) typology of leadership distribution into: collaborated distribution, where two or more people work together in time and place to execute the same leadership tasks; collective distribution, where two or more work separately to fulfil a leadership task; and coordinated distribution, where two or more people work in sequence to complete a leadership task.

These leadership perspectives are useful for this study because they suggest different strategies that faculty deans can deploy to enhance their leadership performance. However, they are not pursued in any further detail in the study, and could make interesting lines of further work in leadership in Libyan and Islamic contexts.

For example, the perspectives could institutionalise best practice in staff collaboration around faculty goals, align faculty resources to individuals/groups in the faculty, and share faculty duties strategically and pragmatically among staff. The perspectives are, therefore, potentially helpful in describing the model of faculty leadership which will surface from this study. For example, they describe different attitudes of shared leadership and the way fundamental concepts like ‘collaboration’ and ‘collectivism’ figure into such shared leadership practices. Some of these concepts are used in this study and could be explored further in appropriate leadership contexts within Libya and similar Arab countries.

Further to the ideas encountered in Bolden (2011) above and following Cope et al. (2011), the researcher presents the following conceptual explanations of leadership styles which complement the analytical frameworks of situated leadership practices discussed in this chapter:

- The importance of addressing leader-follower relationships in terms of both the leader and followers (faculty deans and staff in this study);
- The need to see higher education leadership as resting on a ‘sociology of faculty leadership’ (adapting for this research the concept of a ‘sociology of enterprise’ in Cope et al. 2011), which entails faculty deans facilitating staff participation in leadership through multiple conversations, dialogues and interpersonal communications. This view emphasises the social, contextual, processual, and relational aspects of leadership on the part of deans and staff, summarised in the idea that ‘we learn to lead through lived experience’ (Cope et al. 2011, p. 273);
- The need to explore the contexts of leadership (in the case study, the Libyan and Arab socio-cultural contexts for example) and their influences on the development of faculty deans’ leadership practices;
- The interesting possibility that relationship-based approaches to leadership which emanate from the collectivist and Islamic cultures of Libya may provide a solution to the ‘crisis of leadership’ whereby both followers and leaders are conditioned to view leadership as a ‘heroic individualist activity’, so that while leaders are incapable of letting go of disproportionate power and influence that leadership confers on them, followers are not used to self-leadership required to achieve faculty goals more proactively and successfully. In a sense, this point reiterates the reason

why a better dialectic for higher education leadership may be needed in Libya and globally, a dialectic in which the 'democratic deficit' in leadership practice is reduced to a minimum through effective sharing of responsibilities among individual staff or groups of staff.

To shed more light on the above mentioned ideas, Currie and Lockett (2011) note that the collective leadership model of DL expounded by Denis et al. (2001) is most likely to be practised in contexts such as Libyan universities and society where there are policy and professional pressures towards concentrated leadership on the part of senior university management and government policy makers. This calls for an examination of ways to reduce such pressures in faculty leadership of Libyan universities, in order to allow the deans more creative freedom to enhance their leadership performances.

7.13 Directions for future work suggested in the literature and further rationales for this study

In summary, the researcher recommends that the directions of further study surfaced in the above discussions of the contributions of the current research to leadership theory and practice should be explored by future researchers, in Libyan and wider Arab and Islamic contexts.

The studies should investigate the same research questions examined in this research but from the points of view of leaders other than faculty deans, and in different leadership contexts, public and private.

Finally, as noted in Chapter 4, such contextual future studies could use processual and systemic approaches to:

- Consider the context of leadership;
- The organisational processes that warrant leadership authority, power and influence;
- Explore contingency theories of leadership and how power is shared/distributed;
- Reconstruct the process through which leadership emerges over time; and
- Use qualitatively deeper research methods (such as exemplified in this study) to get underneath the studied leadership phenomena.

7.14 Conclusion

This chapter has examined the Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) process in terms of its meaning and links to the collective leadership idea in traditional leadership literature and wider contextual influences on its enactment by faculty leaders in Libyan public universities. It was shown that the process shares some common traits with both collective leadership and other leadership practices in the sense that it accommodates transformational and transactional leadership styles as base practices, is more family-oriented and democratic, and likely to motivate faculty staff more successfully in their roles. The value of the LCL process to other researchers was discussed to consist of the facts that: a) it explains the different aspects of leadership theory and practices which conduce to collective faculty leadership in the Libyan context; b) recognises the perceived challenges involved; and c) clarifies the pathways for making collective leadership in Libyan universities more effective.

The chapter explored the key aspects of the LCL process to include: some common leadership practices such as motivation and communication strategies, consideration, creating a family environment, collective work and collective decision making; wider contextual influences mentioned above; and leadership constraints, all specifically related to the Libyan contexts. It was shown that LCL form of collective leadership is more nuanced than democratic or leadership and has the capacity, if rightly deployed, to accommodate other leadership styles such as transactional, transformational leadership and a range of leadership theories e.g. path-goal, trait, situational, and behavioural approaches.

The challenge therefore is in how best to develop these skills in individual leaders to enable them effectively achieve the key goals of higher education in a way that inspires deep loyalty and a family feeling among staff. Importantly, the chapter discussed in some detail the contributions of the research results to leadership theory, especially as relates to leadership practice in Libyan, Arab and wider Islamic contexts. It therefore recommended a number of directions for future research in these contexts, particularly in other areas of leadership practice.

The next chapter concludes the research by reiterating the contributions that the research makes to knowledge.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

This research contributes to the literature on leadership theory and practices an understanding of leadership in different contexts, by examining how higher education leadership is enacted by Faculty Deans in Libyan public universities. To the researcher's knowledge this is the first study that not only looks at influence of the Libyan context in Libyan higher education leadership from a number of perspectives such as the collectivist culture, Islamic religion and socialist political system of the country, but also develops a conceptual process of this leadership. This model, known as Libyan Collective Leadership, has important implications for higher education leadership in Libya and similar Arab countries.

The key contributions of the LCL model to leadership theory are as follows. It delineates the fact that faculty leadership in Libyan subsumes other leadership practices for examples transformational and transactional leadership styles; facilitates an understanding of the deeper links between the leadership and key influences on leadership performance such as cultural environment (Islamic religion and collectivist culture), political system, and leadership constraints; and therefore, provides a basis for further studies and leadership development in Libya and other Arab countries.

To expand on the importance of understanding the leadership constraints aspect of the LCL process, a visionary and highly successful leader, as revealed by the leadership characteristics in the process, would want to achieve set goals much more decisively, but this may be constrained by lack of powers to make certain decisions, lack of qualified staff and resources to do so. This difficulty calls for closer research attention on enabling practices that will enable faculty leadership to better address the challenges confronting educational leadership in Libya. Also, collective leadership is innately original to the Libyan context based on family values and feelings attached to Islam, and nurtured by socialist ideology post-1969 revolution. Hence, by emanating from these socio-cultural settings, the LCL is native to Libyan leaders, and the challenge for leadership development in Libya is to make this leadership style more effective in enhancing the performance of the Libyan university system.

In summary, therefore, the value of the LCL process to other researchers and as a thesis point in this research is that it enables this type of interlinked discussions to be made among themes, contexts, practices, and constraints on educational leadership. It also supports a critical discussion of the contributions of faculty leadership to attainment of the goals of education examined in previous chapters of the thesis, namely the literature review (Chapters 3 and 4) and data analysis (Chapter 6). For this critical discussion, as pointed out earlier, the researcher relates the LCL process in Figure 7.1 to the research objectives and questions in the concluding section of Chapter 7.

The main contributions of the findings in this thesis as captured through the LCL process are summarised in the concluding notes on how the model enables the author to address the research objectives and questions, and therefore provide a foundation on which robust leadership development programmes could be established in Libyan universities.

8.2 Main results from analysis of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

As discussed in Chapter 6 of the thesis, the MLQ results confirm the extent to which faculty Deans are enacting collective leadership through mainly the transformational and transactional leadership styles. It is shown that faculty workers consider the Deans' leadership styles to be highly transformational and moderately transactional similar to the way Deans view their leadership styles and performance.

Methodologically speaking, the analysis is mainly qualitative analysis and semi-quantitative analysis of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire scores is innovative in helping to surface a number of insights on how collective leadership is generally performed by faculty deans in a Libyan university. These insights include: **a)** a collation of deans' opinions about their preferred leadership styles in which the deans see themselves as practising transformational and transactional leadership in a collective way; **b)** a ranking of the leadership performance attributes of the deans as perceived by their faculty workers, for all the deans in the sampled universities; and **c)** a ranking of deans' leadership performances in their own universities; and **d)** some implications of the results for higher education leadership development in Libya.

8.3 Significance of the contributions for leadership theory and practice

8.3.1 Implications of LCL model for leadership practice in Libya and other Arab countries

Understanding collective leadership practices in the context of all the characteristics and influences in the LCL process implies as follows:

- a) In terms of leadership practices, Libyan university deans and higher education leaders in general should be trained to excel in key traditional leadership skills which are drawn from a number of leadership practices especially transformational, democratic, transactional, collaborative and distributive leadership styles, but in way that uses their belongingness to the Islamic faith and culture to more deeply exhibit motivation, effective communication, consideration for workers, family feeling/environment and collective decision making.
- b) In terms of leadership constraints, in developing the skills sets in a) above, Libyan leaders and those in other Arab countries should develop additional skills required for managing down the leadership constraints facing them. These skills as mentioned above include effective negotiation and assertiveness and project management skills.
- c) That in the practice of collective leadership as informed by the leadership characteristics aspect of the model, Libyan and Arab leaders should learn the art of formulating empowering visions and getting followers to imbibe the visions and become motivated to collectively excel in their delivery of the specific roles in an organization. These visions should be bolstered by good self-concepts, perceptions of values of trust, fairness, family feeling, empathy, reward, motivation support, and resilience for examples.
- d) In terms of the cultural environment aspects of the model, which Libyan and Arab leaders should more proactively examine and understand the peculiarities of the national cultures in which they live and work and the especial demands it makes of them in order to use collective leadership principles more effectively. This remark reiterates the ideas in the leadership literature about situational leadership since in

this case one is talking of the cultural environment as imposing special situations which leaders should mind in producing organizational results.

- e) Similarly, in terms of the governance of units (faculties, universities, government departments for examples), Libyan and Arab leaders should understand the requirements of the regulations, the allowances allowed them in performing their roles, the communication channels open to them for getting things done, and the specific responsibilities in a much deeper way that enables them to respect the rules and handle leader-follower relationships more harmoniously, collectively and effectively.
- f) Similarly, in terms of the political systems as with national cultures and Islamic faith, Libyan and Arab leaders should understand the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats which the political systems bring to bear on their leadership experiences and develop skills suitable to managing these tensions better. These could be with regards to the state ideology, laws and regulations, policy challenges of tenures, bureaucracy and centralization of resources and authority as appropriate.
- g) The study makes a number of methodological contributions to qualitative research. First, it demonstrates an application of the general inductive approach hypothesis of Thomas (2006) in situated leadership contexts, whereby the subjective experiences of faculty deans and their faculty staff in Libyan public universities are used to develop a new process of leadership – the Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) process. This model can easily be adapted to leadership studies in similar contexts, hence its significance for developing leadership practice in Libya and Arab countries.
- h) Moreover, the study, as detailed in Chapter 5, contributes to the understanding of how to ensure that a qualitative research investigation meets the four key criteria of authenticity explained by Guba and Lincoln (1998). These are resonance, rhetoric, empowerment and applicability. By demonstrating how these criteria are achieved through a methodical design of this study in which the research instruments used adequately probe the research questions and the research questions, aims and objectives are intelligibly mapped to each item in the research instruments, the chapter will enable other researchers to improve the relevance and validity of their research practices.

i) The data analyses in the study are innovative in the following ways: a) the chapter demonstrates good practice in qualitative data analysis using NVivo such that appropriate leadership themes and constructs are elicited from idea notes emerging from the textual analysis of research evidence coded into the software, and used to generate a new concept of leadership that applies to Libya; b) It shows a good way to triangulate research findings in qualitative research by using two data generating approaches in the form of an interview of the main subjects studied (faculty deans) and a corroboration of some the envisaged results through related survey of a secondary group of subjects (faculty staff). Hence, even if the research results could not be subjected to more rigorous tests of reliability and validity common to experimental research in natural sciences, the overall evidence base from the research is strengthened; and c) As mentioned above, the data analyses demonstrate a good way to combine evidence from the qualitative analyses of primary and secondary subjects in reaching some conclusions about the qualitative phenomena under investigation (in this case, leadership styles of faculty deans in Libyan public universities).

8.4 Evaluation of the research findings in light of the research questions, objectives and aims

8.4.1 *Research Question 1 (RQ1):*

What leadership styles best describe faculty deans in Libyan public universities?

It was noted in Chapter 6 and this chapter that Deans enacted transformational and transactional leadership styles in a collective way and that the Libyan Collective Leadership (LCL) process describes the way Faculty Deans in Libya lead the faculties. This is the key contribution of this research to knowledge. The LCL process was described in Chapter 7 to include key leadership and contextual elements in Figure 7.1 and an understanding of the way this process is operationalized in the Libyan context which is summarized in Table 4.2. For example, it was found that Deans communicate in different ways with their staff in order to achieve effective leadership (horizontally, vertically, formally and informally) and that the deans do this in a way that shows interest in the personal welfare and professional growth of the staff. This is again an

aspect of the collective leadership approach which imbues faculty leadership in Libya with family feeling.

In general, it was found that: faculty deans perceive effective leadership to include most of the characteristics of effective leadership discussed in the leadership literature including vision and goal setting, consideration, trust, responsibility, decision making, empowerment and encouragement, and delegation; the deans consult staff collectively as appropriate, formally and informally, with a view to carrying everybody along in doing their faculty work; and deans perceive leadership styles that inspire the faculty staff to give their best to the faculty as very important to faculty success.

These findings are corroborated by the opinions of the faculty staff in the MLQ which rates the deans as highly transformational and to some extent transactional in their leadership styles.

In summary, faculty deans in Libyan universities are transformational and transactional in their leadership styles but in a more collective way. This collective way of leading the faculties is revealed in their strategies for consulting and communicating with the faculty staff.

8.4.2 Research Question 2 (RQ2):

What is the perceived relationship (if any) between leadership style and faculty success?

In the opinions of faculty deans and from the research results, collective leadership determines faculty success especially the transformational, transactional, democratic, and collaborative leadership (all subsumed under collective leadership) which particularly inspires faculty staff to see faculty business as almost their personal goals and therefore contribute maximally to faculty success. It should be reiterated that the deans' emphasized collective leadership in this regards through such terms as 'collective', 'family', and 'consideration'.

As noted above, the deans enact collective leadership through person-centred consultations and communications with faculty staff. In terms of the nature of success in question, deans considered almost all areas of faculty success expected of a university

faculty, including top quality graduates who can contribute significantly to society, good facilities, and internationally comparable performance in terms of graduate outcomes and attributes.

Similar notes above, in relation to characteristics of an effective leader, apply to this RQ in defining what the deans see as primary drivers of success in their personal attributes. All these ideas about faculty success are grounded in deans' clear understanding that leadership is profoundly important to faculty success, as discussed above in relation to RQ. It is noted that faculty deans in Libya achieve their best leadership outcomes without systematic training in related leadership and management skills.

The above main findings from deans' interviews are supported by the opinions of the faculty staff in the MLQ survey since the staff rated the deans as generally effective and are satisfied with the deans' performance in motivating them to achieve positive results for the faculties.

8.4.3 Research Question 3 (RQ3):

What are the self-perceptions of the leadership practices of Deans in terms of their gender, ethnic background, leadership, management experience, and organisational policies?

This RQ encompasses most of the other questions as far as deans perception of leadership practices are concerned and the author summarises the key results in Chapters 6 and 7, based on the deans interview Items, are as follows.

1. The deans have adequate experience in other roles before being appointed as deans including serving as heads of departments in their chosen disciplines, faculty deans in other universities, research directors in organizations outside the university.
2. The deans declare that there should but there is not enough training on leadership and management skills to enhance their leadership performance
3. The deans' educational backgrounds are of internationally comparable standards in the sense that most of them have PhDs in their chosen areas of specializations
4. The deans feel that there are a number of constraints which limit their performance such as: lack of appropriately qualified academic and administrative staff;

inadequate facilities; abnormal expectations from the citizens who may want deans to do them favours even when the rules may not allow so; bureaucracy and centralization of resources at levels which not immediate to faculty needs; and influence of ethnicity in appointments at the risk of sacrificing merit.

5. The deans see faculty success in terms of criteria typical of a traditional university for example graduate outcomes, international standards, and excellent facilities as explained above.
6. The deans perceive effective leadership as dependent on key leadership and management characteristics such as summarized above, including ability to create empowering visions, delegate roles, and motivate staff through inspiring communications and consultations.
7. The deans perceive transformational and transactional leadership enacted collectively as descriptive of their leadership styles.
8. As noted above, the deans communicate and consult with staff in a person-centred way that inspires trust, love, cooperation and commitment.
9. Finally, the deans are not happy about the limitations on their leadership effectiveness imposed by such influences as the family-oriented culture which makes sometimes uncomfortable expectations of them from society, concentration of power and resources at the top, favouritism in appointments, and government and higher education policies.

Overall, faculty deans in Libya feel that with adequate resources and efforts to address factors which affect leadership effectiveness, they can improve the performance of their faculties and universities through collective leadership no matter their gender.

8.4.4 Research Question 4 (RQ 4):

What recommendations can be made to Libyan public universities for the development of successful leaders?

The researcher refers the reader to the above recommendations for leadership development.

8.4.5 Research Question 5 (RQ5):

How can understanding of leadership be developed to take account of different national contexts?

The following two perspectives are important for this question:

1. To develop better contextual understanding of leadership in different national contexts, there is need to examine the range of specific constraints which leaders face in these contexts. For example, in the Libyan collective leadership model discussed in Chapter 7 of this thesis all the influences and constraints on university leadership are examined. This helps the researcher to understand how collective leadership could be improved by taking account of the specific influences on such approach to higher education leadership by university governance systems, Libyan political system, resource constraints, the intrinsically collective national culture, and the Islamic religion and way of life.
2. This understanding is then combined with a deep understanding of the literature on leadership theories and practices (Chapters 3 and 4 of this thesis) in order to examine how these theories and practices surface in the lived leadership experiences of leaders such as faculty deans in this study (Chapters 6 and 7 of the thesis)

In summary, the researcher has successfully answered this research question in a way that makes the overall research results applicable to similar leadership contexts as in Libya for example other Arab countries.

8.5 Evaluating the research findings

For easy follow-through in this section, the researcher recalls below the said criteria for evaluating qualitative research findings and applies them to the key elements of this research:

8.5.1 Criteria for evaluating qualitative research findings (hence findings from this research)

It is argued in the literature that the criteria for evaluating qualitative research findings should not strictly mimic the reliability and validity used in rigorous empirical research in the natural sciences, but should be relevant to the subjectivist and interpretive character of qualitative research such as this study. Hence, following Guba and Lincoln's (1989) 'authenticity' criteria, Symon and Cassell (Eds) (1998) suggest four main evaluation criteria which the author adapts to this study as follows:

1. *Resonance*: the extent to which the research process reflects the underlying analytic paradigms or type of qualitative methodology employed in a research; for this study, it is shown that the key aspects of the study resonate strongly with the general inductive approach of Thomas (2006).
2. *Rhetoric*: the strength of the presenting argument; in this study the author links the research objectives and questions to the evidence by explaining later in this chapter and the thesis the need for all the items in the research instruments, and how the item analysis and results will be used to explore the research questions.
3. *Empowerment*: the extent to which the findings enable readers to take action or facilitate change in the phenomenon studied; in this research it is expected that understanding faculty leadership and building a model of how deans actually lead will provide an insight into how, if needed, university faculty leadership could be improved in Libya and other Arab countries, through leadership development workshops. This aspect of possible future use of the research results is not pursued any further in this study which focuses on the initial understanding and model building.
4. *Applicability*: how readers and stakeholders can apply the findings to their own contexts; in this study it is expected that faculty leaders and interested readers and stakeholders in Libya will understand various styles of faculty leadership in Libya, the effectiveness of faculty leaders as rated by their staff, and hence the strengths and weaknesses of individual deans as measured by some criteria of manifesting styles, staff extra effort as a result of leadership styles of the deans, effectiveness of deans and satisfaction of staff with the leadership.

As summarized in the above notes, this research achieves resonance between the qualitative research paradigms, the particular method of analytic induction used to obtain the findings and the interpretative discussion of results. This resonance is clarified in more detail by the detailed philosophy of the research methodology discussed in Chapter 5 prior to summarizing the above criteria.

With respect to rhetoric, the researcher notes that the use of mappings among the aims, objectives and research questions discussed in this chapter further exemplifies how the research rhetoric is strengthened by arguments that provide robust evidence of the claims made about Collective Leadership and related leadership ideas in Libyan universities.

To a significant extent, this research empowers action regarding leadership development in Libyan higher education. The evidence for this consists in the depth and criticality of the literature review, how traditional leadership ideas are contextualized within the Libyan higher education contexts, the generation of a descriptive model of Libyan university faculty leadership and the recommendations of what could be done to make this collective leadership increasingly more successful in improving Libyan universities and those of other Arab countries. By using the MLQ survey to triangulate findings from deans' interview, a more complete picture of what works well and could be improved is obtained.

The above criteria enhanced the overall applicability of the research findings to personal leadership improvement, university-wide and Arab countries' higher education leadership development efforts.

This chapter has discussed the principal research findings in this thesis in light of the research aims, objectives and questions. It has outlined from the findings some recommendations for improving higher education in Libya and other Arab countries. Most importantly, the chapter has critically examined to what extent the aims and objectives of the research have been achieved.

The chapter also evaluates the success in terms of four key criteria used for evaluating qualitative research – resonance, rhetoric, empowerment, and applicability.

8.6 Conclusion

This research examined leadership practices on the part of faculty deans in Libyan public universities. It makes significant contributions in critical review of related literature on leadership theories and practices (Chapters 3 and 4 mainly and Chapters 6 and 7); design and implementation of a sound qualitative research methodology which uses the general inductive approach of Thomas (2006) and makes philosophical commitments to interpretative use of evidence (Chapters 5, 6, and 7); and a structured approach to ensuring that the research meets key criteria of authenticity.

The research also makes a seminal contribution to situated leadership practices relevant to Libya and Arab countries in the form of the LCL process. This process is related to and distinguished from traditional leadership practices in such a way that it is easy to apply to similar contexts.

The manner in which the LCL process could be used to enhance higher education leadership in Libya and other Arab countries is discussed in the research (see the above recommendations in this chapter).

Finally, by way of future work, the researcher recommends that the LCL process should:

1. Be used to institute systematic leadership development programmes in Libyan universities.
2. Adapted to other organizational contexts in Libya with particular reference to the differentiating contexts which those organizations are subject to as opposed to universities.
3. Applied to the development of top leadership practices in other national contexts especially Libya and Arab countries, in order to provide policy makers and higher education leaders with research-based evidence for developing higher education leadership, in face of the kind of constraints and influences explored in the LCL process.

REFERENCES

ABUARROSH, M (1996). *A cross-cultural study of Locus of control and self Esteem as Related to Socio Cultural Factors among Libyan and British Postgraduate Student*. PhD, University of Manchester.

AKKARI, Fathy (2009). *Development of higher education in Libya*. [online]. Last accessed 14 November 2012 at:

http://www.libyaforum.org/archive/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=7693&Itemid=1

AHMAD, A. (2002). Islamic leadership for the 21st century: Paper presented at the IGSICOJ International Conference on leadership and unity in Islam, Kobe, Japan: Writers Club Press.

AL-BUKHARI, Muhammad (1997). *The translation of the meanings of Sahih Al-Bukhari*. Arabic-English (M.M. Khan, Trans.). Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, Dar-us-Salam Publications. (Original work published in the 9th century).

AL-BURAEY, Muhammad. (1985). *Administrative development: An Islamic perspective*. London, UK.

ALI, Mohammad. (1998). Mawdudi's philosophy of education: The dynamics of change and leadership. *Muslim Education Quarterly*, **15** (4), 24-40.

AL GADDAFI Mummer. (1976). *The Authority of the People*. The Green book, Part one, the Solution of the problem of Democracy of Third Universal Theory. Tripoli, Libya. Global Centre for Research and Studies Green Book.

AL GADDAFI Mummer (1979). *Education is a natural right for every human being and no one has the right to deprive him of this right*. The Green Book, part three. The Social Basis of the Third Universal Theory. Tripoli, Libya. Global Centre for Research and Studies Green Book.

ANDERSON, Lisa. (1987). *The state and social Transformation in Tunisia and Libya*: New Jersey, Princeton University press.

ANTHONY, Allan. (1981). *Libya: the experience of oil*. United States of America. West view Press.

ATARI, A. T. M. (2000). *Christian "service-servant" and Islamic "Khilafah"*: Emerging models in educational administration. *The American journal of Islamic Social Sciences*, **17**(2), 29-56.

AVOLIO, Bruce, WALDMAN, David & YAMMARINO, Francis (1991). Leading in the 1990s: The four I's of transformational leadership. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, **15** (4), 9-16.

AVOLIO, Bruce (1999). *Full leadership development: Building the vital forces in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

AVOLIO, Bruce, BASS, Bernard & JUNG, Dong. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, **72** (4), 441-462.

AVOLIO, Bruce & HOWELL, Jane. (1993). Transformational leadership, Transactional leadership Control, and Support for Innovation: Key Predictors of Consolidated-Business-Unit Performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **78** (6), 891-902.

BANGASH, Zafar. (2008). *The concepts of leader and leadership in Islam*. [Online]. Last accessed 13 November 2012 at:
<http://aligarians.com/mehfil/index.php?topic=12682.0>

BARKER, James. (1993). *Tightening the iron cage: concertive control in self-managing teams*. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, **38**, (3), 408-437.

BARKER, Larry. (1984). *Communication*. Englewood Cliffs, Prentice Hall, Inc.

BARLING, Julian, WEBER, Tom and Kelloway, Kevin. (1996). Effects of Transformational Leadership Training on Attitudinal and Financial Outcomes: A Field Experiment, *Journal of Applied Psychology* **81** (6), 827-832.

BARNETT, Kerry, MCORMICK, John. and CONNERS, Robert. (2001). Transformational leadership in schools: Panacea, placebo or problem? *Journal of Educational Administration*, **39** (1), 24-46.

BASKAN, Gulsum and ERCETIN, Sule. (2000). *Personal and organizational visions of the deans in Turkish universities for the new millennium*. [online]. ERIC database, article number ED457805. Last accessed 18 January 2010 at:
<http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED457805.pdf>

BASS, Bernard. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industrial, military, and educational impact*. Mahwah: New Jersey, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

BASS, Bernard and & AVOLIO, Bruce. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, Sage.

BASS, Bernard, AVOLIO, Bruce and ATWATER, Leanne. (1996). The Transformational and Transactional Leadership of Men and Women. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, **45**(1), 5-34.

BASS, Bernard and AVOLIO, Bruce. (1997). *The Full Range Transformational Leadership Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. [online]. Last accessed 3 July 2008 at: <http://www.mindgarden.com/products/mlq.htm>

BASS, Bernard and AVOLIO, Bruce. (2000). MLQ: Multifactor leadership questionnaire: Technical report, leader form, rater and scoring key for MLQ (Form 5x-Short). Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden.

BASS, Bernard. (1960). *Leadership, psychology, and organizational behaviour*. New York, Harper.

BASS, Bernard. (1981a). *Stogdill's handbook of leadership*. New York, Free Press.

BASS, Bernard. (1981b). "Stogdill's handbook of leadership": A survey of theory and research. Revised and expanded edition. New York, Free press.

BASS, Bernard. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York, Free Press.

BASS, Bernard. (1990). *Handbook of leadership: Theory, research & management applications*. 3rd ed., New York, Free Press.

BASS, Bernard and RIGGIO, Ronald. (2006). *Transformational Leadership*. 2nd ed., Mahwah: New Jersey, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

BASS, Bernard and BASS Ruth. (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership: theory, research, and application*. 4th ed., New York, Free Press.

BASS, Bernard and Steidlmeier, Paul. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behaviour. *Leadership Quarterly*, **10** (2), 181-217.

BAZELEY, Pat. (2007). *Qualitative Data Analysis with NVivo*. London, Sage.

CRAWFORD, Megan, KYDD, Lesley and RICHES, Colin. (1997). *Leadership and Teams in Educational Management*. Maidenhead, Open University Press.

BECK, Ariadne. (1981). A study of group phase development and emergent leadership. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, **5** (4) 48-54.

BEEKUN, Rafik and BADAWI, Jamal. (1999). *Leadership: An Islamic perspective*. Saudi Arabia, Amana publications.

BENNIS, Warren and JOAN Goldsmith. (2003). *Learning to Lead: A Workbook on becoming a leader*. 3th ed., New York, Basic Books.

BENNIS, Warren and JOAN Goldsmith. (2010). *Learning to Lead: A Workbook on Becoming a Leader*. 4th ed., New York: Basic Books.

BENNIS, Warren and NANUS Burt. (2007). *Leaders: Strategies for Taking Charge*. 2nd ed., New York, HarperCollins.

BERG, Bruce and LUNE Howard. (2011). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. 8th ed., London, Pearson.

BERGER, Joseph and MILEM, Jeffrey. (2000) Organizational behavior in higher education and student outcomes. In: John, Smart (ed.) *Higher Education: Handbook of Theory and Research*. New York, Agathon, 268-338.

BIRNBAUM, Robert. (1992). *How academic leadership works*. New York, Jossey-Bass.

BLAKE, Rogers and MOUTON, Srygley. (1985). *The Managerial Grid III: A New Look at the Classic That Has Boosted Productivity and Profits for Thousands of Corporations Worldwide*. USA. Gulf Publishing Company.

BLANCHARD, Ken. (2009). *The changing face of management*. *Manager: British Journal of Administrative Management*, (66), 22-23.

BOLDEN, Richard. (2011). Distributed Leadership in Organizations: A Review of Theory and Research. *International Journal of Management Reviews (IJMR)* **13** (3), 251-269.

BOLDEN, Richard, et al. (2003). A review of leadership theory and competency frameworks. [online]. *Centre for Leadership Studies*. Article from Google scholar, last accessed 25th February 2013 at:

<http://www2.fctsh.unl.pt/docentes/luisrodrigues/textos/Lideran%C3%A7a.pdf>

BOLMAN, Lee and DEAL, Terence. (1997). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership*. 2nd ed., San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

BROOKES, Stephen. (2008). *The Public Leadership Challenge: Full Research Report*. *ESRC Seminar Series End of Award Report*, RES-451-25-4273. Swindon: ESRC.

BROWN, Eichaël and GIOIA, Dennis. (2002). Making things click: distributive leadership in an online division of an offline organization. *Leadership Quarterly*, **13** (4), 397-419.

BRUCE, St John (2008). The Changing Libyan Economy: Causes and Consequences. *Middle East Journal*, **62** (1), 75-91.

BRYMAN, Alan. (1992). *Charisma and Leadership in Organizations*. London: sage.

BRYMAN, Alan. (2007). *Effective leadership in higher education: summary of Findings*. London. Leadership Foundation for Higher Education.

BRYMAN, Alan and BURGESS, Robert G. (eds.). (1994). *Analyzing qualitative data*. London: Routledge.

BUCHANAN, David et al. (2007). Nobody in charge: distributed change agency in healthcare. *Human Relations*, **60** (7), 1065-1090.

BURNS, James. (1978). *Leadership*. New York, Harper & Row. Publishers, Inc.

BURNS, James. (2003). *Transforming leadership: A new pursuit of happiness*. New York, Atlantic Monthly Press.

BURRELL, Gibson and MORGAN, Gareth. (1979). *Sociological paradigms and organizational Analysis*. London, Heinemann Educational Books.

BUSH, Tony. (2011). *Theories of Educational Leadership and Management*. London, Sage.

BYCIO, Peter, HACKETT, Rick. and ALLEN, Joyce. (1995). Further assessments of Bass's (1985) conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **80**(4), 468-478.

CARLESS, Sally. (1998). Assessing the discriminant validity of transformational leader behaviour as measured by the MLQ. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, **71** (4), 353-358.

CASIMIR, Gian. (2001). Combinative aspects of Leadership style the ordering and temporal spacing of leadership behaviours. *Leadership Quarterly*, **12** (3), 245-278.

CHERRY, Kendra (2011). *Leadership theory- 8 Major Leadership theories*. [online]. Last accessed 20 July 2012 at:
<http://psychology.about.com/od/leadership/p/leadtheories.htm>

CHOWDBURY, N. (2001). Leadership strategies and global unity for the 21st century: An Islamic perspective. Paper presented at the IGS-ICOJ International Conference on leadership and unity in Islam, Kobe, Japan: Writers Club Press.

CLARK, Nick, assistant Editor WENR. (2004). *Education in Libya*. *World Education News and Reviews*. [online]. Last accessed 08 January 2009 at: <http://www.wes.org/ewenr/PF/04Jul/PFPractical.htm>

COLEMAN, Marianne and GLOVER, Derek (2010). *Educational Leadership and Management: Developing Insights and Skills*. Maidenhead, Open University Press.

COLLINS, Jim. (2001). *Good to great: why some companies make the leap, and others don't*. London : Random House Business.

COPE, Jason., KEMPSTER, Steve. and PARRY, Ken. (2011). Exploring Distributed Leadership in the Small Business Context. *International Journal of Management Reviews (IJMR)*, **13** (3), 270-285.

GORDON, Raymond. (2010). Dispersed leadership: exploring the impact of antecedent forms of power using a communicative framework. *Management Communication Quarterly*, **24**, (2), 260-287.

COSTIGAN, Robert., ILTER, Selim. and BERMAN, Jason. (1998). A multi-dimensional study of trust in organizations. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, **10** (3), 303-305.

CRESWELL, John. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*. London, Sage.

CRESWELL, John. (2009). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches*, 2nd ed., London, Sage.

CURRIE, Graeme. and LOCKETT, Andy. (2011). Distributing Leadership in Health and Social Care: Concertive, Conjoint or Collective? *International Journal of Management Reviews (IJMR)*, **13**, (3) 286-300.

DAVIES, Brent, et al. (1990). *Education Munugement for the 1990s*. Harlow, Longman.

Decision of General People's Committee for Higher Education. (2008). The organizational structure of universities and institutions of higher education. Tripoli, Libya ,People's Committee for Higher Education.

DE CREMER, David. (2007). Emotional Effects of Distributive Justice as a Function of Autocratic Leader Behaviour. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, **37**, (6), 1385 - 1404.

DEN HARTOG, Deanne, Van MUIJEN, Jaap, & KOOPMAN, Paul. (1997). Transactional versus transformational leadership: An analysis of the MLQ. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, **70** (1), 19-34.

DEN HARTOG et al (1999). Culture specific and cross-culturally generalizable implicit leadership theories: are attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership universally endorsed. *Leadership Quarterly*, **10** (2), 219–256.

DENIS, Jean-Louis, LAMOTHE, Lise and LANGLEY, Ann. (2001). The dynamics of collective leadership and strategic change in pluralistic organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, **44**, (4) 809-837.

DEPREE, Max. (1989). *Leadership is an Art*. New York, Doubleday.

DEY, Ian. (1993). *Qualitative data analysis: A user-friendly guide for social scientists*. London, Routledge.

DRYZEK, John. (2012). *Foundations and Frontiers of Deliberative Governance*. New York, Oxford University Press, 256 pp.

DUNDON, Tony et al. (2004). The meanings and purpose of employee voice, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, **15** (6), 1149-1170.

DVIR, Taly et al (1998). The impact of transformational leadership training on follower development and performance: A field experiment. *The Academy of Management Journal*, **45** (4), 735-744.

EAGLY, Alice, JOHANNESSEN-SCHMIDT, Mary and VAN ENGEN, Marloes. (2003). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: A meta-analysis comparing women and men. *American Psychological Association*, **129** (4), 569–591.

EDWARDS, Gareth. (2011). Concepts of Community: A Framework for Contextualizing Distributed Leadership. *International Journal of Management Reviews (IJMR)*, **13** (3), 301-312.

Edwards, Richard, Reich, Michael and Weisskopf, Thomas. (1973). The economics of racism. Capitalist system: A radical analysis of American society. *Journal of Economic Issues* **46** (4), 172-175.

FIEDLER, Fred. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York, McGraw-Hill.

FIEDLER, Fred. (1978). The contingency model and the dynamics of leadership process, *Advances in experimental social psychology*, **11**(1), 59-112

FINK, Dean and HARGREAVES, Andy. (2006). *Sustainable leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

FIOL, Marlene., HARRIS, Drew and HOUSE, Robert. (1999). *Charismatic leadership: Strategies for effecting social change*. *Leadership Quarterly*, **10** (3), 449-482.

FISHER, Aubrey and ELLIS, Donald. (1990). *Small Group Decision Making: communication and the group process*. 3rd ed., New York, McGraw-Hill.

FISHKIN James. (2009). *When the People Speak: Deliberative Democracy and Public Consultation*. New York, Oxford University Press.

FITZSIMONS, Declan, JAMES, Kim and DENYER, David. (2011). Alternative Approaches for Studying Shared and Distributed Leadership. *International Journal of Management Reviews (IJMR)*. **13** (3), 313-328.

FLECKNOE, Mervyn. (2006). Book Review: Democratic Leadership in Education. *Improving Schools*. **9** (1), 84 - 86.

FRENCH, John & RAVEN, Bertram. (1959). The bosses of social power. In DORWIN. Cartwright (ed). *Studies in studies in social power*. USA, University of Michigan

GARDNER, William et al. (2010). Scholarly leadership of the study of leadership: A review of the leadership quarterly's second decade, 2000-2009. *The Leadership Quarterly*, **21**(6), 922-958.

GASTIL John. (1994). A Definition and Illustration of Democratic Leadership. *Human Relations*. **47**(8), 953 - 975.

GERARD Chaliand (2012). *Third World Definitions, Third World Traveler*. [online]. Last accessed 30 December 2012 at:
http://www.thirdworldtraveler.com/General/ThirdWorld_def.html

GILL Roger. (2006). *Theory and Practice of Leadership*. London, Sage.

GILL, John, and JOHNSON, Phil. with CLARK Murray, (2010). *Research Methods for Managers*. 4th ed., London, Sage.

GLANZ, Jeffrey. (2007). On vulnerability and transformative leadership: an imperative for leaders of supervision. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*. **10** (2) 115-135.

GREENLEAF, Robert. (1998). *The power of servant leadership*. San Francisco, Calif.

GRONN, Peter. (2009). Leadership configurations. *Leadership*, **5** (3), 381-394.

GRONN, Peter. (2002). Distributed Leadership. In: LEITHWOOD, Kenneth, (ed.). *Second International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Administration*. Dordrecht; London Kluwer, pp. 653-696.

GRONN, Peter. (2000). Distributed properties: a new architecture for leadership. *Educational Management & Administration*, **28** (3), 317-338.

GUBA, Egon. (1985). The context of emergent Paradigm Research. in: LINCOLN, Yvonna (ed.). *Organizational Theory and Inquiry: the paradigm revolution*. London, Sage.

HADDARA, Mahmoud and ENANNY, Faiza. (2009). Leadership: An Islamic Perspective. [Online]. Last accessed 13 November 2012 at: <http://www.manal.ca/sites/default/files/Leadership.pdf>

HALLINGER, Philip and SNIDVONGS, Kamontip. (2005) Adding value to School Leadership and Management: A review of trends in the development of managers in the education and business sectors. Paper commissioned for the National College for School Leadership, Nottingham, England.

HALL, Jay and DONNELL, Susan. (1979). Managerial achievement: the personal side of behavioral theory. *Human Relations*, **32**, (1) 77 - 101.

HARRIS, Alma et al. (2003). *Effective Leadership for School Improvement*. London, Routledge.

HARRIS, Alma (ed). (2009). *Distributed Leadership: Different Perspectives*, [online]. Book from Springer Link, Last accessed 05 October 2012 at: <http://link.springer.com/book/10.1007/978-1-4020-9737-9/page/1>

HARRISON, Michael. (1987). *Diagnosing organizations: methods, models and process*. New York, Sage.

HARRISON, Bernard and BRODETH, Esmeralda. (1999). Real work through real collegiality: Faculty seniors' views on the drive to improve learning and research. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, **21**(2), 203-214.

HATER, John and BASS, Bernard. (1988). Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, **73**(4), 695-702.

HEENAN, David and BENNIS, Wren. (1999). *Co-Leaders: The Power of Great Partnerships*. New York, Wiley.

- HENKEL, Mary. (2002). Academic identity in transformation. *Higher Education Management and Policy*, **14**(3), 137-147.
- HODGKINSON, Christopher. (1991). *Educational leadership: The moral art*. New York, State University.
- HOFSTEDE, Geert (1994). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind - Intercultural Cooperation and Its Importance for Survival*. New York, Harper Collins.
- HOFSTEDE, Geert, HOFSTEDE, Gert and MINKOV, Michael (2010). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind - Intercultural Cooperation and Its Importance for Survival*. New York, Harper Collins.
- HOLLANDER, Edwin. (1984). *Leadership Dynamics: A practical guide to effective relationships*. New York, Free Press.
- House, Robert et al. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations*. London, Sage.
- HUFFMAN-JOLEY, Gail. (1992). *The role of the dean: Fostering teaching as scholarship in the School of Education learning community*. [online]. Education Resources Information centre (ERIC) (ED349277). Article from ERIC, last accessed 20th February 2009 at: <http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED349277.pdf>
- JAGO, Arthur. (1982). Leadership: Perspective in theory and research. *Management Science*, **28** (3), 315-336.
- JANDA, Kenneth. (1960). Towards the explication of the concept of leadership in terms of the concept of power. *Human Relations*. **13** (4), 345-363.
- KARMEL, Barbara. (1978). Leadership: A challenge to traditional research methods and assumptions. *Academy of Management Review*, **3** (3), 475 - 482
- KATZ, Daniel and KAHN, Robert. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations*. (2nd ed). New York: Wiley.
- KING, Nigel. (2004). 'Using Templates in the Thematic Analysis of Text', in: Cassell, Catherine and Symon Gillian (eds.), *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research*. London, Sage, 256-270.
- KIRBY, Peggy, PARADISE, Louis, and KING, Margaret. (1992). Extraordinary leaders in education: Understanding transformational leaders. *The Journal of Educational Research*, **85** (5), 303-311.
- KIRKPATRICK, Shelley and LOCKE, Edwin. (1991), Leadership: do traits really matter. *Academy of Management Executive*, **5** (2), 48-60.

KNAUFT, E. B., BERGER, Renee and GRAY, Sandra. (1991). *Profiles of excellence: Achieving success in the non profit sector*. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

KNIGHT, Peter and TROWLER, Paul. (2001). *Departmental Leadership in Higher Education*. United Kingdom, Society for Research into Higher Education : Open University.

KOTTER, John. (1990). What Leaders Really Do, *Hurvutd Business Review*, **68** (3), 103-111.

KVALE, Steinar. (1996). *Interviews: an introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

LAMBERT, Linda. (2002). A framework for shared leadership. *Educational Leadership*, **59** (8), 37-40.

LEITHWOOD, Kenneth. (1994). Leadership for school restructuring. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, **30**(4), 498-518.

LEITHWOOD, Kenneth et al. (2006). *Successful School Leadership: What It Is and How It Influences Pupil Learning*. Nottingham: DfES Publications.

Leithwood, Kenneth et al (1996). *International handbook of educational Leadership and administration (pp.785-840)*. Boston: Kluwer Academic Publisher.

LEITHWOOD, Kenneth, JANTZI, Doris and STEINBACH, Rosanne. (1999). *Changing Leadership for Changing Times*. Buckingham,UK: Open University Press.

LEITHWOOD, Kenneth and JANTZI, Doris. (2000). The effects of transformational leadership on organizational conditions and student engagement with school. *Journal of Educational Administration*, **38** (2), 112 – 129.

Libyan General Authority for Documentation and Information (2012). [online]. Last accessed 17 December 2012 at:

<http://www.gia.gov.ly/modules.php?name=Mvgroups&file=articles&topicid=6&gid=21>

LOWE, Kevin, KROECK, Galen and SIVASUBRAMANIAM, Nagaraj. (1996). Effective correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *Leadership Quarterly*, **7**(3), 385-425.

MACBEATH, John, ODURO, George and WATERHOUSE, Joanne. (2004). *Distributed Leadership in Action: A Study of Current Practice in Schools*. Nottingham: National College for School Leadership.

MARTIN, Bruce, et al. (2006). *Outdoor leadership: theory and practice*. Champaign, Human Kinetics.

MCGINN, John (2009). *Leadership: Great Man Theory*. [online]. Last accessed 13th November 2011 at: <http://drjohnmccginn.com/leadership-styles/>

MEINDL, James. (1995). The romance of leadership as a follower-centric theory: a social constructionist approach. *Leadership Quarterly*, **6** (3), 329-341.

MERRIAM, Sharan. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

MERRIAM, Sharan. (ed.). (2002). *Qualitative research in practice: examples for discussion and analysis*. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

METZ Helen (ed). (1987). *Libya: A Country Study*. Washington: GPO for the Library of Congress. [Online]. Last accessed 31 October 2012 at: <http://countrystudies.us/libya/>

MILES, Matthew and HUBERMAN, Michael. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis*. 2nd., London, Sage.

Morgan, Gareth. (1997). *Images of Organization*. 2nd ed., London, Sage.

MOULTON, Harper. (2004). Leadership through executive education. *Business horizons*, 47 (2) 7- 14.

NEUMAN, Lawrence. (2011). *Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches*. London, Boston.

NORTHOUSE, Peter (1997). *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

NORTHOUSE, Peter (2004). *Leadership Theory and practice*. 3rd ed., London, Sage.

NORTHOUSE, Peter (2007). *Leadership Theory and practice*. 4th ed., London, Sage.

NORTHOUSE, Peter (2010). *Leadership Theory and practice*. 5th ed., London, Sage.

NORTHOUSE, Peter (2012). *Introduction to Leadership*. 2nd ed., London, Sage.

NORTHOUSE, Peter. (2013). *Leadership Theory and practice*. 6th ed., London, Sage.

OWEN, Jo (2009) *How to Lead: what you actually need to do to manage, lead and succeed*. 2nd ed., USA, Prentice Hall.

OWENS, Robert. (1995). *Organizational Behaviour in Education*. 5th ed., USA, Allyn and Bacon.

GANDHI Mahatma et al. (2012). Leadership Styles: Choosing the Right Style for the Situation. [online]. Last accessed 20th April 2012 at: http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newLDR_84.htm

PEARCE, C.raig and CONGER, Jay. (2003). *Shared Leadership: Reframing the Hows and Whys of Leadership*. London, Sage.

PEARCE, Craig and SIMS, Henry. (2000). Shared Leadership: toward a multi-level theory of leadership. *Advances in the Interdisciplinary Studies of Work Teams*. [online]. *Emerald*, (7), 115-139. Last accessed 1st July 2007 at: <http://www.emeraldinsight.com/journals.htm?articleid=1782580&show=abstract>

PETERSON, Marvin, CHAFFEE, Earle and WHITE, Theodore. (1991). *Organization and governance in higher education: an ASHE reader*. 4th ed.,USA, Ginn.

POLEY, Janet. (2001). Contributed chapter "Leadership" in Guiding the evolution of a college's or university technology must recognize a context of complex collaborations" to Technology Leadership, a New Direction for Higher Education quarterly sourcebook (pp. 83-93). George Maughan, Editor. California, Jossey-Bass, Inc.

POPE, Catherine and MAYS, Nicholas. (2000). Qualitative research in health care. [online]. 2nd ed. London, BMJ Books. eBook Collection (EBSCOhost). Last accessed 04th March 2012 at: http://web.ebscohost.com.lcproxy.shu.ac.uk/ehost/ebookviewer/ebook/nlebk_53947_A/N?sid=ea8db480-bb70-47c6-bbe1-2981168ea75a@sessionmgr113&vid=1&format=EB

PORTER, Lyman, LAWLER, Edward and HACKMAN, Richard. (1975). *Behavior in organizations*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

PUCCIO, Gerard, MURDOCK, Mary and MANCE, Marie. (2007). *Creative Leadership: Skills that Drive Change*. London, Sage.

PUNCH. Keith, (2005). *Introduction to social research: quantitative and qualitative approaches*. London Sage.

QURAN, Surat Fāṭir, 35:28. [online]. Last accessed 20 February 2013 at: <http://quran.com/35>

QURAN, Surat Al-Mujādila, 58:12. [online]. Last accessed 20 February 2013 at: <http://quran.com/58>

QURAN, Surat Al-Alaq, 96:2. [online]. Last accessed 20 February 2013 at: <http://quran.com/96>

QURAN, Surat Al-Baqarah, 2:165. [online]. Last accessed 20 February 2013 at: <http://quran.com/2>

RICHARD, Daft and PATRICIA, Lane. (2011). *Leadership*. 5th ed., Australia, South-Western Cengage Learning.

RICKARDS Tudor and CLARK Murray. (2006). *Dilemmas of Leadership*. London, Routledge.

RITCHIE, Jane and LEWIS, Jane (eds.) (2003). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. London, Sage.

ROBBINS, Stephen. (1989). *Organizational behaviour*. 3rd ed., USA, Prentice Hall.

ROBBINS, Stephen. (2003). *Organizational behaviour*. 10th ed., USA, Prentice Hall.

ROSEN, Robert and BROWN, Paul. (1996) *Leading People: the 8 Proven Principles for Success in Business*. New York, Penguin.

ROSENTHAL, Simon. (1998). Determinants of collaborative leadership: civic engagement, gender or organizational norms? *Political Research Quarterly*, **51** (4), 847-868.

ROST, Clarence. (1993). *Leadership for the Twenty-first century*. New York, Prager.

RUSH, Myron. (2002). *Management: A Biblical approach*. 2nd ed., USA, Cook Communications Ministries.

SAUNDERS, Mark, LEWIS, Philip and THORNHILL, Adrian. (2012). *Research Methods for Business Students*. 6th ed., England, Harlow.

SCHERMERHORN, John, HUNT, James & OSBORN Richard. (1994). "*Managing organizational behaviour*". New York, John Wiley & Sons.

SIEGLE Del (2010). Likert Scale. Neag School of Education, University of Connecticut. [Online]. Last accessed 15 September 2012 at:

<http://www.gifted.uconn.edu/siegle/research/instrument%20Reliability%20and%20Validity/Likert.html>

SILVERMAN, David. (2010). *Doing qualitative research: a practical handbook*. 3rd ed., London, Sage.

- SIMMONS, I. Z. (1977). *A study of the relationship between leadership styles of elementary school principals and organizational climate of elementary schools as perceived- by teachers*. PhD. The University of Syracuse.
- SKOGSTAD, Anders, et al. (2007). The destructiveness of laissez-faire leadership behavior. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, **12**(1), 80–92.
- SMITH, Peter and PETERSON, Mark. (1988). *Leadership Organization and culture*. London, Sage.
- SPILLANE, James. (2006). *Distributed leadership*. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.
- STOGDILL, Ralph. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology*. **25** (1) 35-71
- STOGDILL, Ralph. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research*. New York, Free press.
- STOGDILL, Ralph and BASS Bernard. (1990). *Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research*. New York, Free press.
- STRAUSS, Anselm and CORBIN, Juliet. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research*. 3rd ed., London, Sage.
- SWEEDAN, Tariq. (Speaker). (2000). Ar-Rasoul Al-Qaa'd [The leader prophet] (Cassette Recording No. 142000323). Riyadh, Saudi Arabia: Qurtubah Corporation.
- SYMON, Gillian & CASSELL, Catherine. (1998). *Qualitative Methods and Analysis in Organizational Research: a Practical Guide*. London, Sage.
- TANNENBAUM, Robert, WESCHLER, Irving and MASSARIK, Fred. (1961). *Leadership and organization: a behavioral science approach*. New York, McGraw-Hill.
- THOMAS, David. (2006) A general inductive approach for analyzing Qualitative Evaluation data. *American Journal of Evaluation*, **27** (2), 237-246.
- THORPE, Richard, GOLD, Jeff and LAWLER, John. (2011). Locating Distributed Leadership. *International Journal of Management Reviews (IJMR)*, **13**, (3), 239-250.
- TRUEMAN, Chris. (2012). Direct Democracy. [online]. last accessed 30th October 2012 at: http://www.historylearningsite.co.uk/direct_democracy.htm
- TYRRELL, F and STINE, D. O. (1997). Transformational leaders for new organizations. *Thrust for Educational Leadership*, **27**, 34-35.

United Nations Statistical Division (UNSD). (2010). Libya - Population. [online]. Last accessed 2nd November 2012 at: <http://www.indexmundi.com/facts/libya/population>

Vallougi, Hashim. (2009). Higher Education Policy in Libya. [online]. Last accessed 28th ed. February at:

http://uqu.edu.sa/files2/tiny_mce/plugins/filemanager/files/4281116/f3.pdf

VANDEWALLE, Dirk. ed. (2011). *Libya since 1969. Qadhafi's Revolution Revisited*. UK, Palgrave Macmillan.

VANDEWALLE, Dirk. (2008). *A History of Modern Libya*. New York, Cambridge University press.

VANDEWALLE, Dirk. (1998). *Libya since Independence: Oil and State-Building*. New York. Cornell University press.

VERMA, Gajendra and MALLICK, Kanka. (1998). *Researching Education: Perspective und Techniques*. London, Falmer Press.

WALLACE, Jonathan. & WILKINSON, Bill. (2004), *Doing Business with Libya*. 2nd ed., London, Kogan Page Ltd.

WEST, Mel. and AINSCOW, Mel. (1991). *Managing School Development A Practical Guide*. UK, David Fulton Publishers.

WOOD, Martin. and LADKIN, Donna. (2008). The event's the thing: brief encounters with the leaderful moment. In: JAMES, Kim and COLLINS, James (eds.). *Leadership Perspectives*. UK, Basingstoke: Palgrave, 15-28.

WRIGHT, Peter. (1996). *Managerial Leadership*. London, Routledge.

YUKL, Gary. (1999). An evaluation of conceptual weaknesses in transformational and charismatic leadership theories. *Leadership Quarterly*, **10** (2), 285-305.

YUKL, Gary. (2002). *Leadership in organizations*. 5th ed., USA, Prentice Hall.

YUKL, Gary. (2006). *Leadership in organization*. 6th ed., USA, Prentice Hall.

YUKL, Gary. (2010). *Leadership in organization*. 7th ed., London , Pearson.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: List of interviewee responders (Deans & Chancellors)

Pseudonyms	Faculties	Universities
Dean A	Faculty of Veterinary & Agricultural Sciences	University (B)
Dean B	Faculty of medicine	
Dean C	Faculty of Economics- at Al Ajalaat	
Dean D	Faculty of Economics, zawyah	
Dean E	Faculty of preparing Teacher	
Dean F	Faculty of Low	
Dean G	Faculty of Science	
Dean H	Faculty of Arts	
Dean T	Faculty of Engineering	
Chancellor I		
Dean I	Faculty of Agriculture	University (A):
Dean J	Faculty of Economics	
Dean K	Faculty of Arts & Media	
Dean L	Faculty of Arts and Education	
Dean M	Faculty of preparing teacher	
Dean N	Faculty of Languages	
Dean O	Faculty of Physical Education	
Dean P	Faculty of Science	
Chancellor II		
Dean Q	Faculty of Economics	University (C):
Dean R	Faculty of Science	
Dean S	Faculty of Arts	

Appendix 2: Multifactor-Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

Appendix 2.1 Permission for using (MLQ)

For use by Massoud Nasr only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on March 28, 2009

**Permission for Massoud Nasr to reproduce 100
copies within one year of March 28, 2009**

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Leader Form, Rater Form and Scoring Key
(Form 5X-Short)

English and Arabic versions

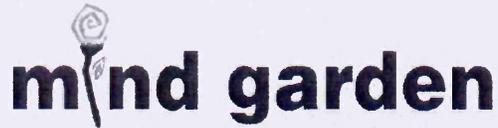
by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass

Distributed by Mind Garden, Inc.

info@mindgarden.com
www.mindgarden.com

Copyright © 1995 Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass. All Rights Reserved. It is your legal responsibility to compensate the copyright holder of this work for any reproduction in any medium. The copyright holder has agreed to grant one person permission to reproduce the specified number of copies of this work for one year from the date of purchase for non-commercial and personal use only. Non-commercial use means that you will not receive payment for distributing this document and personal use means that you will only reproduce this work for your own research or for clients. This permission is granted to one person only. Each person who administers the test must purchase permission separately. Any organization purchasing permissions must purchase separate permissions for each individual who will be using or administering the test. Mind Garden is a trademark of Mind Garden, Inc.

MLQRD, © 1995 Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass. All Rights Reserved.
Published by Mind Garden, Inc., www.mindgarden.com



www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

for his/her thesis research.

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read "Vicki Jaimez".

Vicki Jaimez
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

Sheffield Hallam University

Faculty of Organization and Management

Dear Respondents

I am studying a PhD in Organization and Management at Sheffield Hallam University, UK. I would be very grateful if you could help me by answering the following questions concerning Leadership style of Faculty Deans at Libyan Public Universities. Please give your answers sincerely as this will help guarantee the success of the investigation. Your contribution in completing this questionnaire is very much appreciated since it will help in understanding of Leadership styles at Libyan Public Universities.

Section A Demographic variables.

University-----Faculty-----Department-----

Position: - Head of department Lecturer Others-----

Gender: - Male Female

Age: - 20---30 31---40 41---50 51---60 61---70

What is your higher educational qualification?

BA/BSC Degree MA/MSC PhD Others -----

How many years have you been teaching? -----

Section B:- This section contains a list of 52 item questions; they are Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire,(MLQ) to measure the leadership style of Faculties Deans at Libyan Public Universities in terms of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership style.

DIRECTIONS: - Listed below are descriptive statements that may describe the leadership style of your faculty dean; for each statement I would like you to judge how frequently your current faculty dean has displayed the behaviour described. Please answer as honestly and as objectively as possible. Rest assured that all your responses are kept confidential. Please dedicate some of your valuable time by reading all the Questions and chose one of those five answers: - *(not at all)*-*(once in a while)* - *(sometimes)*-*(fairly often)*-*(frequently, if not always)*.

		Not at all	Once in a while	Some times	fairly often	Frequently if not always
1	Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her					
2	Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the Faculty					
3	Acts in ways that builds my respect for him/her					
4	Displays a sense of power and confidence					
5	Make personal sacrifices for others' benefit					
6	Reassures others that obstacles will be overcome					
7	Talks about their most important values and beliefs					
8	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose					
9	Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions					
10	Create exciting and new possibilities for the Faculty					
11	Talks about the importance of trusting each other					
12	Talks optimistically about the future					
13	Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished					
14	Articulates a compelling vision of the future					
15	Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved					
16	Provides an exciting image of what is essential to consider					
17	Takes a stand on controversial issues					
18	Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate					
19	Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems					
20	Gets me to look at problems from many different angles					
21	Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments					
22	Spends time teaching and coaching					
23	Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group					
24	Treats each of us as individuals with different needs, abilities, and aspirations					
25	Helps me to develop my strengths					

		Not at all	Once in a while	Some times	Fairly often	Frequently if not always
26	Listen attentively to others' concerns					
27	Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts					
28	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets					
29	Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved					
30	Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations					
31	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards					
32	Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures					
33	33) Keeps track of all mistakes					
34	Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards					
35	Fails to interfere until problems become serious					
36	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action					
37	Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."					
38	Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action					
39	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise					
40	Is absent when needed					
41	Avoids making decisions					
42	Delays responding to urgent issues					
43	Avoids dealing with chronic problems.					
44	Gets me to do more than I expected to do					
45	Heightens my desire to succeed					
46	Increases my willingness to try harder					
47	Is effective in meeting my job-related needs					
48	Is effective in representing the Faculty to higher authority					
49	Is effective in meeting Faculty requirements					
50	Is effective in Leading the Faculty					
51	Uses methods of leadership that are satisfying					
52	Works with us in a satisfactory way					

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

الاخوة الاعزاء

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

انا الطالب مسعود سالم علي نصر أبونجيم الموفد من قبل اللجنة الشعبية العامة للتعليم العالي لتحضير درجة الدكتوراه في مجال الادارة بالساحة البريطانية . أدرس حالياً في كلية الإدارة بجامعة شفيهد هلم بالمملكة المتحدة. من ضمن متطلبات البحث اجراء دراسة ميدانية على موضوع أساليب القيادة المدسوسة لعمداء الكليات في الجامعات العامة الليبية. وحيث وقع الاختيار عليكم ضمن عينات البحث لمعرفة مرنياتكم حول هذا الموضوع فأنتني آمل منكم التكرم بملء بيانات الاستبيان المرفق و الاجابة علي التساؤلات الواردة فيه بموضعية و دقة، لما في ذلك من اهمية و خاصة فيما يتعلق بالتوصيات التي ستبني على رأيكم، و التي بإذن الله سوف يكون لها الاثر الكبير في تحقيق الاهداف العامة للبحث. كما أود أن أؤكد لكم أن البيانات الواردة في هذا الاستبيان ستستخدم فقط لاغراض البحث العلمي، لذا توخينا عدم طلب ذكر الاسماء.

شاكرين حسن تعاونكم

اطيب التحيات

مسعود سالم علي نصر

القسم الاول: بيانات شخصية

الجامعة:-----الكلية-----القسم-----

المنصب : رئيس قسم محاضر

الجنس : أنثى ذكر

العمر: 70 - 61 60 - 51 50 - 41 40 - 31 30 - 20

ما هو مؤهلك العلمي :-

بكالوريوس/ ليسانس ماجستير دكتوراه مؤهلات اخرى-----

ما هو عدد السنوات التي قضيتها في مهنة التدريس -----

القسم الثاني:

البيانات المدرجة لاحقا هي بيانات وصفية قد تصف أسلوب قيادة عميد كليتك ((أمين اللجنة الشعبية للكلية)). لكل عبارة من العبارات المدرجة ادناه يرجى الحكم على سلوك عميد كليتك الحالي باختيار احد الخيارات الخمسة .

	لا اطلاقاً	نادراً جداً	أحياناً	غالباً	دائماً
1					
يُعزز الاعتزاز بنفسه لأنني مرتبط و اتعامل معه					
2					
يتغاضي عن مصالحه الشخصية مقابل مصلحة الكلية					
3					
يتعامل بطرق تولد الاحترام					
4					
يُظهر الثقة و الاعتزاز بنفسه وقدرته علي الاداء					
5					
يَعْمَلُ تضحيات شخصية لمنفعة الآخرين					
6					
يُطمئن الآخرين بامكانية التغلب على العقبات					
7					
يَتكلم معنا حول قيمه و اعتقاداته					
8					
يؤكد علي أهمية وجود شعور قوي أتجاه الأهداف و الغايات					
9					
يأخذ بعين الاعتبار النواحي الأخلاقية في قراراته					
10					
يَخْلُقُ إمكانيات مثيرة و جديدة للكلية					
11					
يَتحدّثُ عن أهمية الثقة المتبادلة					

	لا اطلاقاً	نادراً جداً	أحياناً	غالباً	دائماً	
12						يَتحدَّثُ بتفاؤل حول المستقبل
13						يَتحدَّثُ بحماس عما يجب تحقيقه
14						يعزز بُعد النظر للمستقبل
15						يُظهر النّقه في إمكانية تحقيق الأهداف
16						يبيدي صورة مثيرة لما يجب اخذه في الاعتبار
17						يَتَّخذُ موقفاً من القضايا الجدالية
18						يُعبيد النظر في الامور الحساسة ليتأكد من انها مناسبة
19						يبحث الأمور من زوايا و اتجاهات متعددة عند حل المشاكل و القضايا
20						يُشجّعني علي النظري الامور و المشاكل من عدة زوايا و اتجاهات
21						يَقترح طرق جديدة للنظر في تحقيق الأهداف و الواجبات
22						يبذل جهداً في التعليم و التوجيه
23						يعاملني كشخص مُميز و ليس مجرد فرد في المجموعة
24						يعامل كل منا حسب احتياجاته و و قدراته و تطلعاته المختلفة
25						يُساعدني في تنمية قدراتي و نقاط قوتي
26						يَسْتَمعُ بانتباه إلى مخاوف الآخرين
27						يوفر لي المساعدة و العون مقابل مجهوداتي
28						يناقش بدقة المسؤوليات الملقاه علي الفرد و ذلك لغرض تحقيق الأهداف
29						يُوضح المردود المتوقع ان يتلقاه الفرد عند تحقيقه للأهداف
30						يُعبر عن الرضي و السرور عندما انجز المطلوب و المتوقع
31						يُرَكِّزُ انتباهه على المخالفات، والأخطاء، و الاستثناءات، والانحرافات عن المعايير
32						يُرَكِّزُ كل أهتمامه في النظر بالشكاوي، والأخطاء ، وحالات الفصل

دائماً	غالباً	أحياناً	نادراً جداً	لا اطلاقاً		
					يُتَابَعُ وَيُلَاحَقُ كُلَّ الأَخْطَاءِ	33
					يُوجِبُ إِنْتِبَاهِي نَحْوَ حَالَاتِ الفِشْلِ مِنْ أَجْلِ الوَصُولِ لِلأَهْدَافِ	34
					يَفْشَلُ فِي التَّدْخُلِ لِحَلِّ القَضَايَا حَتَّى تُصْبِحَ خَطِيرَةً	35
					يَنْتَظِرُ حَتَّى تَحْدُثِ الأَخْطَاءُ ثُمَّ يَتَّخِذُ القَرَارَ	36
					يُعَزِّزُ الفِكرَةَ " إِذَا كَانَ الشَّيْءُ يَعْمَلُ لَا تَصْلُحُهُ "	37
					يُظْهِرُ بِأَنَّ المَشَاكِلَ يَجِبُ أَنْ تَكُونَ مَزْمَنَةً حَتَّى يَتِمَّ حَلُّهَا	38
					يَتَجَنَّبُ التَّدْخُلَ فِي القَضَايَا الحَسَّاسَةِ وَالمُهْمَةِ	39
					يَتَغَيَّبُ عِنْدَ الحَاجَةِ إِلَيْهِ	40
					يَتَجَنَّبُ اتِّخَاذَ القَرَارَاتِ	41
					يَتَأَخَّرُ فِي الرَّدِّ عَلَى الأُمُورِ المَسْتَعِجِلَةِ	42
					يَتَجَنَّبُ التَّعَامُلَ مَعَ المَشَاكِلِ المُزْمَنَةِ	43
					يُسَاعِدُنِي عَلَى القِيَامِ بِأَعْمَالِ أَكْثَرِ مَا أُتَوَقَّعُ	44
					يُعَزِّزُ رَغْبَتِي فِي النِّجَاحِ	45
					يُشْجِعُنِي لِلْعَمَلِ بِشَكْلِ جَادٍ أَكْثَرَ	46
					يُحَقِّقُ احتِجَاجَاتِي المَتَعَلِّقَةَ بِالعَمَلِ بِفَاعِلِيَّةِ	47
					يُمَثِّلُ الكَلِيَّةَ بِشَكْلِ فِعَالٍ لَدِي الإِدَارَةِ العَامَّةِ لِلجَامِعَةِ	48
					يَلْتَزِمُ وَبِشَكْلِ فِعَالٍ بِاحتِجَاجَاتِ الكَلِيَّةِ	49
					يَقُودُ الكَلِيَّةَ بِفَاعِلِيَّةِ وَنَشَاطِ	50
					يَسْتُخْدِمُ أسَالِيْبَ قِيَادِيَّةِ مَرْضِيَّةِ	51
					يَعْمَلُ مَعْنَا بِشَكْلِ مَقْتَنَعِ	52

Appendix 3: The interview guide

Appendix 3.1 Interviews Questions

Interviews of Deans of the Faculty at Libyan public universities

Interview no: -----

Date/time: -----

Interviewee/ Dean: -----

Interviewer: -----

Type of Faculty-----

University-----

Introduction

The purpose of this interview is to elicit information on the leadership style of Faculty Deans at Libyan public universities.

Demographic variables:-

Gender: (1) male (2) female

The purpose of these questions is to elicit information about Deans' Background

Q1: How long have you been Dean of this faculty?

Q2: What training programs in the field of Leadership and Management did you go through before being appointed as a dean of this Faculty?

Q3. May I ask you about your education background and your previous Job?

Q4: Could you please give me some background about the Faculty? (Size)..... (Organization "department")..... (Levels in the Hierarchy).

The purpose of these questions is to elicit information about Deans' Job and role in the Faculty.

Q5. What are your main responsibilities as the secretary of people's committee of this Faculty (Dean)?

Q6. What are the main difficulties you faced in your leadership of this Faculty?

Q7. What is your vision for the future of the faculty?

Q8. How do you evaluate the success of the Faculty? Please Explain, and give some examples?

The purpose of these questions is to elicit information about Deans' views regarding Leadership and their leadership styles.

Q9. What are your perceptions about the important of leadership in the faculty?

Q10. What are your perceptions regarding the characteristics of an effective leader?

Q11. Which of these leadership styles do you think best describes your Leadership style?

1. Leadership style that expands the interests of their staff, generates awareness and acceptance of goals and tasks, and stirs the staff to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the faculty community.
2. A leadership style that emphasizes corrective actions, mutual exchanges and rewards only when performance expectations are met.
3. A leadership style that avoids taking decisions and leaves things for their responsible people to make the decision.
4. Another Leadership style that you think best describes you?

Q12. Are there any constraints in the university system that hinders you from doing your job effectively? Please give examples.

Q13. How do you communicate with your staff? (Horizontal /vertically/ formal/informal/ sometimes/ frequently)

Q14. How do you consult with your staff? (Formal/ informal/written/spoken/Sometimes/ Frequently)

Q15. How do you motivate your staff?

The purpose of these questions is to elicit information about the relationship between success/ performance and Leadership styles.

Q16. To what extent do you think that your Leadership style influences the staff Performance? Please give examples.

Q17. What are the internal and external influences which affect your leadership performance? (The culture/social relationships/ power/ favouritism / Policy) Please give examples.

Q18. To what extent do you think that there is a relationship between the style of your leadership and the success of the Faculty? Please give some examples.

Q19. What do you think could be done to improve the performance of your leadership? And are there any support mechanisms that can help you develop your leadership style?

Q20. Is there anything else you would like to add about the subject of leadership in the Faculty?

أسئلة المقابلات

مقابلات عمداء الكلية في الجامعات العامة الليبية

- رقم المقابلة :
- الوقت و التاريخ :
- الضيف / عميد الكلية :
- المحاور:
- نوع الكلية
- اسم الجامعة :

المقدمة :

إن الغرض من هذه المقابلة هو الحصول عن معلومات عن أسلوب قيادة عمداء الكليات في الجامعات العامة الليبية.

المتغيرات السكانية: -

الجنس: (1) ذكر (2) أنثى

س 1: منذ متى وأنت عميد لهذه الكلية؟

س 2: ما هي الدورات التدريبية حول القيادة والإدارة مررت بها قبل أن تكون عميد لهذه الكلية؟

س 3. هل لي أن أسألك حول خلفيتك التعليمية وشغلك السابق؟

س 4: هل يُمكن أن تعطينا فكرة بسيطة حول الكلية؟ (عدد الطلبة) (الاقسام الموجودة) (اقسام اخري) ..

س 5. ماهي مسؤولياتك كعميد للكلية ؟

س 6. ما هي أهم الصعوبات التي تواجهها في قيادتك لهذه الكلية ؟

س 7. ماهي رؤيتك المستقبلية للكلية؟

س 8. كيف تُقيّم نجاح الكلية؟ رجاء وضّح، وأعطِ بعض الأمثلة؟

س 9. ماهي تصوّراتك حول أهمية دور القيادة في الكلية؟

س 10. ماهي تصوّراتك بخصوص خصائص القائد الفعّال او العميد الفعّال؟

س 11. أي من هذه الأساليب القيادية تعتقد أفضل لوصف أسلوب قيادتك؟

1. أسلوب القيادة الذي يُوسّع مصالح الموظفين، و يُولّد وعياً بقبول الأهداف والمهام ، ويُحرّك الموظفين للنظر ما بعد مصلحتهم الشخصية الخاصة لمصلحة الكلية.

2. أسلوب القيادة الذي يُوكّد علي تصحيح الإجراءات ، و منح الجوائز فقط عندما يتحقق المطلوب من الموظف.

3. أسلوب القيادة الذي يتجنّب أخذ القرارات ويترك الأمور إلى مسؤوليه للتفكير بأنفسهم.

4. أسلوب قيادة آخر تعتقد انه يتناسب معك ؟

س 12. هل هناك أي قيود في نظام الجامعة تُعيّقك عن القيام بعملك بكفاءة؟ رجاء أعطِ بعض الأمثلة.

- س 13. كيف تتصل مع موظفك؟ (بشكل أفقي / عمودي / رسمي / غير رسمي)----- (أحياناً / دائماً)
- س 14. كيف تستشير مع موظفك؟ (بشكل رسمي / غير رسمي / مكتوب / منطوق)----- (أحياناً / دائماً)
- س 15. كيف تحفز موظفك؟
- س 16. إلى أي مدى تعتقد بأن أسلوب قيادتك يؤثر على أداء الموظفين؟ رجاءً وضّح.
- س 17. ما هي المؤثرات الداخلية والخارجية التي تؤثر على أداء قيادتك؟ (الثقافة / علاقات إجتماعية / السلطة / وساطة / سياسة).
- س 18. إلى أي مدى تعتقد هناك علاقة بين أسلوب قيادتك ونجاح الكلية؟ رجاءً أعط بعض الأمثلة
- س 19. ما الذي تعتقد انه يمكن أن يُعمل لتحسين أداء قيادتك وهل هناك أي آليات يمكن ان تساعدك في تطوير أسلوب قيادتك؟
- س 20. هل هناك أي شيء آخر تود أن تضيفه حول القيادة في الكلية؟

Appendix 4: Copies of the Authorization letters

Appendix 4.1 Sheffield Hallam University Authorization letter



SHARPENS YOUR THINKING

26 February 2009

Tel (direct line): +44 (0) 114 225 4464
Fax: +44 (0) 114 225 5268
Email: e.brearley@shu.ac.uk

To Whom it May Concern

Mr Massoud Salem Ali Nasr

This letter is to confirm that Mr Massoud Salem Ali Nasr (Student ID: 15024067, DoB: 21/Apr/1971) is fully enrolled and registered as a Full Time Doctoral Research Student with the Faculty of Organisation & Management, Sheffield Hallam University. His period of study with the University began on 2 October 2006 and he expects to complete by 1 October 2010. Mr Nasr is in good standing with the University.

Mr Nasr's field of research is "Perceived Leadership Styles of Faculties' Deans at Libyan Public Universities" and he will be conducting essential fieldwork in Libya during the forthcoming months. Sheffield Hallam University would be grateful if you could offer Mr Nasr assistance and access to your institution during this time to allow him to gather the information necessary for his fieldwork studies.

If you need any clarification on the above information or need any further details, please contact me on the telephone number or email address shown above.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads 'Liz Brearley'.

Liz Brearley
Graduate School Administrator
Faculty of Organisation & Management



Faculty of Organisation and Management

Sheffield Hallam University Stoddart Building City Campus Howard Street Sheffield S1 1WB UK
Telephone +44 (0)114 225 5555 www.shu.ac.uk
Executive Dean of Faculty Professor Christine Booth

رئاسة العلاقات الخارجية والشؤون العربية والافريقية



الجمهورية العربية الليبية الشعبية الاشتراكية والعظمى

المكتب الشعبي - لندن

الشؤون الثقافية

التاريخ:

الرقم الإشاري:

رقم الملف: 4000

التاريخ: 2009/03/16

بداية الصرف: 2006/08/01

نهاية الصرف: 2009/07/31

اسم الطالب: مسعود سالم على نصر

الدرجة العلمية: الدفيقة

التخصص: ادارة

جامعة الفاتح/ جامعة ناظر/ جامعة 7 ابريل/ جامعة لسبها

بعد التتية،،،

الموضوع: تعريف

نفيدكم بأن الطالب المعني موفد من التعليم لتحضير الدرجة العالية في مجال ادارة بالساحة البريطانية، حيث بدأ عليه الصرف اعتبارا من 2006/08/01 م ، وينتهي عليه الصرف بتاريخ 2009/07/31 م.

أعطي له هذا التعريف لغرض استعماله فيما يخوله القانون

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،،،

د. سعيد محمد العزيم مناع
الايير التعليمي
المكتب الشعبي الليبي - لندن



<http://libyanembassy.org.uk/>

61-62 Ennismore Gardens, London SW7 1NH Tel: 020 7581 4142 Fax: 020 7581 2393

الجمهورية العربية السورية - اللجنة الشعبية للجامعة - الإشراف والإعانة

المعرفة حق طبيعي لكل إنسان

جامعة الفاتح



الرقم الإداري: 54-745

التاريخ:

الموافق: 26-7-2009

الإخوة/ أمناء اللجان الشعبية للكليات

تميم طيبم وبعد،،،،

نفيدكم بأن الأخ/ مسعود سالم علي نصر مآفد للدراسة بالخارج لنيل درجة الإجازة الدقيقة "الدكتوراه" في مجال الإدارة بجامعة شفيلد هلم بريطانيا ومن ضمن متطلبات بحثه إجراء دراسة ميدانية على موضوع أساليب القيادة المحسوسة لعمداء الكليات في الجامعات الليبية.

عليه

يؤمل منكم تعاون مع المعني لانتجاز الدراسة المطلوبة.

والله وليكم ورحمته وبركاته - السلام -

2009/7/26
عليه
26

د. عياد علي المصراي

الأمين المساعد للشؤون العلمية

صورة (أ):
- الأخ/ أمين اللجنة الشعبية للجامعة
- الأخ/ مدير مكتب التخطيط والمتابعة
- مكتب شؤون اللجنة الشعبية للجامعة
- الملف الثوري العمومي
د ط (تهاني)

المعرفة حق طبيعي لكل إنسان

التاريخ: 1 / 1 / 2014
الموافق: 29 / 6 / 14
الإشاري: ج.س.ب.ز. 382 / 1

الجمهورية العربية الليبية الشعبية الاشتراكية العظمى
اللجنة الشعبية العامة للتعليم والبحث العلمي
جامعة السابع من أبريل
الإدارة العامة

الأخوة // أمناء اللجان الشعبية للكليات.

بعد التحية :

نفيدكم بأن الأخ/ مسعود سالم علي نصر موفد للدراسة بالخارج لنيل درجة الإجازة الدقيقة (الدكتوراه) في مجال الإدارة بجامعة شفيلد هلم بريطانيا ، ومن ضمن متطلبات بحثه إجراء دراسة ميدانية على موضوع أساليب القيادة المحسوسة لعمداء الكليات في الجامعات الليبية.

عليه يؤمل منكم التعاون مع المعني لإنجاز الدراسة المطلوبة.

والس عليكم للام

د. مفتاح محمد المرابط

أمين اللجنة الشعبية للجامعة

مكتب التخطيط والمتابعة
ب.أ. مصطفى فوزية

+218237624035 +218237629501 +218237626383 +218237626238
Website: university7april.edu.ly Email: 7april.univ@ltnet.net

الفاتحة ثورة عالمية



الجامعة العراقية (البيئية والتنمية) للدراسات والبحوث
جامعة ناصر الأممية

التاريخ / /
الموافق 17/5/2022

الرقم الإشاري : 60...377...1377

الأخوة / أمناء اللجان الشعبية للكليات .

بسرور وسرور

تفيدكم ،،، بأن الأستاذ / مسعود سالم علي نصر أحد الطلبة الليبيين الموفدين للدراسة بالخارج لنيل الدرجة
الدقيقة الدكتوراه في مجال الإدارة بجامعة شيفلد هلم بريطانيا ومن ضمن متطلبات مجته إجراء دراسة ميدانية على
موضوع أساليب القيادة المحسوسة لعمداء الكليات والجامعات الليبية وبما أن جامعة ناصر الأممية من ضمن الجامعات
موضع الدراسة .

عليه ،،،

نأمل منكم التعاون مع المعني وتقديم المساعدة لإنجاز الدراسة المطلوبة .

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

د. منصور فرج الشكري
الأمين المساعد



م
أمن اللجنة الشعبية للجامعة
مدير إدارة شؤون أعضاء هيئة التدريس
مفتش والمساعدة
مسؤول الأمن المساعد
كرد علي

Appendix 5: Sample interview guide from a dean (anonymised)

Appendix 5.1 Interview record

Interviewee: - Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty²⁰

Interviewer: - Massoud Nasr

Faculty: -

University: -

Date / Time: - (29/06/2009) ----- (31:00 am)

Demographic variables:-

Gender: - Males

Email: -

Tell: -

MQ: First of all, I would like to Thank you for taking part of your time for this interview, which revolve around the perceived leadership styles of Faculty deans at Libyan public universities.

M: you are welcome and this is a part of our duty out of the encouragement of science and scientific research. Foremost, let me tell you about myself, I called **M** and have awarded a Master's degree and PhD from the University of Manchester in the United Kingdom in 1997. I obtained my BA degree from the Faculty of Economics and Political Science at the University of Garyounis - Libya with distinction with first class honors degree in political science. Between 1999 and 2001, I have received a position of Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty of Economics and Political Science of University (A). From 2001 to 2006, I worked as secretary of the School of Humanities Academy of Graduate Studies. My work at the academy was base on the path of cooperation. Beside all that, however, I also was the Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty of Economics and Political Science at University (B) since 2001 until now.

MQ: Can you please give us a simple idea about the Faculty?

²⁰ Secretary of the People's Committee of the Faculty ="Faculty's dean"

M: Of course, the University is a University of special as it is one of the most state universities in Libya. The university's genesis was most generous of the Leader of the Revolution Muammar Gaddafi to give kind opportunity for our brothers from Arab students and even Africans who are studying in different universities of the world where there were some kind of restrictions, ethnic problems and finance difficulties faced them. The guidance of AL-Gaddafi led to the establishment of this University and to be the University of Internationalism. However, due to some difficulties of receiving foreign students, their number at the moment is a bit lower than the target and is considered as low but the number of Libyan students are more 10 times than foreign. The number of students at the Faculty of Economics is within the limits of 3000 students. Those students are divided into six as the number of science departments of the Faculty which are: The Department of Political Science, The Department of Administrative, The Department of Accounting, The Department of Banking and Finance, The Department of Economics and finally The Department of the thought of the public.

MQ: What are the main difficulties you faced in your leadership of this Faculty?

M: The difficulties are one of the most challenges for any leadership, not only in this college, but also in the others. I can say they are similar, however, some difficulties are varying and depending on the quality of students who are at this University. For example; one of the difficulties was the huge number of students, when I was the Secretary of the Faculty of Economics and Political Science at Al-Fatih University; the number of students is up to about 10000 students. In my opinion, this is number of student should be in a university, and should not be in a Faculty. Also a lack of stability, either administrative or even educational, is one of the difficulties that you could face. The education systems, sometimes, are switched between school year system, open semester system and close semester system. Moreover, financial problems and finding stable resources is another issue. Although, nowadays, it is running smoothly and things are better than before, in the previous period there was a kind of lack in funds. Also, the asymmetry between the number of teachers and number of students; should be too close and this is another one. At certain period of time there was no asymmetric between the number of teachers and students, which led to slowdown in the educational process and it becomes difficult for the students to understand the curriculum as a result of the

massive numbers of students. This problem was found as a result of the few lecturers that we had. In terms of academic staff, actually even now, one of the problems that the Faculty of Economics at this University faced is that large number of academic staff are the ones with master's; the scientific bases are required for the Faculty to be balance of lecturers with master's and Doctor of Philosophy (PhD); means the ratio of proportionality between the number of PhDs and Masters, and even PhDs, themselves, must be professor or associate professor, and so on. I mean one of the problems is that most of the lecturers are a master degree holders, I mean it should be a scientific reference in every department in the Faculty so that young lecturers and recent graduates can fairly resort to professor or associate professor for some advices and scientific issues. This is the most of the problems in general.

MQ: What is your vision for the future of the Faculty; as a dean of the Faculty and as Assistant Secretary for Scientific Affairs?

M: I think that the Faculty of Economics provides the required careers in politics and public life to the market and thus I see that the future of the college and graduates is a good promising future. For example, accountants are needed anywhere and the market always has the ability to attract them, as well as the administrators and bankers etc. I think, the future of the Faculty in this respect is a bright and promising future. On the other hand, in terms of the possibility of Faculty development and improving the scientific aspect, we started long time ago in the adoption of quality standards by establishing a new office work to ensure the quality, and this office linked with the one which is recently established in the Secretariat of Higher Education that aimed to examine the quality of the educational standards and review the educational institutions. In fact, our Curricula programs and the performance of all our lecturers are measured and examined through this office, this is for the Faculty. At the level of the university, I think it is also a university of a special nature and its future is also promising in terms of openness to other universities in the Arab and African in terms of cooperation and sharing students, reception them and create the good environment for them to receive knowledge easily.

MQ: What is your view on the future possibilities for the Faculty?

M: In this University, contracts were signed to build integrated buildings for all Faculties and this project will be started soon, also I think that this project will solve many problems such as classrooms, libraries, administrative offices and a network of information and other essential problems. We have now computers and Internet, but they are not as required.

MQ: What are your perceptions about the importance of leadership in the Faculty?

M: There are two sides for leadership: - first is the management or the manager. It is a gift from the God Allah; it is the fact that the post of management or leadership at any level must have a certain specification and skills such as personality. Second is the side that completed by aspect of scientific. In other words, who would hold this position must be held a high degree and educated, as well as the experience which is very important. Humans have always to learn from their mistakes.

MQ: What are your perceptions regarding the characteristics of an effective leader?

M: The first character that you have to have is a sense of responsibility. The dean must feel as a responsible person, trustworthy; he must be always very firm with the staff as everybody knows the rules at the same time he should be flexible. This flexibility should not have adversely affected, but he should implement a policy of "Maaouya" "the first Khalifa of the Umayyad dynasty" who said, "Between me and the people is a piece of hair". Also he must be fair in terms of giving the opportunities for certain people and not others "Affection" and has no preference for people to others. He must have role models such as the English proverb says, "lead by example" which means that he must lead by example and must be careful and responsible.

M: which of these leadership styles that you believe it is the best to describe your leadership?

1. That expands the interests of the staff, generates awareness and acceptance of goals and tasks, and stirs the staff to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of faculty community.
2. That emphasizes corrective actions, mutual exchanges and rewards only when performance expectations are met.

3. That avoids taking decisions and leaves things for their responsible people to make the decision.
4. Different leadership style that you think best describes you?

MQ: of course, the third leadership style is rejected completely. However, the first and second leadership style could be combined. The first style is excellent whereas the second style is reasonable and important. For example, given motivations and awards is the base of second method. By the way, when awards, recognition and motivation are given for everyone, the meaning of the encouragement would be lost. In other words, not essential that you encourage for example 50 employees a year, which means there will be more incentive when encourage, motivate and honor two or three staff members than that you do for all staff members because the incentive would lose its meaning. Whoever not been honored this time could be honored next time. I am with the idea that honor is limited for specific number of distinct staff who actually gave something specific.

MQ: Are there any constraints in the university system that hinders you from doing your job effectively? Please give examples.

M: No there are no restrictions, even if there are restrictions it will be to reduce shed the person in charge, i.e. not for his position or his leadership to be in an authoritarian or dictatorial way of controlling the system. However, we suffer from the instability of the regulations which could be issued each year. In other words, once you try to consolidate and understand the Regulations to become the context of the work, new regulations could be existed and issued which indeed will eliminate the first one, and so on...

MQ: Do you think that this change affects the leadership?

M: Certainly, it has a negative effect on the leadership in Faculties. I think even if there was any necessary change in the Faculty regulation, it should not be changing in full. I mean that there is nothing wrong to change or modify some of the items or paragraphs in regulations as consistent with the requirements according to what we called (feedback).

MQ: How do you communicate with your staff? (Horizontally/ vertically; formally/ informally; sometimes/ frequently)

M: I have two ways that I am using to contact them: first, there are aspects to be wrapped communicate formally; second aspect is where the communication is not official, or a direct personal. The private staff that are always around the Dean, I have access to them as individuals, whereas things that have responsibilities the communication will be more formal and official.

MQ: who do you consult in this Faculty? and how?(Formally / informally; sometimes / frequently, verbally/ in writing)

M: Consultation is done through periodic meetings of the Popular Committee for the Faculty. This committee is consisted of number of members which are: the heads of departments, the heads of services departments i.e. director of administration and director of personnel, director of the graduate studies and finally the secretary of Faculty members. Those people who are always arrange meetings with them to discuss and get any advice in matters of the facility and developing strategies for future plans. Also at the meeting there will be some kind of motivation and alert for any new things, and also pointed to the warning if there is any mistakes in the past that we must be overcome. In terms of the indirect connection, It is almost daily and is also for consulting some of the things about the Faculty or any problems that we faced by trying to work out on it to be resolved. Also follow up the work of the employees, motivate them and make them aware of any mistakes in beautiful way by working together to address the problems. All of this is to make teamwork environment more collective and of mutual respect. In other words, work as a family, and this is what is known as the collective leadership.

MQ: How do you motivate your staff?

M: Of course, motivation is included moral and material aspects. The moral aspect would be through the thankful, praise and honor some times. The material aspect will be by given something unique i.e. given a monetary value as purpose of motivation.

MQ: To what extent do you think that your leadership style influences the staff performance? Please give examples.

M: I will leave you to answer this question. You can pass on all staff members and notes the extent of their activity and you can evaluate.

MQ: What are the internal and external influences which affect the performance of your leadership? (Cultural / social relationships; power / favoritism / policy) please give examples.

M: the environment where the administrative decision is applied will be very important. If this environment is predominantly by tribal or clan system, it will certainly be impacted by that system. For example, this University is located in Area called "Souq Alahed" which is not like the capital of Libya "Tripoli", although it is close to the capital. As the area of "Souq Alahed" is dominated by the patriarchal nature, you will find that the lack of meeting somebody's demand who is belonging to a certain family or certain clan or tribe will be reflected in the group of people related to him of the same clan. So, they will be upset and angry sometimes because that person, which is one of them, came to you asking for something and you rejected or refused that demand. In other words, you did not meet his request.

MQ: How do you evaluate the success of the Faculty?

M: Success is measured by outputs. Our goal is to graduate students at the highest scientific level possible and this is the ultimate goal. Sometimes we get us away and blindness from the ultimate goal, and get inside the management problems at the time that we are responsible to produce educated, qualified and trained people to the business market. The Faculty will be successful, when it graduates people who have the ability to perform the task that they expected to do. For example, when you graduate a successful accountant, successful management, successful economic and a successful politician that means in this case you made a successful Faculty.

MQ: To what extent do you think that there is a relationship between the style of your leadership and the success of the faculty? Please give examples.

M: they are 90% related to each other. I mean, unfortunately the personal side of management in Libya has become very important. In other words, we have a weakness in the stability of the administrative system. In many countries, the changing of the

faculty dean will not affect or change the administrative system and the Rules will remain consistent, which we do not have here in Libya. In any institution or university or college, you will find that its success or failure related to the person who is the dean.

MQ: What do you think could be done to improve the performance of your leadership? Are there any support mechanisms that can help you develop your leadership style?

M: my point of view is that: number (1) deans should be named and nominated on the basis of their record or their history of science. In other words, based on who is it? What he has provided so far? What is his experience and finally and most importantly what is the degree that he is holding? I mean, it should be ought to be given context. I mean Dean who has spent a certain period in the academic and administrative work and has got enough experience has the priority of the leadership of the Faculty. That means it is not necessary for the dean to be the oldest, but it is importantly for him to be acceptable in order to gain acceptance and satisfaction.

MQ: Do you intend to have a certain criteria, eg 5-year faculty member and another 5 years head of department and after the head has the right to advance to the post of dean of the Faculty and so on?

M: Yes, exactly. The second aspect, deans must to be given courses in the management. The Dean of the Faculty of Engineering, for example, in most cases is an engineer and had no enough idea for the administration. Therefore, it he must cover this shortfall by taking courses in management. I the other hand, there is management of engineering, hospital management and management of scientific. This kind of departments should be given to each Dean of the Faculty, at least for a month in the year.

MQ: Is there anything else would like to add on the topic of leadership in college?

M: No, thanks, I think that the questions were quite sufficient to speak on this subject.

Massoud: Thank you very much.

Appendix 6: Analysis of the (MLQ) Questionnaire

Appendix 6.1 University (A):

MEANS TABLES=Transformational LaissezFaire ExtraEffort Effectiveness Satisfaction BY Alb
/CELLS MEAN COUNT STDDEV.

Means: Al-Fatah University

		Notes	02-Jul-2012 16:33:31
Output Created			
Comments			
Input	Data Active Dataset Filter Weight Split File N of Rows in Working Data File	E:\My thesis Chapters\Massoud Data 3.sav DataSet1 A1a = 1 (FILTER) <none> <none>	
Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing Cases Used	For each dependent variable in a table, user-defined missing values for the dependent and all grouping variables are treated as missing. Cases used for each table have no missing values in any independent variable, and not all dependent variables have missing values.	58
Syntax		MEANS TABLES=Transformational LaissezFaire ExtraEffort Effectiveness Satisfaction BY A1b /CELLS MEAN COUNT STDDEV.	
Resources	Processor Time Elapsed Time		00:00:00.015 00:00:00.016

[DataSet1] E:\My thesis Chapters\Massoud Data 3.sav

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Transformational * Faculty	57	98.3%	1	1.7%	58	100.0%
Transactional * Faculty	58	100.0%	0	.0%	58	100.0%
LaissezFaire * Faculty	58	100.0%	0	.0%	58	100.0%
ExtraEffort * Faculty	58	100.0%	0	.0%	58	100.0%
Effectiveness * Faculty	58	100.0%	0	.0%	58	100.0%
Satisfaction * Faculty	58	100.0%	0	.0%	58	100.0%

Report

Deans	Faculty	Transformational	Transactional	LaissezFaire	ExtraEffort	Effectiveness	Satisfaction
Dean O	Physical Education Mean N Std. Deviation	64.9231 13 22.92183	25.8462 13 6.25628	4.9231 13 4.64510	8.0769 13 2.39658	10.4615 13 4.15563	5.5385 13 1.80810
Dean K	Arts and Media Mean N Std. Deviation	56.4000 10 14.61506	23.4000 10 3.83551	7.1000 10 6.34998	5.0000 10 2.98142	8.6000 10 4.94862	4.0000 10 2.78887
Dean I	Agricultural Mean N Std. Deviation	76.0588 17 17.89368	24.0000 18 5.64645	3.6667 18 4.43250	7.7778 18 3.09754	11.9444 18 3.43806	6.3333 18 1.71499
Dean M	Teacher Training Mean N Std. Deviation	64.5882 17 25.60288	23.4706 17 8.23193	3.1176 17 4.02930	6.8235 17 3.53969	10.8824 17 4.62172	4.9412 17 2.79443
	Total Mean N Std. Deviation	66.6491 57 21.75553	24.1552 58 6.32401	4.3793 58 4.82983	7.0862 58 3.18596	10.7241 58 4.27885	5.3448 58 2.38086

Appendix 6.2 University (B):

MEANS TABLES=Transformational Transactional LaissezFaire ExtraEffort Effectiveness Satisfaction BY Alb
/CELLS MEAN COUNT STDDEV.

Means: 7th of April University

Notes		02-Jul-2012 16:29:13
Output Created		
Comments		
Input	Data Active Dataset Filter Weight Split File N of Rows in Working Data File	E:\My thesis Chapters\Massoud Data 3.sav DataSet1 A1a = 2 (FILTER) <none> <none>
Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing Cases Used	54 For each dependent variable in a table, user-defined missing values for the dependent and all grouping variables are treated as missing. Cases used for each table have no missing values in any independent variable, and not all dependent variables have missing values. MEANS TABLES=Transformational Transactional LaissezFaire ExtraEffort Effectiveness Satisfaction BY A1b /CELLS MEAN COUNT STDDEV.
Syntax		
Resources	Processor Time Elapsed Time	00:00:00.000 00:00:00.000

[DataSet1] E:\My thesis Chapters\Massoud Data 3.sav

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Transformational * Faculty	49	90.7%	5	9.3%	54	100.0%
Transactional * Faculty	51	94.4%	3	5.6%	54	100.0%
LaissezFaire * Faculty	54	100.0%	0	.0%	54	100.0%
ExtraEffort * Faculty	53	98.1%	1	1.9%	54	100.0%
Effectiveness * Faculty	54	100.0%	0	.0%	54	100.0%
Satisfaction * Faculty	54	100.0%	0	.0%	54	100.0%

Deans	Faculty	Transformational	Transactional	LaissezFaire	ExtraEffort	Effectiveness	Satisfaction
Dean B	pharmacy / Medicine	Mean N	21.1667 6	1.1111 9	6.0000 9	9.7778 9	5.5556 9
	Std. Deviation	10.84221	3.97073	1.76383	2.44949	3.73423	1.01379
Dean C	Economy	Mean N	26.1667 6	2.6667 6	7.8000 5	13.3333 6	7.0000 6
	Std. Deviation	17.64936	7.67898	3.20416	2.38747	2.73252	1.54919
Dean A	veterinary & Agricultural	Mean N	28.5000 10	3.2000 10	9.1000 10	13.1000 10	6.5000 10
	Std. Deviation	12.36033	6.05989	2.29976	2.07900	2.07900	1.08012
Dean H	Arts	Mean N	25.6667 6	7.8333 6	6.3333 6	8.0000 6	4.6667 6
	Std. Deviation	21.47246	6.02218	4.49073	3.61478	4.60435	1.86190
Dean T	Engineering	Mean N	23.8333 6	6.5000 6	6.5000 6	10.0000 6	5.3333 6
	Std. Deviation	57.2000	4.66548	3.67423	1.64317	2.36643	1.03280
Dean G	Sciences	Mean N	21.3636 11	2.6364 11	7.1818 11	11.8182 11	5.8182 11
	Std. Deviation	68.0000	6.18503	3.50065	3.06001	2.82199	1.07872
Dean E	Teacher Training	Mean N	23.1667 6	2.8333 6	6.6667 6	13.3333 6	6.3333 6
	Std. Deviation	19.90645	4.40076	3.54495	3.44480	2.25093	1.75119
	Total	Mean N	24.3137 51	3.5185 54	7.1698 53	11.4259 54	5.9074 54
	Std. Deviation	16.92385	6.07450	3.66390	2.77860	3.38477	1.40442

Appendix 6.3 University (C):

MEANS TABLES=Transformational Transactional LaissezFaire ExtraEffort Effectiveness Satisfaction BY A1b
/CELLS MEAN COUNT STDDEV.

Means: Nasser University

		Notes	02-Jul-2012 16:36:16
Output Created			
Comments			
Input	Data Active Dataset Filter Weight Split File N of Rows in Working Data File	E:\My thesis Chapters\Massoud Data 3.sav DataSet1 A1a = 3 (FILTER) <none> <none>	
Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing Cases Used	For each dependent variable in a table, user-defined missing values for the dependent and all grouping variables are treated as missing. Cases used for each table have no missing values in any independent variable, and not all dependent variables have missing values.	20
Syntax		MEANS TABLES=Transformational Transactional LaissezFaire ExtraEffort Effectiveness Satisfaction BY A1b /CELLS MEAN COUNT STDDEV.	
Resources	Processor Time Elapsed Time		00:00:00.015 00:00:00.014

[DataSet1] E:\My thesis Chapters\Massoud Data 3.sav

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Transformational * Faculty	17	85.0%	3	15.0%	20	100.0%
Transactional * Faculty	20	100.0%	0	.0%	20	100.0%
LaissezFaire * Faculty	20	100.0%	0	.0%	20	100.0%
ExtraEffort * Faculty	20	100.0%	0	.0%	20	100.0%
Effectiveness * Faculty	20	100.0%	0	.0%	20	100.0%
Satisfaction * Faculty	20	100.0%	0	.0%	20	100.0%

Report

Dean	Faculty	Transformational	Transactional	LaissezFaire	ExtraEffort	Effectiveness	Satisfaction
Dean Q	Mean	84.2500	25.2000	1.6000	8.8000	13.6000	7.6000
	N	4	5	5	5	5	5
Dean S	Mean	7.84750	3.76829	1.14018	2.16795	3.04959	.89443
	Std. Deviation						
Dean J	Mean	73.8000	24.8000	2.4000	7.4000	13.4000	6.8000
	N	5	5	5	5	5	5
Dean R	Mean	11.77710	6.87023	1.81659	1.51658	2.60768	1.09545
	Std. Deviation						
Dean Q	Mean	69.5000	22.7500	4.5000	7.7500	9.7500	5.5000
	N	2	4	4	4	4	4
Dean R	Mean	16.26346	4.99166	5.19615	2.36291	5.05800	1.91485
	Std. Deviation						
Dean R	Mean	59.3333	18.0000	7.8333	5.0000	8.1667	4.6667
	N	6	6	6	6	6	6
Dean R	Mean	7.81452	4.00000	3.86868	1.78885	1.83485	.81650
	Std. Deviation						
Total	Mean	70.6471	22.4500	4.2500	7.1000	11.1500	6.1000
	N	17	20	20	20	20	20
Total	Mean	13.39282	5.54859	3.99835	2.33734	3.80132	1.61897
	Std. Deviation						

GET
 FILE='G:\My thesis Chapters\Massoud Data 3.sav'.
 DATASET NAME DataSet1 WINDOW=FRONT.

Appendix 6.4 Leadership styles of Faculty Deans

```

GET
FILE='F:\My Thisis\My thesis Chapters\Massoud Data 3v2.sav'.
DATASET NAME DataSet1 WINDOW=FRONT.
GRAPH
/BAR(GROUPED)=MEAN(Transformational) MEAN(Transactional) MEAN(LaissezFaire) BY Deans
/MISSING=LISTWISE.

```

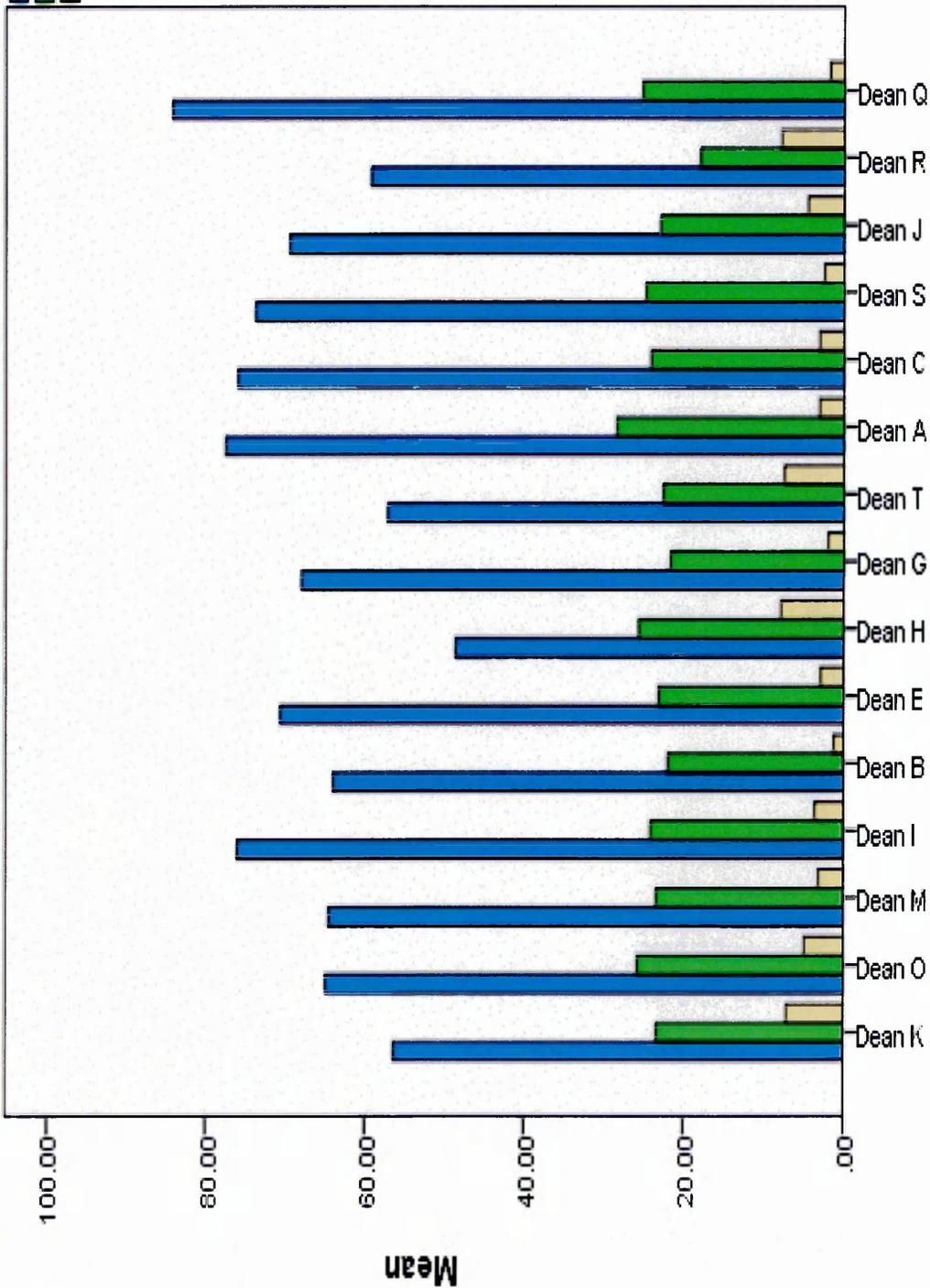
Graph

Notes

Output Created		23-MAY-2013 18:44:32
Comments		
Data		
Active Dataset		F:\My Thisis\My thesis Chapters\Massoud Data 3v2.sav
Filter		DataSet1
Weight		<none>
Split File		<none>
N of Rows in Working Data File		<none>
Syntax		GRAPH /BAR(GROUPED)=MEAN(Transformational) MEAN(Transactional) MEAN(LaissezFaire) BY Deans /MISSING=LISTWISE.
Resources		132
Processor Time		00:00:01.61
Elapsed Time		00:00:01.31

[DataSet1] F:\My Thisis\My thesis Chapters\Massoud Data 3v2.sav

■ Transformational
■ Transactional
■ Laissez-Faire



Deans

Appendix 6.5 The Outcome factors of Deans' leadership styles

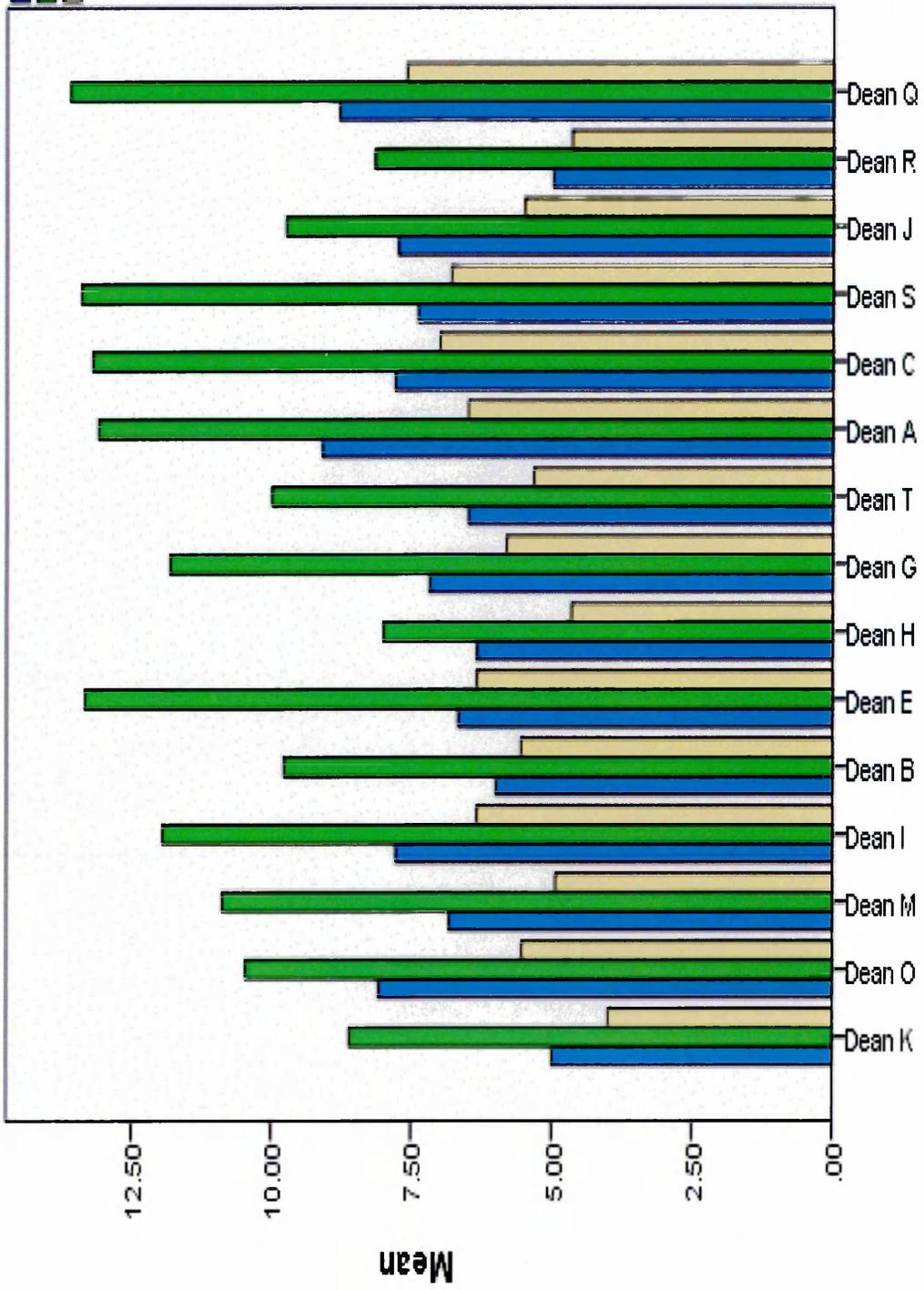
```
GRAPH
/ BAR (GROUPED)=MEAN (ExtraEffort) MEAN (Effectiveness) MEAN (Satisfaction) BY Deans
/ MISSING=LISTWISE.
```

Graph

		Notes
Output Created		23-MAY-2013 18:45:36
Comments		
Data		
Active Dataset		F:\My Thisis\My thesis Chapters\Massoud Data 3v2.sav
Filter		DataSet1
Weight		<none>
Split File		<none>
N of Rows in Working Data File		<none>
		132
Syntax		GRAPH /BAR (GROUPED)=MEAN (ExtraEffort) MEAN (Effectiveness) MEAN (Satisfaction) BY Deans /MISSING=LISTWISE.
Resources		
Processor Time		00:00:00.22
Elapsed Time		00:00:00.20

[DataSet1] F:\My Thisis\My thesis Chapters\Massoud Data 3v2.sav

ExtraEffort
 Effectiveness
 Satisfaction



Deans