



UNIVERSITY OF
LEICESTER

**An Exploration of how University Heads
of Departments (HoDs) come to
consolidate their leadership roles in the
Zambian Context**

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Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of
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Abstract

Given the widely recognised importance of effective leadership in universities (Hill, 2005) but not widely explored at the departmental level to provide insights on the roles and the required nature of leadership (Bryman 2007), this research responded to Haydon's (2007) call to generate new insights into the formation of the leadership character of the HoDs, their accession to roles and the necessary experiences to profoundly consolidate their leadership roles.

In line with the identity theory (Stets and Serpe, 2013), the research revealed that University HoDs' development of the 'self' started in the family in which they were raised. Through the hidden curriculum (Dewey, 1933), school administration complemented on the family moral education, affirming Coulter and Robbins' (2007) assertion that leaders develop their values at a young age from parents, teachers, friends and others and such values represent basic convictions about what is right and what is wrong. Therefore, good and appropriate behaviour is learnt from childhood at home and is reinforced at school.

Accession into roles was characterised by culture shock (Bush, 2016) as many found mammoth administrative functions, heavily laden with huge expectations, in which they were not adept. Even though many positively perceived their roles, most of them did not comprehend their leadership identity and lacked knowledge on strategic development and alignment. The majority of them pacified seniors for self-preservation (Bullingham and Vasconcelos, 2013).

Consequently, they craved reflective experiential learning (Earley, 2020) to develop requisite competencies to enable them to execute their roles effectively. The findings, therefore, confirm that Knowledgeability and expertise to lead effectively are closely tied to social relationships leaders develop with organisational members and profound understanding of the wider context (Knight and Trowler, 2001) in which they are located and such learning is fostered by direct socialisation (Burke and Stets, 2009) into the dominant cultural capital.

These findings add to our understanding of the inherent gaps in how academics develop their Leadership Identity. The findings reveal the need to create coherence between understanding of person and leadership identities on one hand, and organisational context and expectations on the other. The findings will, therefore, enable policymakers to devise guidelines to foster the professional development of academics into leaders that would effectively contribute towards offering quality education in universities.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ALF - African Leadership Forum

BERA - British Educational Research Authority

EA – East Africa

GLOBE - Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness

HEA – Higher Education Authority

HEI - Higher Learning Institution

HoD – Head of Department

LDM – Leadership Development Model

SSA – Sub-Saharan Africa

1 Chapter One: Introduction

This chapter explains the rationale of the research on how Heads of Departments (HoDs) in a Zambian University learned to consolidate their leadership roles. The rationale is situated in the research background and the local context.

1.1 Research Background

The importance of effective leadership in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) has become a strategic imperative (Marzano *et al*, 2005) and is considered as one of the key success factors in setting direction, developing people, mobilising and aligning resources and effectively leading teaching and learning (Day *et al*, 2011). However, in line with Hume's (2008) assertion that peoples' life experiences add to their understanding of social phenomena, the importance of effective leadership in higher education does not seem to be eminent throughout my work experiences. Since 2006 when I joined the mining industry in Zambia as a Training Officer, until now working as a Management Consultancy in a high-profile regional human capital development organisation (ESAMI), I have observed that much of the training on offer at best provides awareness about management and leadership and not the much-required development. Employees in positions of authority are taught about what good leadership and management entail and are expected to become effective leaders without being grounded in critical requisite core leadership skills and virtues. Most of the management and leadership programmes are knowledge-based, probably because faculty who deliver the training lack grounding in the core leadership competencies and virtues. Furthermore, the linkage among leadership skills, values and behaviours are seldom made clear to learners, let alone understood by most of the faculty, who deliver such programmes.

Prompted by the 'Peter Principle' which states that in organisational hierarchies employees tend to rise to their levels of incompetency (Peter and Hull, 2009), learned through my Master of Science in Educational Management and Leadership, I developed the urge to gain insights on how HEIs should minimise or avoid promoting academics without requisite leadership competencies into administrative positions whose effectiveness hinges on having such competencies. As Evans (2017:135) posits,

“as a result of lack of leadership development, professors are described as arrogant, self-centred, self-obsessed, and whose academic leadership [is] reported as falling short”. It is imperative, therefore, that such apparent negativity is a signal for the great need to develop faculty’s academic leadership competencies. Being a trainer in the leadership and management development fraternity, this research on how faculty transition from being academicians into effective leaders is greatly helpful in my professional endeavour.

My urge to pursue how the knowledgeability to lead develops was further aroused by Knight and Trowler’s (2001:166) claim that “there is a surprising shortage of books on learning to lead, although plenty on leadership”. They highlight that majority of the literature treat leadership as a generic activity and contains plenty of details, complemented by many bullet point lists, charts and summaries, of what leaders could do, should and how they might do it; makes plenty of use of wider management and leadership theories; have virtually nothing to say about how to learn to lead. Effective leadership is particularly significant for faculty who become HoDs, as Bryman (2007:694) asserts, “The department represents a crucial unit of analysis in universities ... a key administrative unit for the allocation of resources, and the chief springboard for the organisation’s main teaching and research activities” hence requires effective leadership of those superintending over the affairs of the departments. Quoting research done by Wright and O’Neil (1992-3) on factors that foster the improvement of quality teaching in universities in Canada, USA and UK, Ramsden (1998:63) said, “Leadership of the Dean and Departmental Heads was ranked as the most important by respondents ...”. Respondents stressed on creating an environment conducive for effective teaching as a responsibility that rests squarely with HoDs; where learning and teaching are organised and directed (Gillet-Karam, 1999).

Generally, HoDs are expected to promote excellence in research and teaching, distribute duties fairly, support the development of professional and general staff, and work collaboratively with colleagues to improve the image of the Department (Brodie and Partington, 1992). They are expected to create a “... supportive environment where dialogue about teaching is encouraged and good teaching is modelled in

practice” (Ramsden, 1998:69). Branson *et al*, (2016) considered HoDs as middle leaders who are expected to articulate what faculty is supposed to do and in what direction efforts are more required. They are expected to be the liaison between academic staff and senior administrators in disseminating information and their efforts should contribute towards improved quality education offering.

While the importance of effective leadership is widely recognised, the strategies for effective leadership development in HEIs are not institutionalised as compared to the business world. The Academics who eventually take up leadership positions and roles are not recruited for their leadership potential, but rather are selected and rewarded for their research, course development, and/or teaching (Hill, 2005). Their orientation and prequalification presumably focus them on discipline-based obligations of research and scholarly work and this could be the reason people issues are neglected. Consequently, responsibilities relating to strategic thinking, innovation, envisioning the preferred organisational future, initiating and managing change may also be underperformed. This research focused on understanding the leadership development of university HoDs who are world-widely known by several titles, including Department Head, Academic Leader, Department Chair, Division Dean or Academic Dean (Gillet-Karam, 1999). The local context below provides more insights on the general need for effective leadership not only in the educational fraternity but also in many other sectors.

1.2 The Local Context

Effective leadership in any organisation is important as “no society can continue to evolve without it, no family or neighbourhood holds together in its absence, and no institution prospers where it is unavailable” (Astin and Astin, 2000: IV). Sadly though, in SSA, leadership has not been explored in much depth (Eckerts and Rweyongoza, 2010) and literature on the nature of leadership is limited (Bolden and Kirk, 2009) as such, imposing limitations on making generalisations on the nature of African leadership (Kuada, 2010). With the realisation of the impact of effective leadership on political, economic and social development and the general wellbeing of people

(Folarin, 2010), there is the heightened quest for explanations for the dismal economic growth in SSA (Kuada, 2010).

1.2.1 Call for Effective Leadership in SSA

Despite having had different leaders in different countries at different times, Africa has had similar economic performance flaws for decades (Adeyemi, 2017). Such flaws result in “Africa’s poverty ... because African leaders have made poor choices and decided to keep the continent in abject poverty” (Mgaya and Poncian, 2015:106). Folarin (2010) does not only cite the declining quality of leadership but also the non-existent of exemplary leadership as the major cause, arguing that leadership weaknesses constitute the major reason for Africa’s poor economic performance because leaders are ineffective and poorly adapt to the increasingly complex globalised economic systems. According to Adeyemi (2017), the leadership ineptness in most African countries reflects the leadership culture in both government and other sectors. Adei (2004) posits that poor leadership is Africa’s major crisis; suggesting that the African renaissance will depend on highly improved leadership. Adeyemi (2017) adds that the development of leaders with exceptional character and leadership skills is critical for Africa’s development.

Reflecting on Africa’s underdevelopment, Littrell (2011) posits that the first top political African Leaders assumed power without grounding in leadership and administrative skills to foster effective strategic alignments, policy development and implementation as well as the development of effective governance systems. Even their successors are believed to assume and retain power through a balance between acts of benevolence to supportive ethnic groups and brutal dictatorship against the opposition and not based on evident sound economic development policies. Folarin (2010) categorises African leadership challenges into three; the contextual, the personal and the changing paradigms. The contextual turbulent issues comprise the historical, environmental, diseases, poverty, wars, political instability and general underdevelopment. At the personal level, he highlights a lack of self-development and ineptness in performance management systems. He however downplays the impact

of the changing paradigms caused by pandemics and outside influences as he says such could be mitigated by corrupt-free leadership.

Despite Africa being diverse, corruption issues seem to be common. Many countries tend to be plagued by high levels of corruption whose effects are insidious and go well beyond requests for bribes and favours (Littrell, 2011). Corruption "... characterises some African Administrators" (Wanasika *et al*, 2011:239) manifested through nepotism and cronies that can be likened to dynasties. Cronyism could lead to increased blind patronage that may inhibit the development of effective leadership competencies, meritocratic considerations and performance. Folarin (2010) urges African leaders to stop running their nations like their personal estates and misusing power for their gains at the expense of the suffering masses. Similarly, Pochian and Mgaya (2015) posit that African leaders are actually at the centre of persistent corruption, accusing them of aiding illicit financial outflows and capital flight, frustrating local ingenuity as well as leading states as their personal property. Folarin (2010) echoes that endemic corruption, skewed budget allocations and a corroded fabric of state-society relations, often continue to undermine the potential for successful development, and in some cases even foster bloody conflicts.

A seminar on Corruption, Democracy and Human Rights held in EA in 1994 revealed that no country legitimised corruption and every country has laws to fight corruption cases. However, the collapse of institutions designed to contain corruption had worsened the situation rendering ineffective the regulatory and institutional frameworks in enforcing the standards of good corporate governance. It was reported that corruption at higher levels frequently occurred during international transactions. Nepotism was reported to have been equally rife in business and seriously damaged the ethics of organisations and the prospects for development. It was further noted that corruption weakened the link between people and their rights to protection leading to serious human rights abuses. The report reinforced the view that corruption in public institutions obscured chances for a better life for ordinary citizens. Ebben *et al*, (2009) acknowledged that corruption and unethical practices scar Africa's business image as many obstacles exist that frustrate the quest for good corporate governance.

Practical and doable suggestions are that Africa should establish national codes of corporate governance such as the King Reports of 1994 – 2009 for the Republic of South Africa, the Ghana Manual on Corporate Governance of 2000 and Zimbabwean Principles for Corporate Governance of 2000. However, the problem is that in most countries, very little guidance is provided on how these business ethics can be institutionalised (Ebben *et al*, 2009). The challenge, therefore, is on how Africa can translate espoused commitment into organisational practices, act on high ethical standards and specific moral obligations to shape organisational ethics through ethical decision making, building ethical cultures, establishing authentic disciplinary management practices and modelling ethical behaviours.

The Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) research project findings on managerial leadership and culture in SSA (Wanasika *et al*, 2011) amplify the purported corruption. The research was conducted in Nigeria, Namibia, Zambia, Zimbabwe and South Africa compiled from the literature on African leadership, media reports on leadership practices and managerial views on dominant African leadership themes. From the media reports, high corruption, tribalism, violence and a desire for change and economic development were found. Corruption in both public and private organisations was reported to be rampant and an apparent cause and effect relationship between the position of authority and corruption was eminent, as well. Leaders misused their authority to accumulate wealth and protected their positions at any cost. The literature indicated that African leaders ascended to power with minimal leadership competencies and did not seem prepared to deal with post-independence challenges. Wanasika *et al* (2011:235) echo, "Leaders often retained power through a balance between acts of benevolence to supportive ethnic groups and brutal dictatorship against the opposition". Dissenting views are therefore not tolerated but suppressed violently to preserve the corruptly acquired wealthy, unfortunately, beneficial to the cronies and relatives only.

Littrell (2013) agrees that African leaders are duty-bound to satisfy the social and economic needs of their relatives. They feel compelled to distribute scarce resources to clans and ethnic affiliates as a natural responsibility of leadership. While this sounds to be a virtuous act, leaders may be pressured to satisfy the social obligations to their

crones and hence compel subordinates to render unconditional obedience to their instructions and directives to fulfil such obligations, whether such was ethical or not. Adeyemi (2017) adds that African leaders don't serve; they are served because occupying leadership positions make leaders superior and unaccountable to the people they lead. Patronage and ethnicities outweigh professionalism based on performance. Responsibilities of leaders to their extended families, tribes or ethnic groups superseded performance-based reward systems. Leaders promote nepotism and paternalism but such acts are some of the vices skilled and effective administrators are expected to redress.

1.2.2 Sustainable Models of Leadership Required

Given the dysfunctional leadership that has taken a heavy toll on Africa's development, made corruption endemic, creating skewed budget allocations, impairing social relationships, undermining the potential for successful economic development, and in some cases fostered bloody conflicts, Adeyemi (2017) suggests reconsidering the African leadership prospects by assessing the entire leadership culture. He argues that top leaders usually position themselves and their cronies above the law and inhibit the development of potential and viable young leaders. Most young people in Africa are hungry to learn and to realise their potential but need respected mentors and resources to help them navigate the complex challenges they face. He laments the lack of institutions to help young persons to realise their leadership potential.

Having perceived the African Leadership culture as 'permission seeking', Adeyemi (2017) advocates for leadership development that takes cognisance of the culture in which the leader is embedded. In support, Poncian and Mgaya (2015) suggest looking into the African pre-colonial past and digging into Africa's past leadership successes and challenges, building on these in combination with other relevant recipes to enable leaders to develop the capacity to resolve the challenges confronting the continent. However, Folarin (2010:8) argues that the youth best learn through new and good examples;

"While old information, which is a product of history and traditions can be helpful to know the foundation of the African state, new information needs to

be sought to build on the foundation. What this implies therefore is that new and fresh ideas should govern modern Africa as old ideas may have run out of tune with current trends”.

Folarin (2010) adds that the attitude of living in the past glory is another fundamental cause of leadership problem in Africa as he adduces that leadership is a thing of tomorrow, not of the past.

Aligning leadership development to past or prevailing culture has been supported by many scholars. Kuada (2010) posits that 1980 studies have suggested that culture provides a frame of reference or logic by which leadership behaviour can be understood since shared cultural values and norms bind members of a society or organisation together as a homogenous entity. Therefore, the leadership styles and behaviours are culture-bound and so are the behaviours of employees in work organisations. By and large, he describes African culture as autocratic. Adeyemi (2017) echoes that African culture induces fear in subordinates due to high conservativeness that makes it difficult for subordinates to refuse to carry out unethical instructions from seniors. Consequently, employees tend to be closely supervised rather than empowered and encouraged to think independently and creatively to foster organisational agility (Kuada, 2010). In such a high power-distance relationship, signified by status differences between leaders and ordinary workers, “often workers have to render unconditional obedience to instructions and directives” (Littrell, 2011:71). At best, employees tend to act with extreme caution, as their principal function is to be loyal and serve as a buffer for their immediate superiors (Kuada, 2010). The resultant passiveness of workers under such repressive regimes does not foster productivity for individuals or organisations (Poncian and Mgaya, 2015) instead, employees become very reluctant to question wrong practices for fear of negative reprisals.

What Africa needs is leadership that champions “broadly shared visions of the future that effectively melds the demands of globalisation with local values” (Folarin, 2010:9). This need aligns with Kotter’s (1999:10) definition of leadership as “... development of vision and strategies, the alignment of relevant people behind those

strategies, and the empowerment of individuals to make the vision happen, without obstacles". Without visionary leadership, there would be little development in all spheres of African sectors since effective leadership is visionary and such is what Africa needs in the 21st century (Folarin, 2013).

From the above discourse, three critical leadership functions - establishing direction, aligning and motivating, and empowering people, arise. Establishing direction entails developing a vision of the future and devising strategies to attain the envisioned future. Aligning involves communicating the direction by words and deeds to all whose cooperation will be needed to achieve the objectives as Achua and Lussier (2010) say, great leaders, communicate a clear, consistent, and simple vision that everyone in the organisation can rally around. The leader's ability to communicate effectively empowers others to accomplish organisational goals and connect people both to each other and to an envisioned future. Every organisation requires a commitment to common goals and values (Drucker, 2001). Such goals and values must be simple, clear and should provide a common vision that would lead to satisfying the needs of stakeholders.

Aligning is successful only when peoples' efforts and expectations are focused towards the set goals through motivation and inspiration that entail energising people to overcome major challenges through the satisfaction of their basic human needs (Achua and Lussier, 2010). Drucker (quoted by Cohen, 2010:7) adds, "leadership is the lifting of a man's vision to higher sights, the raising of a man's performance to a higher standard, the building of a man's personality beyond its normal limitations" implying that leaders must understand those they wish to lead, and help them develop their potential to perform optimally. Leadership is, therefore, the ability to inspire and encourage others to overcome challenges, accept continuous change and achieve goals. It is also about influence to set, align and rally people towards collective goals (Hogg, 2001). Hogg (2001) adds that leaders have differential abilities to influence attitudes, practices, decisions, and actions of those they lead.

McShane (2009) states that leading is a process of motivating, influencing and directing others in the organisation to work productively in pursuit of organisational

goals and entails articulating a grand strategic vision for an organisation and becoming a tireless advocate for that vision. It also involves listening to others, learning from them and empowering them to pursue actions that benefit both the organisation and the individuals. Empowerment is an important aspect of developing employees (Drucker, 2001) that involves training and mentoring but “unfortunately ... many managers are not good at this function...” (McShane, 2009:10). People are the most important asset of an organisation and developing employees is the core linkage with other managerial functions.

The above definitions depict that leadership is a purposeful process that is inherent value-driven, flourishes on employee engagement (Vance, 2006) and is driven by the quality of the relationship between leaders and followers. Such relationships should be defined by respect and humility, healthy conversations without allowing emotions to overrule reason, inspiring rather than micro-managing, and fostering collective success (Karina and Schener, 2018). Therefore, the ability to inspire and stimulate others to join in pursuit of worthwhile purposes is one of the common characteristics of effective leadership.

Effective leaders can get people of different personalities and values to agree on what is important and move forward. Without establishing common values, leaders may not be successful in their pursuits since “leadership is leaders acting – as well as caring, inspiring and persuading others to act for certain shared goals that represent the values - the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations – of themselves and the people they represent” (Philips 1998:23). Leaders should, therefore, be authentic in their pursuits by acting and caring about not only what they value but also what is in the interest of others who also have a stake in the purposes being pursued. Inspired, enlightened and honest leadership, with a passion to transform Africa, is highly sought to foster the much-needed development in all sectors as ALF (1988:15) argued;

"It is quite clear therefore that Africa cannot afford to continue its journey with ill-prepared and unassisted leaders. Those on whom the burden of leadership will fall in future must fully comprehend the nature of their responsibilities, duties and obligations... they must be given all the necessary exposure and

carefully planned preparation to be able to meet the challenges that they will inevitably face”.

Effective leadership development is possible but only through properly managed and led higher learning institutions (Folarin, 2013).

1.2.3 Need for Effective Leadership in Universities

Many universities in SSA have experienced increased demand for higher education which has, in turn, complicated the leadership responsibilities as expansion caused the decline of the quality of education as resources depleted (World Bank, 2000). In East Africa (EA) the decline in academic performance and scholarship due to the rapid and unplanned expansion that did not consider existing capacity became eminent and evident (Zelen and Olukoshi, 2004). The expansion unmatched with the corresponding growth in the number and quality of lecturers to ensure an efficient and effective lecturer-student ratio became the norm. These problems rest squarely with the calibre of management and leadership of these institutions.

The increased enrolment in EA was not aligned with the corresponding rationalisation of the administrative structures and staffing for efficient academic support, consequently, this affected the quality of teaching and learning, with financial difficulties, ineffective leadership and poor management complicating the situation further (Zelen and Olukoshi, 2004). As a result, few HEIs were performing to a consistently high standard as they struggled to cope with mass higher education that created larger class sizes, more diverse groups of students and different student attitudes (World Bank, 2000).

Kenya, an East African country, witnessed an explosion in HEI enrolments creating enormous pressure on the education systems given unmatched government funding with the expansion (Odhiambo, 2014). To cope, students were required to pay fees to cater for tuition, registration, meals and accommodation as a cost-sharing response to supplement the declining government funding. Such endeavours have resulted in mass enrolment as the only available strategy to raise enough funding to meet the ever-increasing cost of offering university education. Consequently, HEIs have

changed from being elite and become a mass system without commensurate changes to leadership to cope with the required demands and expectations as Odhiambo (2014) says;

"... Higher education in Kenya is experiencing changes in the form of expansion, diversification of provision, more heterogeneous student bodies, new funding arrangements, increasing focus on accountability and performance, global networking, mobility and collaboration. These changes have challenged higher education leadership with the need to revise mission statements, assess the impact of new sources of funding, meet requirements for accountability and consider globalisation and the impact of international competitions."

Such changes have forced HEIs to operate as private entities focused on profit and responding to market forces, seeking more private funding like any other business enterprise, fostering the higher need for leaders to focus on the key tasks, building and developing teams and staff to work at optimal levels to offer competitive quality education. Unfortunately, and contrary to high expectation in enhanced leadership and management skills in people entrusted to superintend over public HEIs, deployment and promotions in such institutions have been largely influenced by party politics where the government has tended to reward academics who are considered political supporters (Gatahi, 2010; quoted by Odhiambo, 2014). Furthermore, in Zambia, a Southern African country, the expanded enrolment raised teaching workload that left little time for the development of research and postgraduate training and resulted in the loss of international credibility due to prolonged closures and disturbances (Kelly, 1999).

While acknowledging that higher education systems had expanded drastically after independence in many African countries, Gulhuti (1990) maintains that universities continued to produce relatively low-quality Arts and Humanities graduates who could not contribute much to professional policy work. Similarly, the 1988 African Leadership Forum (ALF) reported that Africa had not yet developed the capacity to formulate long-term strategies. Even the few skilled personnel that were available were not utilised fully due to unfavourable working environments. At the apex of the civil

service, policy and strategic issues occupied an insignificant proportion of work and “work aimed at adapting their organisation’s missions to changing environment was much less prominent...” (Gulhuti, 1990:1151). Contrary to Okpaku’s (1994:999) expectation that “The most significant requirement for creating a desirable 21st Century Africa is excellent governance with responsibility, accountability, transparency, creative vision, and the full and active participation by all citizens”, the corporate and political leaders seem to tolerate or embrace corruption.

On this basis, the Zambian government, soon after independence, embarked on university education to enhance the leadership competencies of public officers in various administrative positions (Mwanakatwe, 2013).

1.2.4 Need for University Education in Zambia

The need for higher education in Zambia set in with the advent of independence when the government needed qualified manpower in administrative positions. It was highly perceived that unless Zambians were appointed to most of the key administrative jobs in the public sectors, the independence for which the people had fought so bravely and strenuously was bound to be a sham (Mwanakatwe, 2013) as Zambia compared unfavourably with other former British colonies in terms of available local educated manpower on the eve of independence in October 1964. The number of Zambian graduates at the end of 1964 was estimated at one hundred (100) and rose to one thousand five hundred (1,500) by 1965, while the requirements of educated and skilled manpower were four thousand (4,000) people in the professional and administrative roles and fifteen thousand (15,000) (92% shortfall) in the ‘middle ranks’ of government service, industry, commerce and other fields (Mwanakatwe, 2013). Carmody (2016:171) also affirms, “At independence, the majority of Zambia’s population had not been to school. Only nine hundred sixty-one (961) had passed their school certificate and the country had one hundred and seven (107) university graduates”. Similarly, Kelly (1999) stated that at independence the most immediate and perhaps the most serious handicap Zambia faced was the extreme shortage of high-level manpower hence the quest to establish university education based on the

1963 Lockwood Commission Report¹. This led to the plan to enrol one thousand six hundred (1, 600) university students in 1970 in various disciplines including administration with a projection of one thousand two hundred (1, 200) graduates per year (ZNDP, 1966).

The Lockwood Commission recommended establishing fully-fledged universities from the start without affiliating them with older universities for learning purposes (Lockwood et al, 1963). However, Kelly (1999:1) had cautioned, "Risks will be taken, as elsewhere, in promoting young and inexperienced men and women to responsible positions". The recommendations were two-fold: Firstly, that the universities must be responsive to the real needs of the country; and secondly, they should merit the respect and proper recognition of the university world without which, universities will fall short of meeting their national responsibilities. The Universities were thus obliged to fulfil these dual responsibilities of meeting the national needs without compromising on the academic rigour (Carmody, 2016). Kelly (1999) added that the universities were expected to combine the practical service to the nation with the fulfilment of the historic purpose of a university as a set of learning, a treasure house of knowledge and a creative centre of research. The commission also recommended that the universities should combine higher and further education into one rather than handling them separately as done elsewhere and suggested the establishment of the School of Administration to produce skilled Administrators to manage the affairs of government in various sectors of Zambia (Lockwood *et al*, 1963).

These recommendations were premised on the understanding that people in positions of responsibility were expected to manage administrative work effectively and ultimately enable universities to produce knowledgeable students who will become assets in the wider society. The universities were therefore expected to: (a) provide tertiary education, promote research and university advancement of learning; and (b) disseminate knowledge without discrimination, to avail to all persons who meet all the

¹ In March 1963, then Northern Rhodesia which became Zambia in 1964, appointed a Commission under the Chairmanship of Sir John Lockwood, a former Vice-Chancellor of the University of London, to advise on the development of a University. In its report, which was submitted in November 1963, the Lockwood Commission unanimously recommended the establishment of a University in Lusaka.

stipulated academic or professional qualifications, the opportunity of acquiring university education (University Act, 1999). Furthermore, universities were established to take a leading role in the development of professionals and shape the cultural life of the nation (ZNDP, 1966).

In the same vein, the HEA of 2013 that repealed the university act of 1999 provides for among many other objectives, quality assurance and quality promotion in higher education in which case higher education referred to tertiary education leading to the qualification of a Diploma, Bachelor's Degree, Master's Degree or Doctorate Degree. Despite the Act focusing on the quality-of-service delivery by Principal officers who included the Vice-Chancellors, Registrars, and Deans, the role of HoDs in ensuring quality delivery at the departmental level is subtle or perhaps not recognised at all. However, the 2013 HEA recommends for institutional audit, a quality assurance tool which involves evaluation of institutions, policies, systems, strategies and resources for quality management of the core functions of teaching, learning, research and public service to be conducted by the Higher Education Authority. The Authority was tasked to develop and maintain quality standards in institutions of higher learning, promote quality assurance, audit the quality assurance mechanisms, design and recommend an institutional quality assurance system and recommend to the Minister institutional quality assurance standards among many other responsibilities.

Under the auspices and sponsorship of UNESCO, on strengthening the quality of higher education in Africa 2017 project, the Zambian Government through the HEA introduced legislation to involve the private sector in the provision of higher education, leading to the proliferation of private Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). Since its operationalisation, the Authority has progressively accredited higher education institutions, which represents an essential step to build a higher education system that delivers quality programmes but the role of HoDs in this quest is not clear. Even the two-day capacity building workshop on internal quality assurance of HEIs held in July 2018 did not mention the involvement of HoDs. Quality assurance responsibilities are not tied to and accounted for at departmental levels going against Bush (2016) who argued for HoDs to contribute towards quality education offering and Ramsden (1998) who expects them to encourage dialogue about teaching and model it in practice to

promote excellence in research and teaching. Furthermore, with increased mass education in HEIs, pressure to improve the quality of education (Hill *et al*, 2016) is high particularly in departments that represent a crucial unit of analysis in universities for the allocation of resources that support the main function of learning, teaching and research (Bryman, 2007).

1.3 Research Problem

Given the widely recognised importance of effective leadership (Hill, 2005) that has not been explored widely at the departmental level in universities to provide valuable insights on the roles and nature of leadership (Bryman 2007), it was pertinent to establish, through research, the "... dialectic made up of [how] the personality of a ... [HoD] shapes how he or she interprets and plays the role and [how] headship shapes the personality of those who hold it" (Ribbins, 1997:8), implying that leadership shapes and is shaped by professional identities (Törnsten and Murakani, 2017). Inevitably, therefore, HoDs should be self-critical, reflective and reflexive of the 'self' about external influences (Taysum, 2012). Self-awareness would lead HoDs to be aware of their values as a basis of their leadership strategies (Sergiovanni, 1992). On this premise, it was therefore imperative to address Haydon's (2007) call to contribute to generating new insights into the formation of the leadership character of the HoDs, their accession to roles and the necessary experiences to profoundly consolidate their leadership roles.

1.4 Research Purpose

The research aimed at investigating how Zambian University HoDs learned to consolidate their leadership roles by addressing the following specific objectives.

1.4.1 Specific Objectives

1. Learn how they formed their leadership potential and how they were inspired to become leaders.
2. Understand accession to the roles and how they learned to execute their roles.

3. Identify practices that exemplified consolidation of their roles.

1.4.2 Research Significance

This research was an avenue to learn how university HoDs in Zambia understand their roles and to theorise the leadership learning journeys in a Zambian context. This was in line with Aristotle's view of defining and making informed inferences about the future through examination of the past (Freese, 1926). It was also an avenue to enhance the researcher's knowledge in understanding the practices and roles of HoDs in Universities. Through research, it was hoped that educational leaders will be assisted to clearly understand their roles and the behaviours expected from them (Haydon, 2007). As Ribbins (1997) argued, human development practitioners need new ideas about the role of educational leadership in universities especially in establishing the leadership character and how it is formed and shaped. Given the lack of research providing insights on the HoD roles (Bryman 2007), lack of in-depth research on leadership in most Africa (Eckert and Rweyongoza, 2010) and the generally limited information on the nature of leadership in Sub-Saharan African (SSA) (Bolden and Kirk, 2009) creating knowledge gaps on understanding the nature of leadership development, it was imperative to understand HoD's accession to the role, what the role entails and how they contribute towards optimising the purpose of universities in the wider Zambian Context. The research, therefore, provided insights on the relevance of leadership (Bolden and Kirk; 2009) to HEIs in SSA. Premised on this knowledge, a leadership development model for university HoDs has been envisioned.

1.5 Summary of Chapter One

The opening section introduced the pivotal role of HoDs in universities and the professional challenge of how they need to learn to consolidate their leadership roles. The research purpose and significance are also explained. The local context amplified the need for effective leadership in all sectors of SSA societies and the role of HEIs in that quest.

In SSA, leadership is perceived as a major cause of problems such as endemic corruption that imbues cronyism conducive for blind patronage and inhibiting meritocratic considerations and performance. In particular, political leadership is perceived to have helped in the increased corrupt practices. Given the collapsed regulatory and institutional frameworks expected to enforce good corporate governance standards, corruption has become endemic raising the urgent call for ethical leadership to redress the scourge.

The current leadership culture is viewed as 'permission seeking' thereby inducing compliance behaviours and thwarting creativity and innovative behaviours among subordinates. Such leadership culture compels workers to passively accept orders without questioning their authenticity and ethical appropriateness. The SSA requires visionary and ethical leadership to meet the challenges they inevitably face. With the increased demand for higher education but with eminently reduced funding, the leadership ingenuity of top administrators in universities and colleges is equally inevitable. This quest for adept and ethical administrators fostered the development of university education in Zambia and brings HoDs who superintend over the core functions of universities at the centre stage.

Premised on the preceding regional and local contexts highlighting the need for effective leadership and establishment of university education, the following chapter conceptualises the theoretical underpinning on how university HoDs learn to consolidate their leadership roles.

Chapter three highlights the underpinning research philosophy, research approach and design, sampling and population, data access and ethical issues observed, data collection and concludes with an analysis of collected data. Chapters four and five comprise summary findings, analysis and discussion of the findings. Chapter six provides summaries of the major research findings and recommendations.

2 Chapter Two: Literature Review

Effective leadership in HEIs has increasingly become imperative (Marzano *et al*, 2005) in setting direction, developing people, mobilising and aligning resources, and effectively leading teaching and learning (Day *et al*, 2011). Effectiveness is particularly required at the university departmental level to create supportive environments and direction about the core functions of universities (Ramsden, 1998). The HoDs who superintend university departments are therefore expected to provide effective leadership and act as liaison officers between staff and administration (Branson *et al*, 2016).

HoDs' leadership should contribute towards quality education offering through effective relationships (Bush, 2016) since they work with people from diverse backgrounds (Ashley *et al*, 2016). They are required to encourage dialogue about teaching and model it in practice (Ramsden, 1998), promote excellence in research and teaching, distribute duties fairly, support the development of staff, guide staff and work collaboratively well with colleagues to improve the image of their departments (Brodie and Partington, 1992). Furthermore, with increased mass education in HEIs, pressure to improve the quality of education (Hill *et al*, 2016) and the need to effectively manage change has equally intensified (Hargreaves, 2005). Given that the ability to face these challenges squarely rests with HEIs' departments where learning and teaching are organised and directed, but where little is known in terms of effective leadership (Gillet-Karam, 1999), Hill (2005) implores HEIs to foster leadership improvements of departmental superintendents. On this premise, and given that academic professors are most preferred for HoDs roles in universities, academic leadership is now a standard requirement in the UK (Evans, 2017) to enhance their ability to face inherent leadership challenges.

2.1 The Complex Nature of University HoD Roles

Universities have expanded in size and complexity due to mass education and research intensification increasing the demand for effective coordination and management of complex work systems, hence creating additional responsibilities related to performance

and quality control over teaching and research (Machovcová *et al*, 2018). These additional responsibilities create complex relational endeavours on HoDs requiring them to learn how to make compromises and negotiate amidst leadership structures, hierarchies, and relations (Branson et al, 2016).

The complexity emanates from the critical role university departments play as key administrative units for the allocation of resources, and the chief springboard for the organisation's main function of teaching and research activities (Bryman, 2007). HoDs in the UK universities are now expected to execute an array of functions associated with leadership, managerial and administrative activities, which, before 1992, were a preserve of professionals who were a discrete entity, separate from the academic community they served (Whitchurch,2008). HoDs who previously focused more on providing academic leadership, where academic leadership refers to "... a process through which academic values and identities are constructed, communicated and enacted" (Evans, 2017), are now expected to "co-ordinate a multitude of tasks whilst being held accountable for the performance of their departments..." (Lloyd and Wolstencroft, 2019:118). Since HoD roles have now become "entwined with contributory functions..." (Whitchurch,2008:78), it is increasingly difficult to place clear boundaries around 'management' and 'academic' activity. Despite the diffusion of roles between professional and academic managers, Burgess (2008:94) holds that "in managing the higher education sector, academic values ... [must be] maintained ... to provide a high-quality experience for the student". Therefore, HoDs are expected to ably persuade, influence or direct the beliefs and behaviours of their colleagues (Evans, 2017) but such is problematic since their authority is largely psychological and stems from their ability to create effective relationships and is compromised by their need to sustain professionalism and collegiality.

Bryman (2007) posits that middle leaders struggle to reconcile academic and professional leadership roles into one, hence causing tensions or stress emanating from frustrations, insecurity, and disappointments especially in the absence of means for overcoming the resultant tensions and stress. Without requisite competencies, tensions associated with

constant pressures to simultaneously manage expectations from diverse stakeholders (Bush, 2016) become inevitable. Despite such complexities, HoDs are expected to manage and provide effective leadership simultaneously (Garrett, 1997). As such, they are expected to exhibit multiple identities (Machovcová *et al*, 2018) just like Brodie and Partington (1992) preferred to retain the two roles in one person, capable of drawing on skills from their discipline, knowledgeable about higher education traditions and practices and the managerial language about performance management and visioning.

The transformation of HEIs requires key leadership attributes on those given authority to superintend over departments in universities (Bryman, 2007). They need a range of generic skills that include the ability to engage in teamwork, decision-making, people management, finance and business management, effective communication, employment legislation, health and safety, discrimination, and planning for capital developments (Burgess, 2008). Bryman (2007) adds that HoDs are supposed to be visionary, strategic, considerate, trustworthy and role models and apply participative and collegiality management, align departmental activities strategically, mobilise and properly allocate resources, and effectively engage employees through effective communication and feedback. These attributes seem to provide the foundations of a competency-based framework for departmental leaders in universities. How these attributes are acquired, internalised, embodied and exemplified in practice formed the critical focus of investigation in this research.

2.1.1 Preference for Leadership

The preceding preferred leadership attributes are an amalgamation of administration, management, and leadership competencies, making it difficult to distinguish those that are distinctively associated with leadership from managerial or administrative activities (Bryman, 2007). But since both management and leadership constructs are key in understanding the operation of educational organisations (Bush, 2019), despite the lack of clarity in the way these concepts are described and used in HEIs (Connolly *et al*, 2017), contrasting among them is important. Connolly *et al* (2017) argue that management

involves ensuring proper functioning of systems in which others participate while leadership is the act of influencing others to achieve goals while Coleman and Anderson (2000) describe leadership as a process of working through people. However, McShane (2009) asserts that successful managers are distinguished by their leadership capabilities supported by Topping's (2002) view that great managers excel in leadership. Skill-wise, leadership inclines towards change (visioning and strategising) and human relations while management focuses on planning, organising, controlling and administrative skills (Ebben *et al*, 2009). This means that leadership is more inclined towards behaviours and character while management is more task and skill-based.

As managers, HoDs are expected to be competent administrators over institutional resources, skilled in planning as well as measuring and coordinating work activities (Brodie and Partington, 1992). The aspect of coordination aligns with Mosley *et al* (2008:6) definition of management as "... the process of working with and through people to achieve objectives [through] effective decision-making and coordination of available resources". Bush (2019) posits that management is hierarchical hence viewed negatively by academics, while leadership is an influencing process aimed at leading others towards the achievement of specific goals. Practically, University HoD roles are often formerly defined as leadership roles with both management and supervisory responsibilities (Branson *et al*, 2016:129).

Bryman (2007) holds that effective departmental leaders are those who provide strategic direction for their departments and ensure that their departments are well-organised, structured and prepared for the direction they have set in motion. Their leadership, therefore, is about the influence they exert on followers to do the right things guided by common values since leadership is a purposeful process that is inherently value-driven (Vance, 2006). Bush (2019) posits that schools are likely to fail when their leadership fails to comprehend the educational purposes and core values. Bryman's (2007) dispositional attributes of effective departmental leaders such as treating staff fairly and with high

integrity, trustworthiness, being considerate and having credibility, and acting as role models, align effective departmental heads with ethical leadership.

2.1.2 Preference for Ethical Leadership

Educational leaders are expected to model admirable ethical behaviours (Waheed *et al*, 2018) such as honesty and trustworthiness, treating followers fairly, maintaining high ethical standards and holding subordinates accountable for ethical conduct and many others. Ethical leaders act virtuously to achieve outcomes beneficial to deserving stakeholders (Connolly *et al*, 2017). By ethical leadership, Waheed *et al*, (2018:626) meant “demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement and decision-making...” Leaders are therefore expected to lead in setting the tone of their institutions, model teaching and learning standards, foster professionalism and the quality of learning outcomes (Marzano *et al*, 2005).

2.1.2.1 Moral Values Underpin Ethical Leadership

Ethical leadership hinges on the leader’s personified values that will prompt, alert and protect them from acting contrary to the acceptable code of behaviour (Munroe, 2014). Good values are vital traits of good leadership (Achua and Lussier, 2010) and “... history has shown that the most important quality of a true leader should and must possess is the moral force of a noble and stable character” (Munroe, 2014:10). With moral values, leaders don’t require a lot of external laws and rules to govern their leadership behaviours (Munroe, 2014) but act from their in-built obligation derived from widely shared community values, ideas, and ideals (Sergiovanni, 1992). They don't just act out of compulsion, rather out of self-belief and conviction in their virtuous actions.

The linkage between values and ethical leadership is amplified by Haydon (2007) who identified three value-related categories of good leaders: the educational and ethical principles that leaders pursue; their disposition or virtues; and what it is that

fundamentally motivates them. Leaders deeply help virtues motivates their actions and ultimately determines what they pursue keenly (Hughes *et al*, 2009: 175). The virtue of courage, for instance, “involves recognising danger and having the willingness to face up to it to the degree appropriate to the circumstances – not the cowardice of always retreating from danger, but also not the recklessness of caring nothing about it at all” (Haydon, 2007:56). Similarly, leaders who do not honour truth do not inspire it in others and those most concerned with their advancement do not inspire selflessness in others (Hughes *et al*, 2009). It is, therefore, imperative for leaders to internalise a strong system of moral virtues that would act as a safeguard against their human weakness to protect themselves against immoral behaviour and take unethical shortcuts (Munroe, 2014).

2.1.2.2 The Moral Fabric of Leadership

Values form the moral fabric of leaders’ beliefs and ideals that shape their practice and enable them to engage people at the moral level (Sergiovanni, 1992) and guide them in what they choose or avoid doing (Freese, 1926). To a greater extent, therefore, values guide leadership choices and behaviours because “... leadership is an attitude which informs behaviours rather than a set of discrete skills and qualities” (Sergiovanni, 1992:1). Munroe (2014) adds that values are important because leaders’ decisions and actions reflect their values and beliefs. This is supported by Sergiovanni (1992:9) asserting, “Values play an important part in constructing an administrator’s mindscape and in determining leadership practice” and can also put constraints on how leaders pursue organisational goals (Haydon, 2007). Therefore, the personal values of a HoD can impact, negatively or positively, the performance of a university department, organisational commitment and their work relationships (Hughes et al, 2009). Hughes *et al* (2009: 175) summarises the linkage between values and leadership as follows:

“Because values play such a central role in a person's psychological makeup, they play a profound effect on leadership ... values play a key role in the choices made by leaders... are a primary determinant in what data are reviewed by leaders and how they define problems. ... also affect the solutions generated and the decisions

made about problems ... often influence leader's perceptions of individual and organisational successes as well as [how] these successes are achieved".

Thus, values inform leaders' philosophy (Mosley *et al*, 2008), their actions (Reece and Brandt, 2009) interpretations of social phenomena (Bryman, 2012), and create their belief system (Munroe, 2014). Similarly, Gold *et al* (2003:135) argue, "successful school leaders are driven by personal, moral and educational values and [can] articulate these with total conviction, creating a clear sense of institutional purpose and direction". Kouzes and Posner (2012:7) echo similarly, "Leadership is not an affair of the head but that of the heart", emphasising the essence of understanding the moral fabric of leadership. Leaders, therefore, need to understand their values and their situational context for them to align their values with those of their organisations (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019). With high value attached to moral principles as the 'heart' of leadership (Kouzes and Posner, 2012), there are high expectations on leaders' behaviours and "it is more damaging if [leaders] lose track of their moral compass" (Haydon, 2007:40).

2.1.2.3 The Leadership Heart

The leadership 'heart' refers to people's beliefs, values, dreams, deep commitments, and personal visions which Sergiovanni, (1992:7) says, "... is the person's interior world, which becomes the foundation of her or his reality" that forms the basis of leaders' thoughts and actions as supported by Pring (2010:145) arguing, "When one acts or makes practical judgements, generally, one acts or judges from the deep-seated disposition which are part of ones very being". Therefore, when evaluating effective leaders, it is imperative to look not only at their knowledge and skills required to perform their roles but most importantly the focus should be on the relevant virtues that underpin their behaviours and actions (Munroe, 2010) in line with Robertson's (2017) reference to personal values as the filter of one's leadership identity. Such a focus on virtues elucidates the importance of values, beliefs, and personal motivations that underlie the real intentions of leaders' actions (Crow and Møller, 2017).

Therefore, if one's character reflects their inner drive and values, their habits become the outward signals that shape how people see and work with them (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019) in ethical terms. Ethical leaders would, therefore, treat staff fairly with integrity, respectfully, considerately, consistently, responsively, fairly, honestly, inclusively and in a trustworthy manner (Bryman, 2007). Leaders who treat members of staff equally and fairly are more likely to build and maintain high morale among followers. Equally, being considerate involves exhibiting behaviours indicative of relationships of trust, warmth and mutual respect between the leader and followers.

Trust and integrity are equally important as they form the perceptions of what makes for effectiveness in HoDs (Bryman, 2007). HoDs should, therefore, promote trust and cooperation among staff and exhibit integrity and ethical behaviour in all their dealings. Such role modelling raises leaders' credibility especially through the idealised influence that earns them admiration, respect, and trust, as followers crave to identify with and want to emulate them (Evans, 2017). As role models, HoDs should be willing to help others to grow professionally through mentorship, which involves acting as a model for research activities, sharing knowledge and expertise about publishing and funding, and commenting on others' work. HoDs need to have credibility as researchers when leading research-oriented departments (Knight and Trowler, 2001).

Unfortunately, HoD positions in many universities, particularly in the UK, are held by professors who are promoted based on scholarly achievements because it is considered fitting for the incumbents of such roles to be professors. Unfortunately, most of the professors are unclear about what the HoD roles entail and what is expected of them since "leadership development is not generally offered to new professors [and] there seems to be no official ... preparations and/or development provision in the British [HEI] sector for professorial academic leadership ..." (Evans, 2017:125). Consequently, HoDs are described as arrogant, self-centred, self-obsessed, and whose leadership is mainly falling short of expectations. Such academic arrogance is usually directed towards

supportive staff (Ramsden, 1998) and is symptomatic of the need for HoDs to comprehend the meaning of effective leadership (Evans, 2017).

2.1.3 Need for Self-Awareness

Despite the highly recognised importance of effective leadership in HEI, how such is developed is not clear due to little information in published research on professional development for educational leaders (Nyuyen, 2018). Given the lack of formalised leadership development, many academic leaders are unclear about what their roles entail and what is expected of them to become effective in their roles (Evans, 2017). Consequently, such an omission makes leaders susceptible to arrogance, self-centredness, self-obsession and ineffective leadership practices.

According to Whitchurch (2008) and Hill (2005), HEIs are organised and governed according to two approaches – administration and academic strands. In administration, there are chains of command that resemble the corporate organisational structures comprising professional managers and administrators renowned for supportive and non-teaching responsibilities. On the academic side is the faculty who also participate in the formal governance through collegial structures such as committees although their primary work is teaching and research. Promotion and advancement on this strand are based on excellent scholarly work. The collegial approach through committees is advisory in nature and seldom gives any real leadership responsibility for setting or decision making (Astin and Astin, 2000). The scholarly work is individually orienting hence devoid of collaboration because it tends to breed competitiveness. Individuality and excellence are so highly valued that academics often display extreme levels of competitiveness (Ramsden, 1998). Competition is conducive for high levels of intellectual arrogance, particularly towards non-academic staff, who may be seen as servants rather than partners. While the freedom of discovery, interpreting and exchanging knowledge in an intellectually rigorous way is fundamental to all forms of education, academics should be able to think critically about what they do as well as learn from others (Ramsden, 1998). When managing non-academic staff, it is good leadership practice to respect people's expertise, to ask for their

advice, to involve them in decisions, to encourage them to improve how they get their work done and to be considerate. Academic thoughtlessness and peremptory treatment of support staff are causes of ineffectiveness in general and can make support staff feel that they are second-class citizens (Knight and Trowler, 2001). With arrogance, academic leaders would be unable to empower, provide supportive development of juniors through mentoring or role modelling (Evans, 2017).

Although the qualities of effective leadership are acquired principally through prework socialisation, much of leadership is learned (Ramsden, 1998). The most powerful learning suitable for leadership development is stretch assignments that give people work somewhat beyond their current capabilities but in which they have potential (Astin and Astin, 2000). The most critical and difficult step in developing leaders is to foster a culture conducive to learning how to lead (Marzano *et al*, 2005). Only by fully integrating cultural competencies in professional development at all levels will a HEI be able to enact needed instructional practices and policies and develop trusting relationships required to ensure that all leaders are given quality learning (Hill, 2005).

Unfortunately, what is known about current development practices has focused on task-related competencies with less attention to personal values and motivations essential for effective leadership practices (Crow and Møller, 2017). Earley (2020) echoes that the focus is more on the technical and organisational aspects and not on the person. Academics will continue to need, first and foremost, top-notch professional competencies. But those competencies will need to be augmented with the conceptual and human competencies associated with leadership (Ramsden, 1998). These include how to coach and develop talent, build and lead a diverse team, exercise influence without formal authority, negotiate and manage conflicts with multiple stakeholders, and envision and implement change (Hill, 2005).

The above discourse is the premise for the pertinent call by Ribbins (1997) to establish how the personality of educational leaders shapes their leadership effectiveness and how the roles shape their personality. Hence the reason Earley (2020) suggests focusing on

both leadership and leader development with the former defined as the knowledge and skills relating to occupational role development while the latter refers to the development of the person. Leader development, also known as personal development, does not only complement and complete leadership development but is also a fundamental part of the job and enhances the leader's self-awareness.

Tomlinson (2002), quoted by Earley (2020) posits that self-awareness, reflexivity, and resilience, despite being key for leaders' success are not given the prominence they deserve. Leadership development programmes should emphasise elements of personal development such as self-awareness and resilience that are helpful in stressful times given the daunting and complexity of educational leadership. Developing such self-knowledge, therefore, helps one to know how to grow and become effective since every role identity has a person, task, and social elements (Burke and Stets, 2009). The task element comprises the requisite knowledge and skills to execute a role. Social elements consist of the relationships with customers, peers, supervisors, and subordinates affected by or beneficiaries of the role outputs. Personal elements include values, beliefs, and motives. Self-Awareness, therefore, involves understanding identities.

2.2 Understanding Identities

An identity is "... the way we make sense of ourselves to ourselves and the image of ourselves that we present to others" (Crow *et al*, 2017:268). Edge *et al* (2017) consider them as personal traits or characteristics associated with a person's actions and other attributes while Burke and Stets (2009) describes an identity as the set of meanings that define who one is when one is an occupant of a particular role in society, a member of a particular group, or claims particular characteristics that identify him or her as a unique person. Similarly, Serpe and Stets (2013) consider them as meanings attached to roles individuals occupy in the social structure (role identities), groups they identify with and belong to (group identities), and unique ways in which they see themselves (person identities). In the same way, Carter (2013) describes identities as internal positional designations that represent meanings people use to define themselves as unique

individuals (person identities), role occupants (role identities), or group members (social identities).

As for Taylor (2008), a person's identity includes traits, beliefs, and commitments that reinforce their sense of self and become a source of learning and meaning for them. Once internalised, the meanings help individuals to describe the underlying factors that provide them with the means and adaptations to maintain themselves in their environment (Cochrane, 2006). Therefore, identities define who people are; reflect their motivations, drive and energies that underlie their actions and decisions people make daily evoke their particular identities (Crow and Møller, 2017). This is what Berkes and Folk (1994) referred to as cultural capital; the rules of society or factors that provide human society with the human capital, the means and adaptation to deal with the natural environment (Cochrane, 2006).

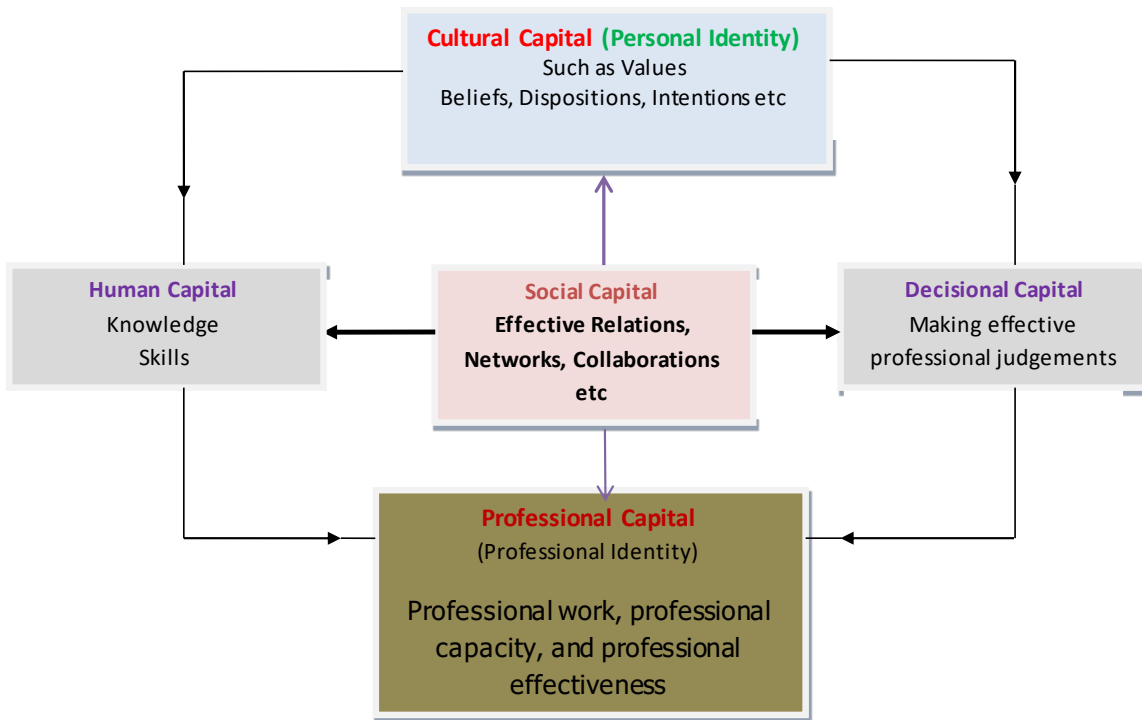
Human capital, comprising the competencies required for people to produce (Cochrane, 2006), is best acquired through an environment of high social and cultural capital (Bowen *et al*, 2014). Both cultural and human capitals develop highly with enhanced social capital where social capital refers to social networks, actual or potential resources linked to membership of the group among others (Cochrane, 2006). In fact, "Knowledgeability and expertise are not simply inside our heads but are intimately tied to various aspects of relationships we have with people, technologies and [other dimensions] of context" (Knight and Trowler, 2001:51). Knight and Trowler (2001) give an example that expertise in lecturing well relies on the lecturer having a well-substantiated understanding of his or her students and other aspects of the context, knowing about the pedagogical tools available there, shared meaning about aims and processes and sets of stable personal relationships. They add that expertise is socially distributed among workers, jointly constructed and close articulation with features of the work activity and environment.

A highly considered view is that social capital (social identity) is high among people when they relate effectively well and is enhanced by the dominant culture of a particular society (Cochrane, 2006). Knight and Trowler (2001) conquer that while information circulates

formally in corporate entities via emails, memos, official documents and the rest, circulation of knowledgeability required to lead is more informal, incremental, disjointed, interpersonal, and intimately related to practice. Therefore, conversations are the way leaders would discover what they need to know through socialisation with their colleagues. With increased social capital they would be able to read the wind, the currents, and the trim of the boat, tracking and changing with that reading. Good leaders are in the thick of the actions and understand that action well: they have thick connections. Human and social capital is considered to be responsible for most economic development since the 21st Century (Cochrane, 2006).

Cultural capital, being the aptitude or inclination of a society to behave in certain ways, underlies human and social capital and describes the potential of a society (Cochrane, 2006). With high cultural capital, people's human and social capital development are enhanced (Mikus et al, 2020:209). With enhanced human capital, individuals develop the ability to make effective decisions (Decisional capital) which is equally enhanced through experience and effective social interactions (social capital) (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012). Therefore, people's identities (cultural, human, social and decisional) define their professional capital that in turn defines their professional work, professional capacity, and professional effectiveness (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012) as figure 2-1 below shows.

Figure 2-1: Relationships Among Identities and Various Capitals



As figure 2.1 above illustrates, people do not exist in isolation but interact under a framework defined by the predominant culture in society (Cochrane 2006), meaning cultural capital influences human and social capital. However, Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) posit that cultural capital is influenced greatly by the strengths of the social relationships and cohesion among the people in a particular society, which means that the degree to which people develop their cultural capital hinges on the strength of the developed social capital. Identities and behaviours are therefore linked; since identities are embedded in greater social structures that exist in one's environment (Carter, 2013) from, and in which, leadership identity (professional capital) is developed.

2.2.1 Key Elements of Leadership Identity

Törnsten and Murakani (2017), consider identities as the reference points that influence leaders' behaviours, drive their willingness and ability to act. Serpe and Stets (2013) believe that role, group, and person identities often overlap and cannot be easily separated in situations as Burke and Stets (2009:38) assert, "The energy, motivation, drive that makes roles work require that individuals identify with, internalise and become the role". Furthermore, these identities are believed to facilitate the development of leaders' stable social relationships and make interaction possible within the context of social structures (Burke and Stets, 2009). Knowing their identities, therefore, enables leaders to build a high-quality leader-member relationship that has empirically been proven to positively impact the supportive development that employees perceive to receive from their supervisors (Horne *et al*, 2015).

As people enter into leadership positions, they need to know a lot about themselves, learn the things they need to know or practice the skills they need to master, understand new opportunities they should accept, and identify the changes they need to adapt to take up more responsibilities while remaining true to who they are (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019). As for Taylor (2008:29), person identities are stronger sources of meaning than roles, emphasizing that "... identities organise meaning while roles organise functions. However, for individuals, roles give rise to context-specific opportunities to express, and even to develop personal identity". Understanding leaders' person and professional identities would shed light on the passion, commitments, shortcomings and other personal nuances that influence the practice of leadership. Unfortunately, the lack of emphasis on person identities such as values, beliefs and motivations essential for effective practices, results in leaders who are technically oriented and focused more on the processes and results without understanding the moral principles of educational dispositions (Armstrong and Mitchell, 2017). Such leaders would place more emphasis on the mechanics of the job as Crow and Møller (2017:750) argue, "Over time, roles that emphasised creativity, innovation, discretion... importance of values have moved to specified, standardised,

more mechanical ways of conducting work". Armstrong and Mitchell (2017) add that leadership development programmes continue to privilege practice over people, skills over values and conformity over creativity. They refer such to placing competencies above professional identity and that such technocratic approaches de-emphasise professional orientation (leadership) work and diminish the focus on values, beliefs and creativity.

This move towards standardisation of leadership acknowledges expert knowledge leaders need to do their work but it ignores the importance of values, beliefs and personal motivations that underlie the real intentions of leaders' actions (Crow and Møller, 2017). Expert knowledge such as the ability to plan, organise, measure, and control performance does not make academics improve their ability to lead effectively, instead makes them become administrative experts (Ebben *et al*, 2009). Consequently, academic leaders do not develop their social attributes that include effective communication, social awareness, social judgment, persuasion and negotiation, collaboration, team-building, relationship-building, multicultural awareness and sensitivity (Adair, 2005) that are part of the defining features of leadership identity.

Educational leaders need skills and knowledge about certain key functions such as budgeting, monitoring and evaluation of performance and policy development but the need for such skills notwithstanding, their beliefs, values, identities and underlying motivations undergird and ground those skills (Crow and Møller, 2017). Leaders, therefore, need to know why they use the skills they do in particular cultural, historical contexts and what educational purposes such skills reflect. Understanding the 'why' aspect enables leaders to position themselves with a particular context, make the right choices relative to some values and purposes in line with the dominant cultural capital (Cochrane 2006). Hence understanding how identities relate to the moral and ethical purposes of education (dominant cultural capital) is critical as Jackson (2012:94) emphasises,

"Education is fundamentally a moral enterprise. Its goal is to effect beneficial changes in humans, not just in what they know and can do but, more importantly, in their character and personality, in the kind of person, they become... the beneficiaries of that process are not just the individuals being served but also the society at large. Ultimately the world, in general, stands to benefit from such an effort".

Focusing on professional (leadership) identity, therefore, provides an avenue to understanding how leadership practice is more than task-oriented skills. It fosters awareness of the factors that influence effective leadership (Crow and Møller, 2017) and enables leaders to respond to the uncertainty of their roles. Without the focus on personal dimensions (values, dispositions, motives, etc) there would be a risk of not serving educational leadership well (Norman, 2016).

Effective leadership is therefore more than doing the right things, but is a way of knowing why one is doing what they do (Robertson, 2017). This means leaders should have insights not only about what they do but also reflect on why they do what they do, how they think, feel and why they believe what they believe in to be able to handle tensions that may arise between their values and role demands.

2.2.1.1 Understanding Person Identity

Knowing 'self' is very important for leaders in creating visions for their entities that reflect their values and giving the right priority for the work they care about (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019). Burke and Stets (2009:112) assert, "whether it is a role, social, or person identity, individuals act to control perceptions of who they are in a situation to match the feedback they receive in the situation". They argue that one is always and simultaneously in a role and a group, therefore the role identity and social identities are at play at the same time and interwoven in a role. However, Carter (2013) singles out the importance of moral identities, as an example of person identities such as being principled, honest, caring, and compassionate, arguing that when individuals define themselves in these

moral terms, they verify who they are by behaving morally towards others. Such moral identity influences individuals to behave in a way that others define as appropriate (Monroe, 2001). However, understanding the true self is difficult (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019:183);

“But knowing yourself is legendarily difficult. We never see ourselves 100 per cent objectively. Holding up the mirror can be painful because we too often imagine ourselves as what we want to be, not who we are. And achieving self-knowledge is even more difficult as you grow as a leader. As your responsibility and power increase, others will often tell you only what they think you want to hear”.

Despite the difficulties in attaining authentic knowledge of the 'self', moral identities motivate behaviour (Burke and Stets, 2009) and are more likely to be activated across situations because they refer to important aspects of the individual and because individuals don't easily “put on” and “take off” their morals as they move on from a role or group to another. Individuals bring with them characteristics from their background (sets of values, attitudes, assumptions and practices) unique to themselves and sometimes at variance with those of others (Knight and Trowler, 2001). These person identities are based on culturally recognised characteristics that individuals internalise as their own, personify them in unique ways, are constantly activated and are generally very high in salience, and operate like a master identity (Serpe and Stets 2013). If one sees oneself as high on the moral dimension (Monroe, 2001), as in being ethical, principled, caring, and honest, one is highly likely to choose roles that reflect these characteristics.

Knowing self also allows the leader to understand and motivate others who will sense that the leader knows who they are (Hogg, 2001). Even though professional identity is realised within power relationships and tensions that come with normativity-legitimacy of some identities over others within a given context, they are filtered through ones' values (Robertson, 2017). Developing such self-knowledge, therefore, helps one to know how to grow and become an effective leader as one takes up more complex responsibilities as the tendency is that subordinates will tell a leader only that which they know the leader

wants to hear and not what is on the ground. Knowing what one needs to know to improve requires a constant commitment to receiving feedback but such requires humility, being open to criticism one may not want to hear, having the patience to reflect on it, and then being courageous to act on the feedback to improve. This self-knowledge begins with understanding one's character, purpose, and values (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019). It involves understanding who one is and what he stands for, good and not so good at, and knowing how the world sees him. With that understanding, a leader can learn how to develop their leadership effectiveness (leadership identity) by pursuing the most effective pathways.

2.2.1.2 Understanding Professional Identity

Professional identities refer to the 'meanings' leaders use to make sense of and enact their roles (Crow and Møller, 2017). These meanings are embedded in their minds and influence their behaviour, driving their willingness and ability to be effective leaders. Robertson (2017:776) defines professional identities as "that part of the self specifically oriented to roles along a personal career trajectory" and comprises values, beliefs, knowledge, understanding, experiences, and wisdom that inform leadership practice. They are the stable and enduring constellations of attributes and experiences that define people in a professional role (Edge *et al*, 2017) and include understanding the context and dominant cultural capital (Cochrane 2006). Leaders who occupy specific roles in various professions are expected to perform and identify themselves with their roles professionally and socially.

The literature recognises the notion that leadership shapes and is shaped by professional identities (Tørnsen and Murakani, 2017). Understanding professional identities provide insights into leaders' behaviours and what drives their willingness and ability to execute their roles effectively (Crow and Møller, 2017). Such understanding also sheds light on how leaders use their deeply held values to respond to the wider expectations of their roles, how they think and feel and on what they base their decisions and actions

(Robertson, 2017). Such self-knowledge amplifies the meanings leaders attach to roles on the personal, relational, and collective levels (Tubin, 2017).

On the personal level, leaders have to develop their self-concept in terms of who they are through reflection on their actions and reactions from others. They should develop their self-concept through verification that occurs when they perceive that others see them in a role in the same way they see themselves (Burke and Stets, 2013). They should understand how their personality shapes the interpretation of their roles and conversely, how playing the roles reshapes their person identities (Ribbins, 1997).

At the relational level, leaders should create reciprocal role identities for themselves as leaders and as followers – building-high quality leader-member relationships (Horne et al, 2015). They should understand their relational identity by forming close relations with their staff, protecting them from unfairness, holding them accountable for results, and recognising their efforts. Given that leadership is a relational issue (Hogg, 2001), how HoDs develop and effectively relate with others should be elaborate. Tubin (2017) posits that leaders should be clear on how well they collaborate with all at work and particularly on how they recognise and protect their staff from unwarranted intrusion, hold them to account for results, and reward their efforts. They should know the kind of relationships they need to build and how to create collaborative networks (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019) and how credible such relationships are (Kouzes and Posner2012). This is particularly inevitable for HoDs as middle-leaders whose authority depends on the nature of their relationships with seniors, colleagues, and subordinates (Bush, 2016). The more they learn about people, the easier it becomes for them to learn how to exert positive influence (Achua and Lussier, 2010). Since leadership is a social identity (Hogg, 2001), without credible relationships, there can be no social cohesion to bind HoDs and followers together nor would there be consensus for HoDs to represent (Edge et al, 2017).

On the collective level, leaders should understand the wider expectations of their roles from different stakeholders' perspectives (Tubin, 2017). They need to understand the cultural contexts in which their leadership roles are played (Haydon, 2007), the

boundaries within which to exercise their initiatives and discretions (Hollis, 2002) since leadership occurs in an organisational context with institutional and cultural factors at play (Gunter and De Luque, 2014). Furthermore, leaders have to gain the endorsement of the broader social environment, being mindful that “tacit knowledgeability based on socially constructed meaning developed through practice is an intrinsic part of the symbolic universe of any community of practice and is often surprising to novices and outsiders” (Knight and Trowler, 2001:54). There is a need, therefore, to balance between the technocratic orientation and the importance of whom leaders are in terms of their professional and person identities since having insights into who leaders are influences what they do and how they are perceived in the wider context.

Leadership Identity, therefore, develops when leaders reflect on their lives and experiences; identifying the values, beliefs, skills, motivations and conditions that fostered their failures and successes. Self-awareness would enable HoDs to know what fosters their effectiveness and internalising professional identity would allow them to act appropriately and confidently to convince others of their competencies for the roles (Armstrong and Mitchell, 2017).

2.3 Understanding one’s Cultural Capital Fosters Effectiveness

The preceding discussion points towards the realisation that the ‘self’ (Cultural Capital) forms from childhood through adolescence and early adulthood and remains constant throughout one’s life (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019), with some moderate change as people grow in self-understanding that may reshape what they believe in and care about. We have also established that person identities are constantly activated, are high in salience and operate like master identities (Burke and Stets, 2009). Furthermore, the development of professional identity such as leadership identity hinges on and is guided by one’s person identity (Törnsten and Murakani, 2017) as well as cultural and environmental contexts (Crow and Møller, 2017). Serpe and Stets (2013) add that person identities (values, beliefs and motivations) are culturally recognised characteristics that are internalised hence they build one’s cultural capital – the cultural habits and

dispositions inherited from the family that are fundamental to one's success according to Bourdieu and Passeron (1979) (Gray *et al*, 2010). Mikus *et al* (2020:209) posit, "children's cultural capital may directly contribute to children's skill development and hence results in better academic achievement". Bowen *et al* (2014) add that cultural capital acts as a gateway to children's future academic, social, and economic success. It is, therefore, helpful for leaders to keep reflecting on their values and beliefs that guide their decisions and actions, which in turn enable followers to commit themselves to their leadership (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019). Such reflections safeguard leaders when they face dilemmas that require choices between competing sets of values and priorities and "the best leaders recognise and face them with a commitment to doing what is right not just what is expedient" (Hughes *et al*, 2009: 167). However, it will take great moral courage to do what is right, in the face of adversity (Sergiovanni, 1992).

It is also important for leaders to be self-critical and reflect on what guides their decisions and actions. Reflexivity informs leadership praxis in terms of how intentions are formed, choices made or arrived at and the actions eventually taken (Taysum, 2012). Informed praxis fosters awareness of the leadership 'heart' (Sergiovanni, 1992); the deeply held values that directly inform and shape the work one does in any organisation. Since understanding self begins with understanding one's cultural capital, such self-knowledge plays a critical role in social, academic, and economic attainment (Carter, 2003). Mikus *et al* (2020) describe Cultural Capital as institutionalised attitudes, preferences, formal knowledge, behaviours, goods and credentials. Awareness of one's cultural capital enables leaders to understand the congruence between their values and those of the organisation in which they work (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019).

Therefore, leaders need to understand their moral identity by critically reflecting on life experiences to understand their character formation in terms of values, behaviours, influential figures that shaped these, critical incidents in their life journeys, and how these might have influenced their desire to take up a leadership role. Such reflections would enable leaders to understand their character, why they think and do things in the ways

they do (Taysum, 2012), and know if their character is fostering or thwarting their leadership effectiveness.

2.3.1 Key Elements of Character

Character is an integrated system of traits or behavioural tendencies that enables one to react, despite obstacles, in a relatively constant way concerning mores and moral issues (Kalat, 2008). Munroe (2014:31) defines character as "... the complex of mental and ethical traits marking and often individualising a person, group or nation". Character is, therefore, the manifestation of the self (Burke and Stets, 2009) that is not inborn but acquired by the individual in the course of his/her development (Kuppuswamy, 1991). The moral traits of one's character act as a personal security system for a leader and are built "... by developing values and establishing a code of ethics ..." (Munroe, 2014:33). Once moral habits are formed and reinforced by habitual actions to produce the kind of character that naturally, almost without thought, enables people to act morally, people easily recognise moral wrongs, correct them or do the right things correctly.

Since character is a manifestation of the self (Burke and Stets, 2009), it comprises morals, values and code of ethics that guide human behaviour (Munroe, 2014). Despite these constructs (morals, values and ethics) being interrelated, used interchangeably and referring to human behaviour, they have different contextual meanings. Pring (2010) describes morals as the 'right' or 'wrong' thing to do and ethics as the philosophical enquiry into the basis of morals or moral judgement. Ethics are, therefore, the study of moral obligations, or the way of separating right from wrong in formal organisations (DuDrin, 2009) in which accepted behaviours are usually codified, documented and communicated to members. Similarly, Rahim (2001) talks of ethics as a philosophical study of the nature and justification of principles, decisions and problems or the examination of morality and decide why we consider some actions to be right or wrong. Ethics are thus the means through which organisations identify and codify the morals that would guide the behaviours of their members. They refer to "... the code of moral principles and values that direct the behaviour of an individual or a group in terms of

what is right or wrong" (Smit *et al*, 2007:412) in a profession, group or organisation. They are the "... accepted principles of right or wrong that govern the conduct of a person as a member of a profession, or the actions of an organisation" (McShane, 2009:90).

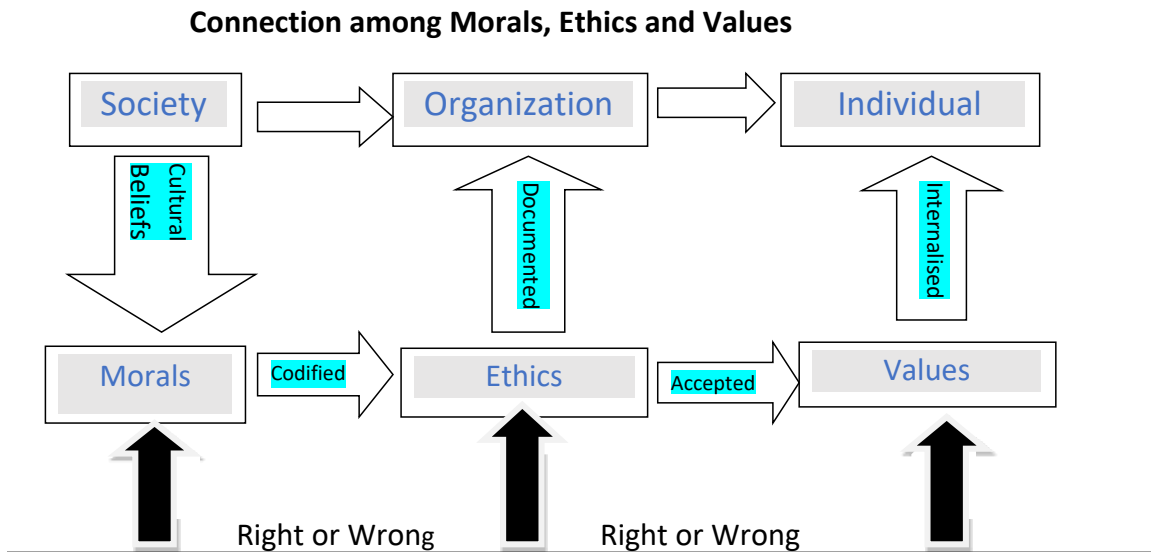
However, Coulter and Robbins (2007) equate morals to ethics and consider them to encompass principles, values, and beliefs about what defines right or wrong behaviours generally. In any case, ethics concern decisions and actions and apply to our personal and business lives and entails the moral principles and values that direct the behaviours of individuals or groups in terms of what is right or wrong in organisations (Smit *et al*, 2007). They are an avenue for the commitment to doing what is right, concerns individual and firms' behaviour and conduct, as they define conduct, honour, morality, guidelines for human actions, rules or standards, and expected behaviour in organisations.

Values are closely related to ethics and can be considered as clear statements of what is critically important to an individual or organisation and "ethics become the vehicle for converting values into action, or doing the right thing" (DuBring, 2009:78). An example would be, a clean environment is a value, whereas not littering is practicing ethics. A person's values also influence which kind of behaviours he or she believes are ethical. An executive who strongly values profits might not find it unethical to raise prices more than needed to cover additional costs. Another executive who values family life might suggest that the company invests money in an on-premises child-care centre.

While morals are defined by society, ethics are the chosen and codified morals about what is right or wrong in a profession or an organisation. However, values generally refer to either morals or ethics that are considered important to an individual, group or organisation. At an individual level, values are internalised morals that are formed early in people's lives, acquired from a variety of sources (Reece and Brandt, 2009) and shaped through various life experiences (Hume, 2008). While morals are defined by society and ethics by formal organisations, once internalised, they become values and form part of person identity and define the moral fabric of leaders (Sergiovann, 1992). Since they form part of the 'core self' (person identity), values are "... deeply held beliefs about what is

good, right, and appropriate” (Peregrym and Wolff, 2006:1). They are beliefs an individual strongly holds and define their moral or ethical conduct. Figure 2-2 below illustrates the relationship among morals, ethics and values.

Figure 2-2: Connection Among Morals, Ethics and Values



Values are generalised beliefs considered by an individual or a group to be important (Achua and Lussier, 2010). They can also be described as “... conceptions, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influence the selection from available modes, means and ends of action” (Begley, 2003:3 quoted by Haydon, 2007:8). They are the worth or importance we assign to an object or idea and our value system is the set of standards by which we live (Reece and Brandt, 2009). They are person identities (Burke and stets 2009) and are so deep-seated in our personality that they are never actually ‘seen’ and what we ‘see’ is how they manifest themselves through attitudes, opinions, behaviours, and the like (Munroe, 2014).

2.3.2 Internalised Values Underpin Moral Character

Since “it is our values that give us the stars by which we navigate ourselves through life” (Adair, 2005:135) and personal values form the basis of leadership identity (Robertson,

2017), leaders must understand their value system (Blanchard, 2010). We rely on values to make decisions about priorities in daily work and all human endeavours. Since our goals and life purposes are grounded in our values, it is important to know our values so that other people understand what is important to us (Blanchard, 2010). For example, an individual may work overtime to attend to a customer. The attitude expressed here is the willingness to help a customer solve a problem but the value, which serves as a foundation for this attitude, maybe that of service to others or loyalty to organisational policies (Reece and Brandt, 2009). The assumption here is that people act consistently and from the 'real self' a position sharply contradicted by Goffman (1971, 1991) who doubted the existence of such and argued that humans act differently when in privacy and when in public (cited by Bullingham and Vasconcelos, 2013). Goffman argued that, as actors, human's behaviour will be different when in the front stage, when they are conscious of being observed by an audience and will act to conform to the expectation of those watching by observing certain rules to avoid losing face. The person's behaviour will be different in privacy, where masking up, self-preservation, or impressing the audience is not necessary. Such stage-managed behaviour of impression management individuals usually establish may force leaders in constant reinvention of the 'self' to satisfy the multifaceted demands in different contexts that might require the pursuit of constructing a public face (Møller, 2012).

From the social identity theory perspective, where leaders and followers derive role and social identities from group's prototype behaviour and "... conformance to group prototypes rises ... to increase self-evaluation favourability" (Uhl-Bien *et al*, 2013:87), masking up behaviour is highly likely. In such cases, leaders may be motivated to impress followers and vice versa (Hogg, 2001). It may be in privacy where the 'real self' exists and where the true values that personify an individual can be unmasked.

Based on our value system, however, we determine what is important, which people to trust, what goals are worth pursuing, how we adapt to change, and what moral and ethical choices to make (Reece and Brandt, 2009). Yet few people know consciously what

their values are or what values guide the organisation they work for (Haydon, 2007). Most leaders have little time to conduct self-introspection to understand their values and how such affect their decisions and actions as they "... lack a framework for evaluating the suitability and consequences of their conduct ..." (Munroe, 2014:89). Consequently, even though values represent the motivating force behind much of what is done, they remain a hidden, silent power (Reece and Brandt, 2009). Instead of being harnessed to strategy, "... values in management and school leadership have been a neglected area in the development programmes of aspiring and practising heads [and] may not get much play in the curricula of ... leadership in universities or staff development academies, but they count in practice" (Sergiovanni, 1992:10). What leaders need to know is that what is done repeatedly becomes habitual and forms their character (Covey, 2007).

Effective leaders should be able to describe the values that shape their character as Munroe (2014) argues that having a moral character that is sensitive and compassionate, we will know what to do without the aid of principles. Abstract rules or principles thus are neither necessary nor sufficient for moral action. A leader of integrity possesses moral courage and does what is right even when the personal cost is high. Courage is acquired from childhood and established through life experiences (Taysum, 2003).

Thus, the development of morals in terms of what is right and what is wrong is of the essence in the development of ethical leadership. Generally, professional identities enable leaders to self-regulate, act ethically and confidently, and convince others of their expertise and competency (Armstrong and Mitchell, 2017).

2.3.3 Good Morals Foster Virtuous Actions

Good moral character is the existence of virtues that come from what a person believes in and maintains in their daily decisions (Pring, 2010) and not merely acting. By virtue, Pring (2010:145) meant "... the disposition to act appropriately in a particular situation" in line with what Aristotle meant, "... providing and preserving good things..." (Freese, 1926: 93), implying that good leaders personify virtues that guide their behaviours and

actions. Taking Aristotle's analogy of a compassionate person and sadist- both may be aware of the pain in the other but will be motivated differently. Compassion will be revealed through empathy while sadism will attract pleasure in seeing others suffer and empathy would lead to rendering help where necessary. Virtues are, therefore, the characteristic of a person that underpin their moral behaviours and how they come out in life. Such characteristics are valued as guiding principles and recognised as a good way to be and hence qualities that are universally or generally considered to be good and desirable.

However, acting virtuously, without genuine belief and personification of the virtues is not sufficient (Haydon (2010) as the moral character of leaders is perceived through their ability to do the right things (Kotter, 1999) consistently as a virtue that personifies their character. Leaders should not only be seen to act virtuously, they should genuinely believe in the virtues they exhibit by acting from the 'real self' as opposed to masking (Bullingham and Vasconcelos, 2013). King said, "When you are aware that you are a symbol, it causes you to search your soul constantly – to go through this job of self-analysis, to see if you live up to the high and noble principles ... and to try at all times to keep the gulf between the public self and private self at a minimum" (Carson, 1998:105). Leaders should not construct a public face that differs from who they are in private (Møller, 2012).

The greatest obstacle to a leader's success is a deficit of moral character. The moral character acts as a personal security system for a leader and is built "... by developing values and establishing a code of ethics that will alert us to, and protect us from the negative effects of various outside influences – such as life's pressures, difficulties and temptations..." (Munroe, 2014:33). Leaders need to know who they are by understanding their core values (core self) since "once you know that, then you can give those values a voice and feel comfortable sharing them with others" (Kouzes and Posner, 2012:17). Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991:20) argued, "... role models for honest behaviour are those at the top. On this, organisations get what they model, not what they preach". Therefore,

knowing one's moral identity is critical because leaders' deeds are far more important than their words as they determine how serious they are about what they say (Kouzes and Posner, 2012). Exemplary leaders align their actions with their core values and through their daily actions; they demonstrate their deep commitment to their beliefs and those of the organisation (Munroe, 2014). Through personifying change, they inspire others to master its terrors" (Ramsden, 1998:12) implying that effective leaders venture into self-introspection regularly. Unfortunately, very few people are "... used to serious systematic reflection about their values or the values they encounter in the world around them" (Haydon, 2007:1).

2.3.4 Values Underpin Thoughts and Actions

Values are important because leaders' decisions and actions reflect their values and beliefs (DuBrin, 2009). The leader's value system forms their philosophy (Mosley et al, 2008) that in turn determines their assumptions about the nature of people. Values guide actions and are not only important in understanding human behaviour and strongly influencing people's actions (Reece and Brandt, 2009), they also affect decisions leaders make (Haydon, 2007). This is in line with the conceptualisation in identity theory that moral action is driven by moral identity since the natural impulse towards moral action emanates from a sense of universal entitlement related to individual needs for self-esteem (Monroe, 2001), implying that moral identities affect choices people make.

Monroe (2001) further suggests that moral people are not only distinguishable from others by the values they hold but by the high degree to which these moral values are personified. It is therefore the integration of moral beliefs with the self that accounts for the virtuous acts of the moral people (Serpe and Stets, 2013). This means that the likelihood that people would live up to their ideals is largely dependent on the degree to which these ideals are integrated into their sense of self since the self imposes a need for coherence on the individual. Therefore, when moral beliefs are integrated into the self, immoral thoughts or actions threaten to render the 'self' incoherent (Monroe, 2001). Haydon (2007:9) adds, "...our values will be influencing us in what we do and how we do

it, even though we may not have spelt out our reasons for acting in one way rather than another". Therefore, values are the basis of human choices between alternative actions but within the confines of social structures in which such actions are embedded (Burke and Sets, 2009).

There are some exceptions to the above argument considering that people often compromise their moral beliefs through their actions, with some appearing to feel nothing at all, while others feel deep shame or remorse (Monroe, 2001). Carter (2013) brings in the concept of activation and salience where activation is the process by which identity is triggered and subsequently controlled by an individual in a situation but it is not simply the person but also situational cues that may introduce meanings that encourage the activation of one identity over another. Identity salience is the probability that one will invoke a specific identity across situations and more salient identities are those that have a greater likelihood of being brought into situations either through verbal or behavioural action or the readiness or probability to act out an identity within and across situations (Serpe and Stets, 2013). The duo argue that people will spend more or less time in an identity depending on the level of commitment and salience but also caution that various situational factors facilitate or impede the expression of a salient identity depending on whether the elicited meanings complement or contradict the salient identity meanings.

Related to salience is identity centrality or prominence (Hogg, 2001). An identity (value) that is highly important to one's self-concept has greater centrality (Burke and Sets, 2009). Centrality or prominence represents the importance of the identity to the individual and characterises the person's desires and values, and how the person wants to be seen by others. The more prominent an identity is, the more it will be invoked in a situation and prominence is higher when an individual receives support from others for the identity, when they are committed to the identity and when they receive rewards for the identity (Serpe and Stets, 2013). Even without support or reward, Carter (2013) argues that people who are highly committed to moral identity are likely to behave consistently with the meanings held in their moral identity when their identity is activated. In support,

Hogg (2001) posits that individuals who perceive themselves as caring and principled are likely to behave in ways consistent with these meanings implying that people with high moral identity self-perception will be more likely to act morally. Such individuals will be motivated to seek out situations where they can actively maintain congruence between identity meanings and how they appear to others. Therefore, personified values become determinants of behaviour, only when they are salient, have been activated, and are highly valued.

However, Haydon (2007) cautions against paying lip service to values. Leaders' true values are revealed through their actions as argued by Munroe (2014:86) saying "A person's values will eventually be revealed by the way he conducts himself, and [how] he treats others ..." implying, ethical leaders adhere to a value system by which they consider options for the conduct, make decisions and take actions. Munroe's (2014) reasoning concurs with Aristotle's assertions that unless under compulsion, people's actions are driven by what they consider to be good or pleasant (Freese, 1926) and most actions are mainly a result of premeditation. Epistemologically, therefore, humans are not passive recipients of what happens to them, they are active participants in the social phenomena (Bryman, 2012) in creating, modifying, and interpreting the world in which they find themselves (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). This favourably compares with Schön's concern with the crisis of knowledge in professional practice (Kinsella 2010). Schön advanced an epistemology of practice that drew attention to the knowledge generated through reflection in and on the practice itself. By reflective practice, he meant thinking about or reflecting on what one was doing and such closely links to the concept of learning from experience, in which the practitioner thinks about what he did, what happened, and decides from that what to do differently next time. The reflection enables one to engage in a process of continuous learning by paying critical attention to the practical values and theories, which inform actions by examining practice reflectively and reflexively hence leading to developmental insights.

A key rationale for reflective practice is that experience alone does not necessarily lead to learning; deliberate reflection on experience is essential as Achua and Lussier (2010) suggest that knowledge that is implemented is mostly acquired through learning by doing than from what people read or listen to or think. Hughes *et al* (2009) add that learning is enhanced when the experience involves action, observation, and reflection. If a person acts but does not observe the consequences of his/her action or reflect on their significance and meaning, then it makes little sense to say the person learned from the experience. It is, therefore, important for leaders to be self-critical and reflect on what guides the decisions they make and be sure whether the decisions are evidence-informed or prejudiced (Taysum, 2003). This is Schön's (Kisella, 2010) major contribution that we need to develop a broader conception of professional knowledge; his recognition that professional knowledge is generated amid practice, through reflection on practice as well as that learning and unlearning of values is best done experientially.

In summary, Gardner (1990) and Burns (1978) stressed the centrality and importance of the moral dimension of leadership (Sergiovanni, 1992). Gardner (1990) in particular posits that leaders ultimately must be judged based on a framework of values, not just effectiveness - ability to achieve results. Burns (1978) on the other hand maintains that leaders who do not behave ethically do not demonstrate true leadership because they lack the moral compasses to point for them at virtues as they traverse through life. If leaders understand their moral campuses and know how to read them, they will not get lost, confused, or fooled by conflicting voices as moral values become and remain their guiding principles (Munroe, 2014).

2.3.5 Leadership and Organisational Values

The preceding argument is premised on the assumption that individuals operate in societies in which roles and group memberships are voluntary. In less open societies such as the corporate world and universities, roles and group membership are compulsory, in which people have little choice as to their roles and groups, professional identities would highly likely be shaped more by the roles that individuals assume (Burke and Stets, 2009).

This aligns with Knight and Trowler's (2001:49) assertion that, "Professional identities are constructed within a given ... framework, which involves ... formal roles such as head of department or course coordinator, which themselves have exogenous connotative codes associated with them". Since identity formation is a continuous and reflexive process constructed within the context of social institutions and relationships, institutional values shape the professional identities of its members (Machovcová *et al*, 2018).

Therefore, leaders should always reflect on the institutional customs on which their professional identity verification is based (Monroe, 2001). Haydon (2007:45) echoes, "What makes [a leader] a despot ... may be partly a matter of the qualities shown by the individual leader but is also a matter of the role in which the individual is placed" in that roles are executed following acceptable organisational norms. For middle-leaders placed "... between a university culture of line management within a hierarchical framework and the professional need for cooperation and collegiality within their department ..." (Branson *et al*, 2016:129), normative culture would take precedence. Machovcová *et al* (2018:715) echo,

"... it has been established that values such as collegiality, academic freedoms and autonomy over one's ... work have been defining elements of professional identities in academic faculty... however, academics in general and academic managers in particular, are forced to reconcile their belongings both to the academic profession ... and the academic institution".

Just as individuals possess a set of values, so do organisations (Hughes *et al*, 2009). Even though leaders have their values that "... represents basic convictions about what is right and what is wrong" (Coulter and Robbins, 2007:130), "a leader's action and a leader's professed beliefs must be congruent, or at least compatible with organisational value system" (Drucker, 2001:171) to make sure that such values guide the behaviour of followers in the organisation. Gunter and De Luque (2014) echo that "... Responsible leadership does not occur in a vacuum; it is contingent on aspects of the immediate situation and the organisational context, the institutional and cultural environment, and

supranational factors. Institutions have their administrative systems, quirks, and power flows that have to be learned (Knight and Trowler, 2001) and therefore, institution-specific advice is needed. Moreover, "... if there is indifference or hypocrisy toward values at the highest levels, then it is fairly unlikely that principled behaviour will be considered important by others throughout the organisation" (Hughes et al, 2009:181). A mismatch between the championed and enacted values by leaders would cause followers to doubt how trustworthy the leaders themselves are and the authenticity of the espoused organisational values.

2.3.6 Consequences of Mismatched Values

The misalignment "... between personal values and organisational values..." (Hughes *et al*, 2009:180) is a major reason why leaders fail in their duties and not necessarily due to lack of competencies. Since corporate values provide the foundation for the purpose and goals of an organisation (Reece and Brandt, 2009), "... we need to take into account the interpersonal and cultural contexts in which people in leadership roles are working" (Haydon, 2007:22). Once in a role, leaders are expected to attend to the perceptions of the normative or prototypical values (role or group identity) that may be at variance with their self-definitions (person identity), but in line with definitions outlined by the dominant culture and practices (Serpe and Stets, 2013). As leaders bring with them characteristics from their background (sets of values, attitudes, assumptions and recurrent practices) that may or may not be similar to or compatible with prototypical group behaviours and expectations (Knight and Trowler, 2001), mismatches are inevitable. This mismatch also known as failure in Identity-Verification (Burke and Stets, 2009), makes people become upset and stressed when they are not able to achieve the congruity between situationally based self-perceptions and their person identity standards. Identity verification occurs when individuals perceive that others see them in a role in the same way they see themselves (Burke and Stets, 2013) and successful verification leads to increased self-esteem.

To avoid suffering from stress, middle-leaders creatively devise coping strategies (Hogg, 2001), where their actions do not simply follow the dictates of their core self but that of the role they occupy. They choose to behave in a manner prescribed by both the situation and structure, as there is pressure to conform and not disrupt the social order. This is highly likely when people are occupying obligatory roles in which they don't wish to reveal their real self when they are compelled to live by the organisational norms (Burke and Stets, 2009). Consequently, they may make compromises and give up some of their meanings and expectations tied to a particular identity in favour of the prototypical meanings and expectations of an entity. Individuals may simply be acting as agents (actors in the role) without being personally committed to or in agreement with the role meanings while serving in incompatible normative behaviours and expectations.

Armstrong and Mitchel (2017) posit that middle-leaders find it difficult to adhere to and reproduce dominant norms and demands that place them under high surveillance, discipline and exclusion. To survive, middle-leaders usually suppress aspects of their identity that are not in tandem with the normative boundaries. They adopt coping strategies when they experience negative feelings and feel compelled to engage in a variety of behavioural and cognitive thoughts such as doing something different in the situation or reinterpreting the perceptual meanings of the self in the situation to create a verifying state (Hogg, 2001). On the contrary, higher-ranking officials are less likely to employ coping strategies since they are the embodiment of the prototypical behaviours the lower-ranking officers are expected to emulate (Hogg, 2001). The success in achieving organisational purposes for middle-leaders is therefore a function of their ability to understand their values and apply them in a manner acceptable to senior leaders.

Corporate values provide the direction for decisions made at all levels of the organisation and choices or options that run counter to those values are either rejected or simply not considered (Burke and Stets, 2009). However, "People who lack a strong moral sense are much less likely to do wrong things if they are constrained by ... strong cultural norms that disapprove of such behaviours. Conversely, intensely moral individuals can be

corrupted by an organisational ... culture that permits or encourages unethical practices” (Coulter and Robbins, 2007:130). This implies that although we may not know precisely what makes an organisation successful, its value system is a critical factor in its success or failure (Reece and Brandt, 2009).

To foster leadership effectiveness, there should be congruence between organisational and personal values. “Personal values are the essences of who we are as people and human beings” (Ganly, 2010:2) and effective leadership is taking what you believe in based on your core values and translating beliefs and values into action (Rowitz, 1996) (cited by Peregrym and Wolff, 2013). In fact, “At the heart of genuine humility is never forgetting who you are, appreciating the value of each person in the organisation and treating everyone respectfully...” (Kraemer, 2011:60).

Newstrom and Pierce (2008) suggested that successful leaders strategically translate their values, beliefs, and ethics into their visions, purpose, strategies and practices. In other words, organisational values and practices of more effective and improving organisations essentially reflect the professional values of those who lead them. Leaders become the living symbol of organisational values and their professional values and ideals can be integrated into what they do, why they do it, and how they adapt their practices to the unique features of the policy, organisational and human context.

2.4 The Desired Leadership Moral Virtues

Leadership moral virtues are disposition like courage, kindness, generosity of spirit, honesty, concern for justice, politeness, integrity, effort, courage, resilience, faith, and gratitude, as being important virtues identified by Aristotle (Freese 1926). Dewey (1909) included prudence, fortitude, justice, and circumspection, which are a desire to foresee future events to avert, that which is harmful, and that which we fear (quoted by Taysum, 2019) as desirable virtues. Pring (2010) includes dispositions like courage, kindness and generosity, honesty and concern for justice as moral virtues. Peters (1981) also talked about habitual, motivational, artificial, and higher-order virtues (quoted by Haydon,

2010). Habits include acts such as punctuality, tidiness and honesty and are important as they can prevent us from trouble. Motive types of virtues like compassion are valuable as they enable leaders to act according to rationally justifiable principles. Compassionate people can have the disposition to be moved by their feelings for others to act in a way that a rational morality would prescribe. The development of the capacity for such motivation is thus an important aspect of moral development (Haydon, 2010). Artificial virtues such as justice, tolerance, which involve more general consideration to do with rights and institutions, have value in the regulation of social life. They can be internalised and become virtues. The higher-order virtues such as courage, integrity and perseverance, which have to be exercised in the face of adversity, enable leaders to act following set principles. Aristotle considered justice and courage as the most esteemed virtues (Quoted by Freese, 1926). There are also intellectual virtues that are concerned with finding out the truth and not to cook the books, openness to criticism, an interest in clarity of communication, and a concern for evidence (Pring, 2010). Intellectual virtues are essential for the development of knowledge and understanding.

Given that virtues are personified desirable values (Haydon, 2007; Pring, 2010 and Sergiovanni, 1992), Hughes *et al* (2009) identified virtues exhibited by effective leaders at work as; recognition, hedonism, power, altruistic, affiliation, aesthetics, tradition, security, commerce and science (See appendix 11). Haydon (2007) singles out altruism as the most relevant virtue for educational leaders where altruism refers to selfless, humane or philanthropic behaviour and altruistic leaders are committed to the ideals of education and the common good of others. Leaders who tenaciously value altruism believe in helping others who are less fortunate and are motivated to help the needy and powerless to improve society and they too, believe in social justice (Hughes *et al*, 2009) since injustice anywhere is a threat to justice everywhere (Carson 1998). On the contrary, an educational business-minded leader might value profits more, regardless of any other considerations, and maybe "... treating other people, including the staff and students, simply as instruments in the pursuit of his ends" (Haydon, 2007:38). Therefore, the motivation behind the leader's actions is critical. Leaders, therefore, need to understand

their value systems and their situational contexts for them to make meaningful contributions to their organisations.

2.5 Desirable Morals in Zambian Graduates

The need for more skilled administrators in post-independent Sub-Saharan Africa created high expectations on Universities about the qualities of their graduates. Zambia in particular, expected universities to produce intellectuals who would be helping fellow citizens “to break the tribal and racial barriers, which they may have previously accepted, and to foster in them a national consciousness” (Mwanakatwe, 2013:189). Zambia sought after virtues of inclusivity as opposed to segregation based on tribes as explained by Kelly (1999:109) emphasizing that:

"In addition to producing high-level manpower, the university must attempt to educate the whole man. It is not enough to give graduates a sound academic or professional training if, at the same time, they do not acquire sound moral values; if they are not imbued with a sense of social responsibility; if they do not possess an inner conviction that the knowledge they have acquired should be put at the service of their fellow men, of their country, indeed of the whole of humanity."

The Zambian government expected universities to produce graduates that would help in bridging the gap between the 'haves' and 'have-nots' so that gradually the evils of a class-conscious society would be eliminated, and would not form a privileged elite in society; an exclusive class of intellectuals who will be ashamed to return to their villages to live and work among their kinsmen for the general good of the country (Mwanakatwe, 2013). Having been one of the first advocates for the establishment of university education and the first Minister of Education in independent Zambia, John Mwanakatwe craved to see three virtues in university graduates. The first virtue, the search for the truth and the discipline to accept facts as one finds them, which aligns with Pring's (2014) description of intellectual virtues that are essential for the development of knowledge and understanding. University graduates were thus expected to be truthful and concerned

with finding out the truth and not to cook the books, but desire to pursue excellence in their chosen field and this is the second perspective that refers to one being competent and able to perform their functions to the betterment of their communities. Being truthful and having the desire to serve humanity diligently should foster the 'Capacity for Service', in the sense that a "... truly educated man does not set himself as better than the rest" (Mwanakatwe, 2013:233) and that is the third virtue and moral perspective. A complete education is therefore holistic and must seek to combine intellectual and moral values in line with Plato's sentiments that an educated person is only worth the tag if they returned to the cave and liberate those that they left there (Kelly, 1999).

The third perspective aligns with Haydon's (2007) assertion that truly educated people do not set themselves as better than those they serve, instead, they are conscious of their obligations to humanity. Their education "enable them to identify and recognise the needs and aspirations of the community and how best the individuals, including himself, can help in ensuring that those needs and aspirations are met" (Mwanakatwe, 2013:237). King summarises the function of education as teaching the learner to think intensively and critically and shaping their character (quoted by Carson, 1998), agreeing with Kelly's (1999) notion that it is not enough to give graduates sound academic knowledge void of good morals.

The above-discussed virtues provide the understanding that Zambia envisaged "developing the virtues we admire in a good man: kindness, selflessness and courage ..." (Kelly 1999:109), as Mwanakatwe (2013) adds that education should produce graduates who are cheerful and friendly persons willing to help their teams when they are in positions of authority. These sought-after virtues in university graduates are the basic human values that make learners not only become good people but also good leaders. Therefore, Zambian Universities have been expected, from the advent of independence, to produce graduates imbued with national patronage and servant-hood in their various work endeavours. However, contrary to the national expectations, Mwanakatwe (2013:241) reports, "It is a fact that there has been a marked reluctance on the part of

the country's youths to identify themselves with the National Development Plan" that required them to serve fellow citizens.

It is therefore incumbent upon educational leadership to foster not only the development of intellectual capabilities but also moral virtues (Pring, 2014). The leadership role is to model such virtues to enable students to develop both intellectual abilities and values for effective leadership for it is easier for students to develop such virtues once they have experienced them as part of their learning (Astin and Astin, 2000).

2.6 Development of Leadership Identities

As leaders bring in their cultures to construct meanings and since people have multiple identities, they may struggle with the need to construct a sense of self in a new role (Notman, 2016). Handal (2008:57) echoes that;

"Building an identity consists of negotiating the meanings of our experiences of membership in social communities. We build our identities by participating in social communities where we negotiate with others' meaning in what we do. We define ourselves about the (different) communities we participate in by identifying with them or by distancing ourselves from them"

Therefore, understanding the development of values that impact leadership identity is important and this is the focus of the following sections.

2.6.1 Cultural Values a Source of Leadership Identity

Aligning leadership development to past or prevailing culture has been supported by many scholars. Kuada (2010) suggests that culture provides a frame of reference by which leadership behaviours can be understood since shared cultural values and norms bind members of a society and that leadership styles and behaviours are culture-bound. Crow and Møller (2017:754) posit that culture influences identity construction asserting, "Identities are formed, revised, repaired, maintained and strengthened in a social context

of communities of practice". While Edge *et al* (2017) say that identities may be forced on people through oppression, marginalisation, or institutionalisation. Törnsten and Murakami (2017) believe that leadership identity develops from individual self-concepts based on their beliefs, values, motives, attributes, and experiences with others echoing Crow and Møller's view. They add that the nature of professional identity is built upon the leaders' family upbringing, mentors, and professional experience, an assertion they confirmed in their research on the development of professional identities among female secondary School Principals in Sweden and the USA.

Therefore, leadership as an identity comprises; the self in terms of values, beliefs, and motives that should be synchronised with the requirements into the role, understanding and creating effective relationships with others, whom the leader interacts. The self, in terms of moral values – that is culturally and socially constructed, sets the basis of the development of leadership identity.

2.6.2 Development of Morals

Moral development refers to the way people distinguish virtues from vices as they grow and mature. Very young children generally may not have the same ability to make such distinctions as adults but as they grow, they develop attitudes and behaviours towards other people in society based on acquired cultural norms, rules, and laws (Kalat, 2008). Haydon (2010) asserts, as he quotes Peters (1981), that the basic facts of child development are the formative years of a child's development; the child is incapable of the form of life they live as conducting themselves rationally, intellectually, and with a fair degree of spontaneity, they depend on the society around them. This implies, morality develops across a lifetime and is influenced by an individual's experiences through different physical and cognitive development periods in line with Monroe's (2001) conception that, as individuals grow, they will likely take on identities that are considered normative given life course transitions. Similarly, Burke and Stets (2009:9) asserts, "the nature of the individual depends upon the society in which he or she lives...[and]... the individual achieves selfhood at that point at which he first begins to act toward himself

in more or less the same fashion in which he acts toward other people". Moral Virtues, therefore, emanate from the wider society, family, the school one attends and the neighbourhood that values those virtues, and incorporate them into its form of life (Pring, 2010). Knight and Trowler (2001:49) echo, "... members of the groups draw on and enact behaviours, meanings and values from the wider environment ... depending partly on their ... ethnicity, professional experience, and so on". Families, in particular, provide their children with cultural capital by transmitting the attitudes and knowledge needed to succeed in the current educational system (Bourdieu, 1986 quoted by Gary et al, 2010). Therefore, through active socialisation and passive role modelling, parents transmit their cultural capital to their children (Mikus et al, 2020). Bowen *et al* (2014:281) affirm the inheritance of cultural capital at an early age within families and that it can be acquired throughout one's life and argue that "... without the initial transmission of cultural capital from the family, one cannot acquire sufficient additional cultural capital" implying that learners are dependent on inherited initial cultural capital from their families to acquire more.

Generally, psychologists agree that morals are formed early in people's lives and are acquired from a variety of sources (Reece and Brandt, 2009). These values develop throughout people's lives and are difficult to change in a short time (Hughes *et al*, 2009) after they have matured and stabilised. Peoples' life experiences shape their belief systems and inform their reasoning and actions in future endeavours (Hume, 2008). Burke and Stets, (2009) suggest that identities develop through social learning, direct socialisation, and reflected appraisals. These three areas are discussed below.

2.6.2.1 Social Learning

In the early years, parents are the dominant influence in shaping children's values (Kundu, 2015) as they teach their children what is acceptable and unacceptable behaviour and which character traits are to be encouraged or changed. Hughes *et al*, (2009) posit that values develop through early socialisation and Stets and Serpe (2013) echoed that people develop early in life some values that would become stronger and form their

character and parents, the proximate social structures, form the fulcrum of such development. Similarly, Aristotle said, "... for it is probable that ... a man will turn out as he has been brought up" (Freese, 1926:101). Mothers, in particular, are the emotional backbones of the family as they provide the holding place for everyone's feelings and do their best to keep their children from being hurt (Kundu, 2015).

In later years as they interact with others, children learn how their behaviours affect other people and they modify their behaviours accordingly (Kalat, 2008). Personal experiences, friends, teachers, and others outside the family come in to help shape children's value system. The heroes and heroines young people discover in their childhood and adolescence help them form a 'dominant value direction' that complements their basic personality (Sanktrook, 2006; and Reece and Brandt, 2009) and this underscores the importance of Role Models in people's childhood. The admirations from and experiences with role models affect the character of a person in adult life (Hughes, 2009). As they grow and when they enter school, the influence of schools and playmates on social development increases (Wayne, 2010) since "... the school becomes a substitute for the child's home and the Teacher a substitute for a mother" (Kundu, 2015:67) and that is why schools' impact is second only to the home in the child's development.

a) The Hidden School Curriculum

Given that leadership is a social process (Hogg, 2001), and that organisational culture depends on commitment at the highest levels of the organisation, induced and perpetuated by the top leadership through their values and practices and the vision they project (Hughes *et al*, 2009), even schools through administrative rules also impart into children the minimum general culture (Kalat, 2008), indirectly preparing learners to become responsible citizens (Taysum, 2019).

The existence of such a culture in schools operates as a hidden curriculum (Sanktrook, 2006). Dewey (1933) posits that through its rules and regulations, the school administration infuses the school with a value system. Bourdieu (1977) echoed that

schools help reproduce a stratified class system by bolstering the dominant group's cultural capital that provides individuals with a platform to judge their self-worth and maintain their self-esteem (quoted by Carter 2003). Even though schools may not have specific programmes on moral education, they inculcate morality through the moral atmosphere created and infused by rules and regulations (Sanktrook, 2006). Through classroom rules, peer relations, and teacher guidance, schools transmit morals about cheating, stealing, and consideration for others. Such practices constitute the hidden curriculum as Carter (2003) emphasises that cultural capital gives people the audacity of acceptability in a society among peers and other stakeholders. Gray *et al* (2010) affirm that school management boosts students' embodied cultural capital as a means towards achieving academic success. Gillies *et al* (2010) equally affirm that students who can identify themselves with the school community and find a role within that supportive setting are highly likely to generate approved cultural capital. Therefore, schools as social institutions reflect the dominant culture through their educational systems and help students to conform to the dominant cultural expectations. Gillies *et al* (2010) argue that schools supplement the family's role to strengthen cultural capital in learners through the hidden curriculum in which peer learning also plays a key role.

b) Peer Learning

In school, through their contact with others, children learn to assess themselves thereby laying solid foundations of their developing personality (Kundu, 2015). The more pleasant early social development children have, the better their outlook on life will be and, in turn, the better will be their social adjustments (Kalat, 2008). If the child is popular, adds glamour to their moral development. Wayne (2010) adds that the leadership responsibilities of students in schools enhance their popularity and self-esteem. The popularity makes them feel accepted, liked and admired by others socially. Those in a position of leadership, develop positive self-confidence (Kundu, 2015). In support, Kalat (2008:185) asserts, "popular children have many friends and they associate with those they admire and most other children avoid 'rejected' children". Being a School Prefect,

for example, is very prestigious for most students as such makes them feel popular among their folks which in turn impacts positively on their social development.

Based on peer learning, Piaget (1932) (quoted by Sanktrook, 2006) developed the stage theory of moral development called heteronomous and autonomous moralities. Piaget posits that moral development is mainly advanced through the mutual give and take of peer relations. In peer groups, since all members have similar power and status, rules are negotiated and disagreements are reasoned about and eventually settled. Piaget emphasised the influence of peers on moral development through social interactions as opposed to the critical role played by parents. In support, Reece and Brandt (2009) argued that morality cannot be taught, but can be learned through watching and learning from the behaviour and attitudes of others than by listening to or obeying what people say about values. Reece and Brandt (2009) further argued that this fact holds whether it is individuals learning from a family or workers learning from an organisation. However, this reasoning suppresses the effect of the home environment on the development of moral values in which the home environment is regarded as critical in a child's early social and mental development needs (Kundu, 2015). These needs are met through parent's affection, provision of early social training, creating an ambience for the child to interact with other children and provision of opportunities for mental development through encouragement and moral training through appropriate parenting.

Piaget theorised that moral development is determined by cognitive development. By this, he meant that the way individuals think out moral issues depends on their level of cognitive development. This assumption provided the springboard for Kohlberg's (1976, 1986) research (quoted by Sanktrook, 2006). Like Piaget, Kohlberg also stressed that moral development involves moral reasoning and occurs in stages as depicted in his moral development theory centred on internalisation, which refers to the developmental change from behaviour that is externally controlled to behaviour that is internally controlled. He argued that children actively participate in the constructions of their morals and that they do not just accept cultural norms for morality but their moral thinking is advanced through

discussions with others who reason at a higher level. People at a higher level could include parents, teachers, and other role models hence recognising the impact of social contexts on the moral development of children. Wayne (2010) considered Kohlberg's theory as the most influential among several competing theories that attempt to explain how young people develop the sense of right and wrong.

Kohlberg's theory focuses on moral reasoning rather than overt behaviour (Sanktrook, 2006), and progress in moral reasoning is indeed closely tied to cognitive development with reasoning and internalisation of morals suggested to start at the adolescent level (Wayne, 2010), a period that coincides with upper primary and secondary school pupils. This conceptualisation also contradicts the importance of parenting on children's moral development, and may imply that morals may not be taught to children directly through appeal to their reason, but must be approached indirectly through a variety of means, in which habituation is central (Pring, 2010). Haydon, (2010:174) adds, "Children can and must enter the palace of reason through the courtyard of Habit and Tradition" and that we become just by doing just habits (Aristotle, quoted by Haydon, 2010). Based on Kohlberg's theory, therefore, the social activities and amenities that foster effective peer interaction among children at school are very critical in the development of moral reasoning since "... personal and social development comes second to intellectual development ..." (Haydon, 2007:76) and this brings to the fore, the role of teachers in the social development of learners.

2.6.2.2 Direct Socialisation

Learning of morals can be done both formally and informally through instruction about what is expected to fulfil role expectations. Burke and Stets (2009) refers to formalised learning through activities such as orientations for new students and induction or in-house training for new employees as direct socialisation. They advocate for direct socialisation when employees need to learn complex tasks in a limited time, and when from the onset, employees must have a correct understanding and requisite skills to execute the given tasks in line with the set role standards.

In schools, moral education can be formalised through education systems underpinned by ethical values (Taysum, 2019). In Zambia, Mwanakatwe (2013:234) suggested an education system that would produce learners endowed with the conscience of their obligation to their fellow citizens and the entire country, asserting that;

"The educated man does not ask what his country can do for him, but rather what he can do for his country. He should be aware of the interdependence of the community in the development, happiness and prosperity of individual members. His education should enable him to identify and recognise the needs and aspirations of the community and how best the individuals, including himself, can help in ensuring that those needs and aspirations are met".

In universities, formalised moral education can start with top administration, followed by lecturers and trickle down to the learners. Without a learning culture cascaded from the top, HEIs may not be positioned to foster effective moral education in learners (Davenport and Prusak 1998) since a learning culture can evolve only when it is recognised by top management as an essential organisational process to which they are committed and in which they engage continuously (Senge, 2006). A learning culture that encourages reflective experiential learning catalyses actual knowledge implementation (Achua and Lussier, 2010) since learning is enhanced when the experience involves action, observation, and reflection (Hughes *et al*, 2009). If a person acts but does not observe the consequences of his/her action or reflect on their significance and meaning, then it makes little sense to say the person learned from the experience.

Given how difficult it is to unlearn bad habits (Toppings, 2002) and considering also that organisations possess their own set of values that might be at variance with those of the individuals (Hughes *et al*, 2009) entering the leadership positions, there must be concerted efforts for harmonisation. Without such harmonisation, misalignment between personal and organisational values that make many leaders look incompetent (Hughes *et al*, 2009) are likely to occur. Furthermore, "allowing leadership to develop haphazardly is likely to leave individuals with critical skill gaps and blind spots, and leave organisations

with succession deficits” (Bass, 2005:424). To effectively align individual leaders’ values with those of their organisations, direct socialisation by mentors who can serve as value models, can help in orienting novices to the core organisational values (David *et al*, 2009).

Even though values cannot be trained for like skills, they are acquired through learning that gives leaders the chance to explore, modify, extend, or refresh their values and align them accordingly (Adair, 2005). Learning takes leaders out of their silos and gives them a fresh vision of their field and themselves. Direct socialisation, therefore, catalyses leaders’ self-awareness, reflectiveness and resilience (Earley, 2020).

2.6.2.3 Reflected Appraisals

Preferably, managers learn to lead on the job under the mentorship of experienced seniors (Achua and Lussier, 2010) but such learning should not be done haphazardly. Instead, organisations “should evolve a philosophy of [leadership] development that ensures that deliberate interventions are made to improve [leadership] learning” (Armstrong, 2009:724). Such planned interventions should take into account the interpersonal and cultural contexts in which people in leadership roles work (Haydon, 2007:22) to avoid the probable mismatch between individuals’ values and the dictates of the organisational culture. Even though the ability to lead is essentially something that individuals develop for themselves, while carrying out their normal duties, success is assured when seniors give juniors encouragement, guidance, and opportunities to learn. Therefore, leaders are neither born nor made but seniors in top positions grow young leaders (Armstrong, 2009) through well-designed programmes such as mentorship.

Mentors do not only teach novice leaders job skills; they also transmit the values of the organisation to their protégés and such involves what Burke and Stets (2009) calls ‘Reflected Appraisals’ that enables protégés to think of how they are defined by others concerning their behaviours and role expectations. Reflected appraisal plays an important part in shaping and defining role identity for novices (Burke and Stets, 2009).

Through reflected appraisals, mentors - preferably senior leaders, identify potential in juniors, encourage and empower them as "success is for a leader to see the need and the potential in others, come alongside them, and help them do what they need to do and go where they need to go" (Barna and Dallas, 2009:16). Senior leaders, therefore, should help novices to achieve things they thought were not possible on their own. They realise that every normal human being has some talents and abilities of some sort but they need somebody who believes in them, to help them set goals and standards, and model how they could achieve their dreams (Achua and Lussier, 2010). That is the mentorship role of leaders - to make followers become the best they can be.

Generally, "Mentoring builds up a professional learning community... Using the same concept of leaders developing leaders, leaders guiding leaders and leaders leading leaders" (Ashley, 2016:1012). In the UK, academic leaders are expected to empower and provide supportive development of juniors through mentoring or role modelling (Evans, 2017). They are expected to foster the professional development of their colleagues – fostering their competency enhancement through a mental internalisation process of professional work-related knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Such development should culminate into others' realisation of the better ways of doing something and should not only result in behavioural development but also attitudinal change. They should help others to self-introspect on how best to do their work. HoDs as academic leaders are, therefore, expected to help others grow professionally through mentorship which involves acting as a model for research activities, sharing knowledge and expertise about publishing and funding, and commenting on others' work (Bryman, 2007).

In summary, moral development starts in infancy and progresses through childhood, adolescence, and adulthood (Kalat, 2008). The developed moral philosophies influence leaders' view of the nature of people and consequently inform their leadership styles in working with and through people (Mosley *et al*, 2008). Mosley *et al*, (2008) posit that three critical factors interact to influence the development of leaders' philosophies about the nature of people, namely; family and early school environment, experience and

training in the area of leadership and the work environment, including the type of work and the general management system. Therefore, the key message is that leadership identities are learned, internalised, and personified. The internalisation of these identities starts in infancy but develops throughout the development stages of children until they become the integral value system of an individual. The internalised identities become habits and habits form the leadership character.

2.7 Accession to Head of Department Position

Having reviewed and discussed potentially how leaders develop their leadership capital premised on the moral virtues, this section focuses on the accession of academicians to leadership roles. Particularly, the section focuses on the literature about the mode of ascendance into the HoD position, inherent tensions in the roles and requisite preparations for the leadership roles.

2.7.1 Ascendance to Head of Department Position

HoDs are expected to foster excellence in research and teaching, distribute duties fairly, support the development of professional and general staff and work collaboratively well with others to improve the image of the Department (Brodie and Partington, 1992). Day *et al* (2011) expect HoDs to develop their subordinates, mobilise and align resources and effectively lead teaching and learning. As middle leaders, Branson *et al* (2016) expect them to articulate the road map and areas of importance to faculty and play the liaison role of disseminating information between academic staff and senior administrators. However, appointments into leadership positions are not based on leadership prowess but scholarly achievements (Hill, 2005) with the obvious result of people issues being neglected. Evans' (2017) research revealed that UK universities seldom prepare academics for leadership roles but are expected to devise their way-out in learning to face and overcome whatever challenges they faced making it not a surprise about their being sceptical of formal development or treat such provisions as unnecessary. In a sense, such self-initiated development prospects involve professional socialisation, using colleagues as a yardstick, measuring one's leadership, attitudinal and emotional response

to how others appear to be acting. It is, therefore, an imitative process that perpetuates the status quo, hence may militate against change and the development of professionals to incorporate a new or more diverse range of roles. There is thus need to prepare them formerly so that they fully understand how their colleagues perceive them, act as role models, and be above reproach in their professional behaviour. Lack of prior and formal preparation for their roles creates challenges in balancing various roles.

2.7.1.1 Challenges in Balancing Among Key Functions

Given that HoDs are appointed based on their academic prowess rather than leadership acumen (Bryman, 2007), they may find it difficult to pay critical attention to ensuring effective leadership and may fail to maintain research presence. Bryman (2007) emphasises that effective HoDs make research a priority, fine-tune workloads to reflect this orientation and take steps to provide resources to sustain a strong research focus but building a successful research culture means thinking together, sharing clarity about goals, and developing vibrant investigative relationships (Knight and Trowler, 2001). The pressure to publish is endemic, so HoDs need to work with colleagues to construct and sustain networks that make for a commitment to scholarship. To do this, requires talking about research, sharing ideas and expertise and working together on proposals, projects and publishing. Therefore, to raise research profiles in departments, research should be reflected in formal staff evaluation procedures and should also inform low-stakes formative research appraisals.

Bryman (2007) posits that research-oriented universities prioritise recruiting and retaining outstanding researchers since academic staff prefers leadership that creates conditions that enables them to pursue their research interests and objectives in a relatively unfettered way. HoDs are, therefore, expected to ensure that staff access the necessary resources they need and are facilitated to do their work autonomously. It is important, therefore, for HoDs to have credibility as researchers when leading research-oriented departments. They are expected to maintain a research presence while equitably attending to other roles.

Hill (2005:2) found that “academics are often ambivalent about assuming leadership roles” due to the daunting people management tasks that new leaders grapple with and disorient their normal source of motivation. Their professional identity and “sense of satisfaction from work are derived principally from their professional expertise and accomplishments as they are rewarded for their research and teaching” (Branson *et al*, 2016:138) as they are essentially not recruited for their leadership potential but are normally selected based on their academic prowess. They are, therefore, compelled to shift from what they are acquainted with to trading on unfamiliar grounds. Bush (2016) referred to this change as culture shock and suggests professional socialisation that involves ‘learning on the job’ and drawing on their earlier professional experience, as a way to learn their roles. Even experienced academics recruited to new contexts would experience new situations, different technologies, changed students and disrupted sets of meaning that leave them feeling temporarily disempowered, deskilled and filled with self-doubt. Therefore, “the most important aspect of learning when joining new communities of practice involves largely, tacit, distributed knowledgeability, rules of appropriateness, taken-for-granted understanding and conceptual appreciation that are specific to the working group” (Knight and Trowler, 2001:52). Hence, learning to become an organisational member is far more a question of socialisation than to do with formal learning along a transitional, rational cognitive line.

The workload in universities has significantly expanded in size and complexity arising from massification and research intensity resulting in increased administrative work, the need to manage performance and control the quality of teaching, learning, and research. In such work environments, academic leaders who can respond to these increased managerial works and attend to the traditional academic responsibilities simultaneously are highly needed (Machovcová *et al*, 2018). Given the demanding nature of the HoDs roles, the way leaders approach it; their beliefs, expectations, attributions and ways of seeing – make it feel more or less demanding (Knight and Trowler, 2001). Those who do it willingly tend to be less stressed, so are those who are more self-confident – are less perturbed by the work. People who have learned optimism and who appreciate the

importance of good thinking and effort are less at risk than others in the face of adversity. “One way of understanding the pressure of the job of leading a ... department is to appraise one’s tendencies to learned optimism or learned helplessness” (Knight and Trowler, 2001:137). Copying with administration and scholarship work call for: among others time-management, prioritising, delegation etc., it also requires maintaining perspectives; setting priorities, and understanding people.

With the increased complexity and managerialism, untrained middle-managers may not easily embrace the managerial concepts, but rather identify with the familiar traditional academic roles and disengage from ‘managerialist’ practices - that forms the core of their roles. In their research, Machovcová *et al*, (2018) identified three ways in which Czech HoD managers dealt with growing managerial responsibilities. One way was by ably adding managerial responsibilities to their academic work. They conceptualised their HoD roles as an extra layer over their professional core functions, retained their core identification with their academic work, remained academics and resisted the transformation into professional managers. They shared the view that they were adding managerial activities to their already established teaching and research roles. They expressed their desire to remain actively involved in their research work and individually negotiated the extent of their involvement in teaching. Secondly, they steadily adapted to managerial pressure which they initially perceived had deprived them of their academic freedom and autonomy as well as made them work under surveillance by higher authorities. They did not also like the structured and restrictive nature of administrative roles. Thirdly, and most important approach was diverting managerial pressure by seeking help on administrative functions from fellow managers and delegating some duties to administrative staff. However, Knight and Trowler (2001:166) posit, “Although prudent leaders delegate areas of responsibility to others, new leaders can be perturbed by the expectation that they understand the full sweep of department’s operations, have views about how they might develop or dwindle”. The Czech HoDs gradually reduced their teaching load for which they were trained, and successfully increased their leadership roles in which they were not formally prepared (Bush, 2016) as they were

availed opportunities to reduce their teaching loads. However, Nyuyen (2019) suggests that novice educational leaders must be quickly provided with training that will help them develop requisite competencies to execute their leadership functions. Balancing these varied and daunting duties with one's academic work is one of the most critical challenges HoDs appointed directly from the faculty ranks face given also the limited avenues for formal leadership development.

2.7.2 Need for Social Interactive Skills

Academic leaders are expected to empower, provide supportive development of juniors through mentoring or role modelling and should have social skills to foster the professional development of their colleagues (Evans, 2017). To earn credibility, admiration, respect and trust from fellow academics, HoDs should become role models others should identify with and want to emulate (Bryman, 2007). They must learn to work closely with others, persuading them into their agendas as relationships act as a bridge between university authority structures and collegial relations across departments (Branson et al, 2016). Their authority, as middle-leaders, depends on the nature of their relationships with seniors, colleagues and subordinates (Bush, 2016) since their leadership is mostly relational (Hill, 2005).

Inherent in the middle leaders' roles are therefore three expectations; collegiality, professionalism, and authority (Bryman, 2007). Collegiality demands the need for them to communicate honestly to build a culture of mutual trust and respect. Trust is formed from the confidence others have in their leader (Branson *et al*, 2016) and is fostered by a collegial climate, a system of governance based on consensual decision making, and mutual professional support among staff (Bryman, 2007). Practicing collegial management enables HoDs to develop effective professional relationships and networks that will, in turn, support the collaborative development of programmes of offerings, teaching and research within departments and beyond the university (Branson *et al*, 2016). This implies that an important aspect of leadership effectiveness at the

departmental level is the degree to which the HoD can foster such collegiality (Bryman, 2007).

With professionalism, HoDs are expected to ensure adherence to professional standards and to monitor peer performance against set standards. Seniors expect them to act authoritatively over their colleagues on assigned and delegated responsibilities while faculty members expect them to work in a more collegial, friendly, and team spirit manner. Tensions are thus bound arising from simultaneously maintaining trust through collegiality while expected to exert authority to ensure adherence to performance standards. As such, middle-leaders feel like 'the meat in the sandwich as they try to negotiate the demands between expectation to act as line managers on one hand and professional colleagues on the other (Bryman, 2007). HoDs are expected to care about things to which they were formerly indifferent and since they are expected to place the interest of institutions above that of their departments, they are likely to be unpopular among their colleagues who expect them to fight for their interests. As Knight and Trowler (2001:167) assert, "This is what leaders have to learn, which is that their relationships with colleagues will change. Some faculty will become oppositional, many will become more demanding and most, even long-term friends, will be at least a bit careful about what to say to the team or department". Their leadership, therefore, is "... characterised by tensions arising from simultaneously managing expectations from above and below..." (Bush, 2016:4). The authenticity of their values may thus be put to test and such poses great challenge or could act as their source of influence when they are pressured to do things against their values.

In short, HoD roles prescribe relationships and behaviours and there are expectations associated with the role positions and success in the roles "requires that individuals identify with, internalise, and become the role" (Burke and Stets, 2009:74). Performing one's role properly does not only facilitate confirming one's role identity but also confirms the counter role's identity and at the same time confirms the social structures within which the identities are embedded. Consequently, decision-making processes become difficult as prioritising among activities is strained by multifaceted expectations (Garrett,

1997). Given that role verification is mutual, complementary, and reciprocal (Burke and Stets, 2009), HoDs should also be interested in and adept at building effective relationships with others with whom they work and generally empower their direct reports as their effectiveness fulcrums on the ability to get work done through others (Hill, 2005).

2.7.3 Relationship Building

Effective relationships are very important since people learn the meanings of their roles in interaction with others as explained by Burke and Stets (2009:114) that “role identities acquire meaning through the reactions of others”. Through interactions, role identity meanings are shared with others who may have a different understanding of that identity. This means that having a role identity provides a social identity since every role is tied to other members of the role set and verification comes by what one does, and not necessarily who he is. Being verified (confirmed as doing what is expected) in a role identity reinforces the importance of a role within a set of role relationships. Therefore, role verification is mutual, complementary, and reciprocal as the output of each role is input to other roles. The role of a subordinate makes no sense without the role of the supervisor. According to Carter (2013), role identity verification is affected by significant others in one’s environment or among others of varying status. These significant others are persons within the role set who utilises or are affected by the output of executing a particular role. Therefore, effective professional development demands orienting individuals not only into their specific roles but also into group expectations and helping them to understand how their person and role identities are related and affected by other roles in the wider group in which they are located.

High on the expectations from academics is to be involved in decisions and to be able to debate on issues that affect them (Bryman, 2007). This is because academics want to be responsible for their work and to get on with their work in an untrammelled and unconfined way. Therefore, one of the effective leadership factors is promoting participative decision-making and a structure to support its development. Participative management creates avenues for leaders to gain an understanding of what is considered

appropriate, important, and taken for granted phrases since "... knowing about the way things are done and other people in the organisation is far more important to success in the leadership and other roles than are formal qualification ..." (Knight and Trowler, 2001:53). Leaders, therefore, should learn how to network and create supportive alliances given also that leadership is a relational issue within groups in which leaders exist because of followers and followers exist because of leaders (Hogg, 2001). Learning how to lead is, therefore, best fostered through shared practices that demonstrate faithful acceptance of given but subtle meanings (Taylor, 2008).

2.7.3.1 Developing Shared Identity

Edge *et al* (2017) posit that leadership thrives on the existence of a shared identity that binds leaders and followers together and ensures consensus over what the leader represents. Such shared identity assists leaders to understand how they are perceived and how they can identify and overcome any misinterpretations. Their success hinges on the ability to create a sense of belonging for everyone. Since effective interaction with others fulcrums on shared meanings (Burke and Stets 2009), leaders must introspect to establish both who they are and who their subordinates are to avoid misunderstanding that in turn may permeate misgivings and negative perceptions as a result of failure to identify one another.

Middle leaders such as HoDs, therefore, need the ability to mobilise others around what they want to be achieved through shared aspirations (Branson *et al*, 2016). They need to build effective relationships with their followers and everybody else with whom they work. If their relationship is characterised by fear and distrust, it will never produce anything of lasting value but a relationship characterised by mutual respect and confidence will overcome the greatest adversities and leave a legacy of significance (Kouzes and Posner, 2012).

2.7.3.2 *Networking and Building Trust*

To be successful in their roles, HoDs have to be network builders and competent at managing relationships especially with followers through effective communication as “smart leaders ... engage with employees in a way that resembles an ordinary person-to-person conversation more than it does a series of commands from high” (Groysberg and Slind, 2013:78). Groysberg and Slind, (2013) add that effective conversations require effective listening, which is a powerful tool in building trust and effective relationships. Hughes *et al*, (2009: 167) also assert, “Whatever ‘true leadership’ means, most people would agree that at a minimum it would be characterised by a high degree of trust between leader and followers” adding that followers trust leaders who demonstrate empathy towards them and understand their genuine needs and are consistent, have integrity demonstrated in action through their commitment to higher principles. Drucker (2001) also emphasizes that trust is based on the conviction that the leader means what s/he says. Bryman (2007) echoes similarly the need for leaders to be trusted and to be seen as people of integrity exhibited through their ethical behaviour in all dealings. Burke and Stets (2009:74) refer to such tendencies as “Selective affiliation, that is, choosing the ‘right people’ with whom to interact and the right situation in which to interact” as people prefer to associate with those who see them as they see themselves. In other words, people affiliate with and tend to trust those who offer them positive reinforcement and attention.

Trust and attention are cultivated through effective listening to followers at all levels and through learning to speak with employees directly and authentically (Branson *et al*/2016). Such is only possible when leaders develop both mental and emotional proximity to the followers and shift the focus from top-down informational dissemination to encourage voices from down to be heard and given audience (Groysberg and Slind, 2013).

Given that leadership is a relationship between leaders and followers, a complete picture of leadership can be developed only if you ask followers what they look for and admire in a leader (Hogg, 2001). Since “leadership is a quality that grows from a dialogue

between people" (Ramsden, 1998:80), any discussion about leadership for HoDs must attend to the dynamics of the relationship with their seniors. Given the strict surveillance and controls eminent in high-power relations and 'permission seeking' leadership cultures (Adeyemi, 2017), impressing seniors may be the only way to remain relevant and survive for middle-leaders.

2.7.3.3 Impression Management

The actions of middle leaders need to be understood as located in and framed by specific contexts, while also serving to actively shape the contexts (Branson *et al*, 2016). As Handal (2008:60) posits, "academic leaders do not negotiate their identities solely in social relations and ... practices they engage in, but also [about] the structural, material and organisational surroundings that they ... are part of". Hollis (2002:8) affirmed, "men make their history, but they do not make it just as they please; they do not make it under conditions chosen by themselves". To actively shape that context, they need social power, which is a potential for changing attitudes, beliefs and behaviours of others, and "... social power needs to be understood as embedded in and expressed through relationships" (Branson *et al*, 2016:131). To gain social power, middle leaders may opt to play organisational politics that involve intentional acts of mainly upward influence to enhance or protect their self-interests (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2002). They may start behaving well to seniors as a way to survive through impression management. Burke and Stets (2009) refer to such manoeuvres as 'interpersonal prompts' implying the use of appropriate interaction strategies of getting others to treat you in a manner consistent or congruent with your own identity. People do this partly through appearance or how they behave towards the relevant other.

Such manoeuvres are common in organisations with high power-distance relations (Cummings and Worley, 2009). Wray-Bliss (2003) describes 'power-distance, as a condition that creates psychologically superiority position of the senior to the subordinate and seniors are deemed to be wiser than those upon whom authority is exercised. In such cultures, pacifying seniors is highly likely due to the need to conform to social

structures and contexts in which people in leadership are working (Haydon, 2007) as "... group members operate within a common organisational environment that has its own set of rules ... taken for granted attitudes and conversations" (Knight and Trowler, 2001:49). The social norms and structures are at play and set the boundaries limiting social actors' freedom to express their consciousness which may constrain actors' manifestation of the real self (Serpe and Stets, 2013). However, "a leader's action and a leader's professed beliefs must be congruent, or at least compatible" (Cohen, 2010:171) with organisational value system.

2.7.4 Preparation for HOD Roles

In support of Brodie and Partington's (1992) assertion that HoDs are appointed based on academic distinction and not qualities of leadership or management, Ramsden's (1998) view that they enter into roles in which most of them have not been prepared and Bryman (2007), submits that there are little or no capability training programmes that exist within HEIs to equip HoDs with the required competencies in leading teaching and learning, motivating followers and developing a community of learners. Evans (2017) echoes, academic leaders are not clear of what their leadership roles entail and what is expected of them due to the lack of formalised leadership development prospects. Consequently, many leaders prepare themselves based on what they consider effective leadership manifested by leaders with whom they have interacted. Bush (2016:3) also affirms that "in most educational systems, there is no systematic preparation programme and Principals often 'learn on the job', drawing on their earlier professional experience". What is common in HEIs is professional development through on-the-job experience (Brodie and Partington, 1992) since; formalised leadership learning opportunities are rare (Branson *et al*, 2016). Lack of prior preparation notwithstanding, HoDs are expected to shoulder heavy responsibilities such as helping academic staff to grow professionally through mentorship, which involves acting as a model for research activities, sharing knowledge and expertise about publishing and funding, and commenting on others' work (Bryman, 2007). They should be seen by their staff as providing helpful feedback on

performance, providing constructive feedback, and mentoring. In addition, they are also expected to superintend over a variety of administrative and managerial functions.

Given that HoD roles are obligatory 'role identities' (Burke and Stets, 2009), leadership schemas that generally contain the optimal situation and task-specific competencies become of the essence (Hogg, 2001). Therefore, reliance on formal education and direct socialisation is preferred because of the complexity of the learning that must take place and the number of others that depend upon the correct performance of the role (Burke and Stets, 2009). Deem (2006) noted that some middle-leaders opt to acquire leadership competencies through professional socialisation. Evans (2017) describes professional socialisation as learning from colleagues through one's initiatives.

2.7.4.1 Professional Socialisation

As defined by Bush (2016:3), "Professional socialisation refers to the leadership learning, deliberately or inadvertent, by which [leaders] acquire the knowledge and skills required to lead..." through association with colleagues. Through professional socialisation, HoDs could "... learn from and with others who are positioned in a structural sense above, alongside and below them" (Branson et al, 2016:138). This is in tandem with Aristotle's sentiment that through socialisation we can be able to change attitudes and internal feelings (prejudice, hate etc) (Freese, 1926).

Through professional socialisation leaders can learn to win friends and earn trust, as an academic leader's principal resource is other academics (Ramsden, 1998). They also need to know the kind of relationships they need to build and how to create collaborative networks (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019). Bush (2016:3) adds, "Establishing mutual trust between [leaders and lecturers] is an important aspect of the socialisation process..." Branson *et al*, (2016:138) support this assertion indicating that "If we accept that learning is a social process, then each professional colleague can become a resource for the middle leader's learning..." while Ramsden (1998) adds that good leaders listen to what their colleagues say about their experiences of the academic environment and academic leadership. Since professional socialisation is "using colleagues as a yardstick, measuring

one's ... enactment of professorship [with] one's attitudinal and emotional response to how others appear to be enacting it" (Evans, 2017:134), it is an imitative process that perpetuates the status quo and may thwart change initiatives and understanding the wider expectations in their roles.

Professional socialisation may be limiting if it is solely premised on-the-job experience learning as Kotter (1999:62) warned, "Despite leadership's growing importance, the on-the-job experiences of most people undermine their ability to lead". Towards such, Branson *et al* (2016:138) reported, "... administrative assistants became the temporary and unofficial mentors, particularly about administrative processes with [HoD] responsibilities". Therefore, leadership development should not be left to unguided on-the-job learning alone (Bass 2005). There is thus a need to formerly prepare leaders to enable them understand how their colleagues perceive them, act as role models, and be above reproach in their professional behaviour (Bryman, 2007).

2.8 Consolidation of HoD Roles

Over and above executing an overwhelming array of roles such as being budgetary and facility managers (Hill, 2005) and relationship builders (Branson *et al*, 2016), HoDs are also expected to ably align departmental activities with the overall university vision (Ramsden, 1998). They are expected to promote their department's standing and profile within the university and beyond through advocacy, championing the cause of staff, and contacts with external constituencies (Bryman, 2007). They should support the overall university strategy and align their departmental activities towards realising the vision with which they infuse their teams' willingness to follow their directives (Hogg, 2001). In essence, effective HoDs are those who provide strategic leadership for their departments by establishing a collective direction and ensuring that such a direction is followed.

2.8.1 Supporting Organisational Strategy

Given that leadership is about doing the right things (Cohen, 2010) and that doing the right things focuses more on setting direction, aligning and motivating people behind

strategies (Kotter and Cohen, 2002), the quest to achieve optimal performance and organisational sustainability, therefore, requires leaders to execute their roles strategically. As middle leaders, HoDs are expected to “co-ordinate a multitude of tasks whilst being held accountable for the performance of their departments...” (Lloyd and Wolstencroft, 2019:118). They should foster quality learning, effectively manage resource provision and utilisation as well as network with a wider spectrum of stakeholders. To be successful, they need to be skilled in devising strategies.

Strategy is “... the creation of a unique and valuable position, involving a different set of activities” (Porter, 2008:53). Being strategic is the ability to see the big picture and devise an effective methodology and the right set of actions that will lead to realising the vision. Strategy is about Key issues for the future of an organisation (Gerry *et al*, 2014) and is concerned with an organisation’s basic direction that defines the organisation’s sense of purpose (Lynch, 2000). Strategy can also be seen as the determination of the long-term goals and objectives of an enterprise and the adoption of courses of action as well as the allocation of resources necessary to achieve set goals (Armstrong, 2008). Effective leaders are therefore good strategists (Bryman, 2007).

Strategic leadership is, therefore, the ability to express a strategic vision for the organisation and to motivate and persuade others to acquire that vision (Gerry *et al*, 2014). It involves crafting a compelling and shared vision and devising the methodologies to realise the vision optimally (Adair, 2010). Strategic leaders can create and express visions, passionately possess a vision, and persistently drive it to accomplishment. Leading strategically, therefore, involves intentional and rational thoughts that focus on the analysis of critical factors that have a potential impact on the organisation’s vision.

Adair (2010) summarises strategic leadership functions as involving giving direction for the organisation as a whole or part of, strategic thinking and strategic planning, making it happen, relating the parts to the whole, building key partnerships and other social relationships, releasing the corporate spirit and choosing and developing leaders for today and tomorrow. Adair (2010) posits that thinking can be classified as strategic when it is

doing three things; focusing on the important rather than the urgent, the longer-term rather than the short term and including all relevant elements in the equation.

The foregoing underscores Brodie and Partington's (1992) suggestion that HoDs need to acquire skills in the formulation of strategy and resource mobilisation since their role includes managing changes and realigning departmental activities with the organisational strategy regularly and collaboratively. When embraced and well-executed, strategic leadership can help university departments define their direction and focus efforts consistently and coherently towards goal attainment. Even though "strategy has become a key aspect of leadership in schools" (Davies and Davies, 2003:79), strategic planning seems to be a rare activity at the departmental level in universities despite the eminent need for universities to embark on strategic management (Brodie and Partington, 1992). Fortunately, the virtues of consistency and coherence in goal attainment are not a preserve for corporate entities only but universities too, are expected to manage their resources strategically (Bryman, 2007). Through effective strategic development, leaders make choices and concentrate their limited resources on activities that create great impact for the organisations (Cohen, 2010)

As universities create large turnovers, making profits that sometimes run into millions of dollars or pounds, HoDs need to function more effectively as strategic managers where strategic management refers to a set of decisions and actions resulting in the formation and implementation of strategies designed to achieve the objectives of an organisation (Armstrong, 2008). It is a continuous process of planning, monitoring, analysing, and assessing all that is necessary for an organization to meet its goals (Porter, 2008). Such a process helps managers assess their entity's present situation, chalk out strategies, deploy them and analyse the effectiveness of the implemented strategies. In the distant past, "University Departments carried out their activities with a little review of their appropriateness and even less attempt to define clearly and explicitly the aims and objectives of the collective work" (Brodie and Partington, 1992:6). In the UK, "There has been an increasing shift to strategic management approaches in HEIs..." (Deem,

2006:208) - leaders are appreciating and refining their skills in the formulation of strategy and management of finance. HoDs, in particular, are now expected to do more with less, work with devolved budgets in departments, conduct performance monitoring, and recruit students from the international markets (Deem, 2006). Therefore, how HoDs ensure congruence between organisational strategic intent and strategic implementation in their departments formed a crucial factor for investigation.

The downside to strategic management is that the process can become prescriptive as the "...process begins to direct the organisation, rather than the organisation directing the process, resulting in immune to radical thought and challenge" (Davis and Davies, 2003:78). Consequently, there may be incongruence between top management planning and the practical operational reality on the ground hence tensions may arise. The advantage though of strategic management is that the process imbues accuracy in defining the organisation's business, which in turn help in saving time, money and other key resources (Cohen, 2010). It also helps in identifying priorities on which staff should concentrate and help leaders to focus on those opportunities and possibilities that are important in their business, guarding them against drifting away from their mandate as they prioritise the allocation of the ever-scarce resources. Being strategic also helps HoDs in shaping their entities through creativity, innovations and change (Haydon, 2007).

2.8.2 Managing Change

Change is inevitable and all organisations ought to initiate and manage change effectively. In fact, "... arguably the most important, overarching role of the leader in current times is that of understanding the changes for Universities and enabling the Department to respond to the changes effectively and positively" (Brodie and Partington, 1992:8). Like all other organisations, universities are confronted with the need to make changes to the way they carry out their functions in response to dynamism in both the external and internal environment and expectations placed on them (Rebora and Turri, 2010). Girma and Matebe (2018) suggest that Universities are making changes to fulfil their education, research, and community service responsibilities despite change management in

universities being complex and paradoxical (Meister-Scheytt and Scheytt, 2005) with an apparent lag in learning about leadership and management among manager-academics to enable them to manage change (Deem, 2006).

In developing countries, effective change initiatives are said to be failing to address real institutional problems due to systemic change management approaches imposed by governments (Girma and Matebe, 2018). In most cases, such changes do not address the real needs Universities should focus on, rather they are implemented as a fashion to satisfy the interest of external bodies contradicting the expectations of transformation efforts fostering genuine improvements in universities. Lumby and Foskett (1999) advise that education policies arrived at externally, still require implementation by organisational leaders who may be deeply opposed to them for various reasons, but whose support and commitment are essential for success. In the developed world, Universities have been adapting to survive through a considerable variety of strategies that have involved prioritisation of revenue generation, resource reallocation, management professionalisation, organisational restructuring, and strategic relationships with government and business entities (Parker, 2002).

2.8.2.1 Challenges of Effective Change Management

Despite educational change and reforms being a policy priority and of major concern, genuine educational change has little prominence in the public policy in many places (Hargreaves, 2005), hence making successful changes in HEIs a critical challenge especially in SSA (Girma and Matebe, 2018). Hargreaves (2005) holds that changes are now needed to address the heightened mass expansion to ensure and maintain optimal quality offerings. With the massification of education, the expectation on HEIs in the UK to develop higher-order thinking skills, problem-solving capacities, and the habits of collaboration and teamwork in learners has not declined, instead, there is increased pressure to improve the quality of education (Hill *et al*, 2016). The increased pressure to enhance the quality of education provision, improve student recruitments and sustain their continued attendance and success, heightened the need to secure funding to meet

the cost of future operations. In government-funded HEIs, the unit of resource allocation for learners has declined but competition for learners has increased, and governing bodies are expecting nothing less but effective leadership practices (Hill *et al*, 2016).

In East Africa, massification and expansion of university education were not matched with corresponding growth in the number and quality of lecturers to ensure an efficient and effective lecturer-student ratio (Zelen and Olukoshi, 2004). The critical changes about mass education “entails a shift from a conception of the HoD as an amateur administrator, managing by consensus, and occupying the office as a temporary elected chair... to the role of trained professional leader” (Ramsden, 1998:34). Kenya in particular has witnessed expansion, diversification of provision, more heterogeneous student bodies, new funding arrangements, increasing focus on accountability and performance, global networking, mobility, and collaboration (Odhiambo, 2014). In Zambia, in Central Southern Africa, heavy teaching workload left little time for the development of research and postgraduate training and resulted in the loss of international credibility due to prolonged closures and disturbances (Kelly, 1999). These changes have challenged higher education leadership with the need to revise mission statements, assess the impact of new sources of funding, meet requirements for accountability and consider globalisation and the impact of international competitions (Odhiambo, 2014).

Change processes are critically thwarted at the middle management level where the change policies and strategies are expected to be interpreted and implemented. In their investigation on the middle management’s role in further education in the UK, Lloyd and Wolstencroft (2019) found that middle-leaders viewed themselves more as implementers rather than influencers and focused more on operational issues instead of strategy and fostering organisational change. They also downplayed or ignored their leadership roles that were critical in enabling them and the organisation to respond and implement changes in policy and direction. Girma and Matebe (2018) argue that middle-leaders don’t understand how to initiate and manage changes and fail to address the causes of resistance to change as they don’t practice inclusivity and participative decision-making

processes. Girma and Matebe (2018) equally cite incompetent leadership as being among the dominant factors hampering change initiatives in SSA HEIs.

To overcome the above challenges, Arshad (2019:143) cautions leaders, "... relying on positional authority alone is insufficient, as over-use of it can lead to disgruntled staff, and in any case, on matters of values, it has also to be about buy-in, not forced agendas and outcomes". Case (2005:7) posits, "... effective change takes place only when individuals are committed to a vision of a new future that has meaningful roles for them. It has been suggested that most major change initiatives fail to achieve their intended objectives because staff unconsciously and consciously sabotage the change process when they feel excluded". Kotter (2002:2) echoes, "changing behaviour is less a matter of giving people analysis to influence their thoughts than helping them to see a truth to influence their feelings... the heart of change is in the emotions". This implies that fostering effective change requires leaders to be adept at relationship building, inclusivity approaches and participatory management that foster staff confidence and establish emotional stability among followers, which is a key ingredient in driving the desired changes.

In line with the quest for self-awareness, reflectivity and resilience being key for leaders' success (Earley, 2020), Arshad (2019:144) emphasises the "... need to be constantly reflective ... to be conscious of the impact of our decisions, of the resources we choose ... what we consider to be right or wrong answers and what we consider to be valid knowledge". Therefore, leaders, need to develop self-awareness to decipher how their values, beliefs, and motives affect the approaches they would adopt to drive the envisioned changes (Arshad, 2019). Such self-awareness provides for giving the right priority to the work leaders care about (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019), which in turn affects followers' perceptions of the real motives behind the change initiatives.

Towards this, Kovačević and Hallinger (2019) posit that to manage change effectively and make positive improvements, leaders should develop shared and compelling visions that act as catalysts for both actions and as a binding force that creates coherence for

successful change. Kotter (1996:63) echoes, “without a sensible vision, transformation efforts can easily dissolve into a list of confusing and incompatible projects that can take the organisation in the wrong direction or nowhere at all ... in failed transformations, you often find plenty of plans and directives and [programmes] but no vision”. Similarly, Bryman (2007) holds that effective leaders make sure that their staff is apprised of the direction of the department. This helps faculty to develop a sense of ownership of the leader’s vision for as long as the vision is compelling in terms of being intellectually and emotionally engaging (Bennis, 1990).

Therefore, only shared visions are compelling as visions cannot be imposed but each person must genuinely hold the vision for themselves (Munroe, 2014). The leader’s task is to champion a compelling vision capable of propelling an organisation towards the attainment of intended results. A shared vision reduces resistance, increases motivation, and enhances identification with the change (Girma and Matebe, 2018). Ramsden (1998:140) defines “a vision as an ideal image, a picture of excellence, a distinctive pattern that makes your [organisation]...different ...” as it identifies where the organisation wants or intends to be in the future or where it should be to best meet the needs of the stakeholders (Lynch, 2000).

2.8.2.2 Benefits of Shared Vision

Shared visions provide unity of purpose to organisations and imbue in the employees a sense of belonging and identity (Lynch, 2000) as they become embodiments of organisational identity and carry the organisation’s creed and motto. Shared visions also spell out the context in which the organisation operates and provide the employees with a tone that is to be followed in the organisational climate. They serve as focal points for individuals to identify themselves with the organisational processes and to give them a sense of direction while at the same time deterring those who do not wish to follow them from participating in the organisation’s activities (Kotter, 1999). More so, shared visions provide a philosophy of existence to the employees, which is very crucial because humans need meaning from the work they do (Manasse, 1986). Since they define the reason for

the existence of the organisation, shared visions are indicators of the direction in which the organisation must move to actualise the goals.

The leader's task is therefore to champion a shared vision capable of propelling an organisation towards the attainment of intended changes (Ramsden, 1998) through effective communication; both in words and deeds (Littrell and Ramburuth, 2007) and consciously attempting to become a living symbol of the envisioned changes (Kotter 1996) to create buy-in from key stakeholders. Good communication and the leader's personal belief in the shared vision can lead to the realisation of the vision whereas behaviour by important individuals that is inconsistent with their words thwarts transformational efforts (Kotter 1999). This is a question of aligning personal values with organisational purposes to authenticate the envisioned changes failing which others may not be willing to change. This assertion aligns with Girma and Matebe's (2018) research findings in universities in developing countries. The research showed that change initiatives were hampered by poor communication strategies, lack of followers' involvement in decisions that induced unwillingness to accept the changes, poor readiness and commitment of leaders, and a failure legacy of previous changes. People did not feel they were part and creators of the changes that were forced on them by governments and such signals the significance of participatory decision making in the success of change initiatives.

Any attempts aimed at transforming an organisation requires the mind shift of the individuals involved and affected by the envisaged change and that requires adaptation and/or compatibility with the existing value system. People should be personally committed to change initiatives and true commitment is that which is internally initiated and valued by the individual. The essence of leadership, therefore, is to inspire people to envision the benefits of change and motivate them to maximise their commitments to change. Employees must value and own the change process.

2.9 Identifiable Gaps from Literature

From the key thoughts advanced by authors summarised in appendix 15 below, five (5)

key gaps have been identified towards which this research sought to contribute.

The first is that despite the wide recognition of effective leadership, many HoDs emerge from faculty ranks without prior preparation for their roles (Bryman, 2007). Unfortunately, HoD positions are held by professors who are promoted based on scholarly achievements because it is considered fitting for the incumbents of such roles to be professors but who are unclear about what the role entails and what is expected of them (Evans, 2017). Consequently, HoDs become susceptible to vices such as arrogance, self-centredness, self-obsessed among others. Such vices are usually directed towards supportive staff (Ramsden (1998) and are symptomatic of the need in HoDs to comprehend the meaning of and desire to provide effective leadership. While the freedom of discovery, interpreting and exchanging knowledge in an intellectually rigorous way is fundamental to all forms of education, academics should be able to think critically about what they do as well as learn from others (Ramsden, 1998). Premised on the quest to avoid creating competency gaps, as Bass (2005:424) warns, "allowing leadership to develop haphazardly is likely to leave individuals with critical skill gaps and blind spots, and leave organisations with succession deficits", this research explored how HoDs could become adept in their leadership roles. HoDs appointed without prior grounding in leadership may not be exemplary in performing their core functions such as developing people, mobilising and aligning resources, and effectively leading teaching and learning (Day *et al*, 2011).

Secondly, Astin and Astin (2000) add that there is little research available on leadership effectiveness in HEIs while Ribbins (1997) noted that literature on headship effectiveness in universities is limited. In support, Bryman (200) highlights minimal research available on leadership roles in universities at departmental level that would provide insights on the roles. Available research on effective leadership in HEIs has been conducted in Western countries and the corporate world (Hill, 2005) "... but leadership in most of Africa has not been explored in much depth" (Eckert and Rweyongoza, 2010:4). Empirical research on the nature of leadership in SSA is limited (Bolden and Kirk, 2009:5), hence creating knowledge gaps on leadership towards which this research sought to contribute.

Thirdly, despite the complexity of the nature of the HoD roles, incumbents are expected to provide effective leadership but how they should learn to become effective leaders has not been addressed in the literature. The acknowledged void in institutionalised leadership preparations leads incumbents to feel like 'the meat in the sandwich' as they try to negotiate the demands between expectation to act as line managers on one hand and professional colleagues on the other (Bryman, 2007). Consequently, their leadership is characterised by tensions arising from simultaneously managing expectations from above and below (Bush, 2016) due to the lack of direct socialisation (Burke and Stets, 2009) to the roles. While success hinges on their ability to create effective relationships, how they should develop such social capital by aligning their cultural capital with organisational culture (Cochrane, 2006; Mikus *et al*, 2020 and Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012) is not addressed, hence the call for leader and leadership development for HoDs (Earley, 2020). Leader development (Core self) does not only complement and complete leadership development but is also a fundamental part of the job and enhances the self-awareness of the leader.

This 'core self' (person identity) is about their deeply held values, beliefs and motivation. Understanding the 'core self', begins with understanding their character, purpose, and values (Bullingham and Vasconcelos, 2013). Development of the 'self' begins in infancy, progresses through childhood but remains fairly constant in adulthood in the absence of significant disruptions (Kalat, 2008). The internalised identities become the integral value system that forms their character and their philosophy that determines their assumptions about the nature of people and influences their style of working with and through people (Mosley *et al*, 2008). Self-awareness of such identities enables leaders to understand not only their value system that defines who they are (Burke and Stets, 2009) but also how others perceive them and such forms the premise from which to identify areas for their continued growth both as persons and role occupants (Robertson, 2017). Evidently, many academic leaders lack the will and framework for self-introspection to foster their self-awareness (Evans, 2017).

The fourth gap is that few leaders or probably none, know their values and those of the organisation they work for since many don't self-introspect (Haydon, 2007). Therefore, values remain a hidden, silent power that is not fully explored, harnessed, and integrated into leadership development programmes of aspiring and practicing leaders. Leadership development must be anchored on self-awareness to enable leaders to know who they are, and what is expected of them in their roles (Earley, 2020). There is a knowledge gap on how HoDs create congruence between their values and that of the organisations they serve.

Inevitably, the misalignment between leaders' values and those of their organisations explains why leaders fail in their duties and not necessarily due to lack of competencies (Hughes *et al*, 2009). To effectively align individual leaders' values with those of their organisations, direct socialisation by mentors who can serve as value models, can help in orienting leaders to the core organisational values (David *et al*, 2009). Unfortunately, the commonly preferred means to learn how to lead is the informally devised professional socialisation renowned to thwart the development of professional capital (leadership identity) (Evans, 2017). This is the reason for the call to prioritise both leader development and leadership development (Branson *et al*, 2016) to foster Holistic leadership development (Taysum, 2003), with the former referring to the development of the person and the latter defined as the knowledge and skills relating to occupational role development (Earley, 2020).

Holistic leadership development should create self-awareness that would help leaders learn how to grow and become effective by understanding person, role, and social identities (Burke and Stets, 2009). This holistic understanding is referred to as 'leadership identity and constitutes the meanings leaders attach to their roles at personal, relational, and collective levels (Tubin, 2017). Leadership effectiveness, therefore, starts with awareness of the 'self', what Sergiovanni (1992) refers to as the 'leadership Heart'; Person's Interior world (morals, values, beliefs, motives, dispositions etc) that form the basis of their thoughts and actions, that filters the development of leadership identity (Crow and Møller, 2017). Given that individuals don't easily "put on" and "take off" their

morals as they move on from a role or group to another (Burke and Stets, 2009), leadership development should be studied holistically.

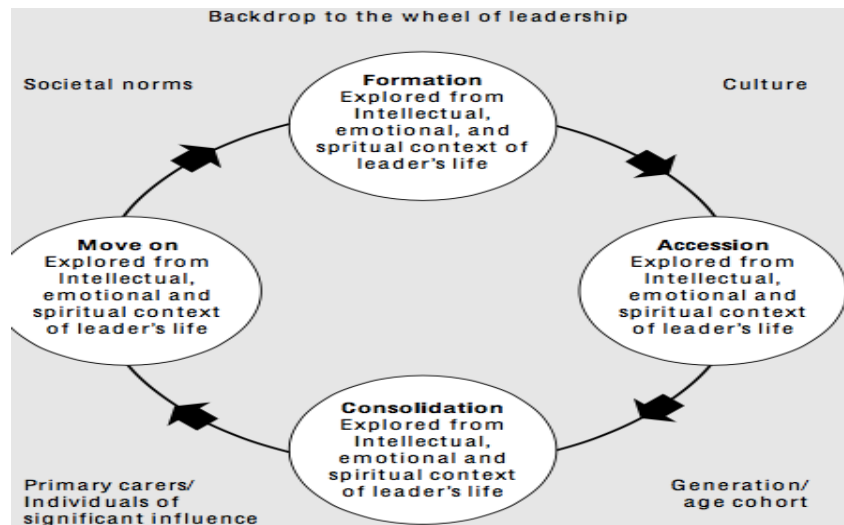
Self-Awareness would also foster the congruence among organisational, leadership and personal values since “personal values are the essence of who we are as people and human beings” (Ganly, 2010:2) and effective leadership is taking what you believe in based on your core values and translating beliefs and values into action (Rowitz, 1996). In fact, “at the heart of genuine humility is never forgetting who you are, appreciating the value of each person in the organisation and treating everyone respectfully...” (Kreamer, 2011:60). Leaders, therefore, need to understand their values and their situational context for them to align their values with those of their organisations (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019).

The fifth identifiable gap is that contemporary leadership development practices have focused more on task-related competencies (Crow and Møller, 2017) and less on the leadership morals making most leaders become technically oriented and focusing more on the processes and results without understanding their moral dispositions, nor understanding principles of educational dispositions. Consequently, such practices disadvantages leaders in developing their social attributes that are part of the defining features of leadership identity (Adair, 2005).

Given the lack of systematic leadership preparations of university HoDs recruited from faculty ranks, they learn their roles through unguided on-the-job learning that has the potential for negative consequences on themselves and the organisation in which they serve (Bass, 2005). Success in their leadership roles requires reflective experiential learning, that is customised and learner-centred (Ashley et al, 2016).

Premised on the identified gaps, it was imperative to address Haydon’s (2007) call to contribute to generating new insights into the formation of the leadership character of the HoDs, their accession to roles, and the necessary experiences to profoundly consolidate their leadership roles as illustrated by the Holistic Leadership Model (Taysum 2003) in figure 2-3 below.

Figure 2-3: The Holistic Leadership Model (Taysum, 2003)



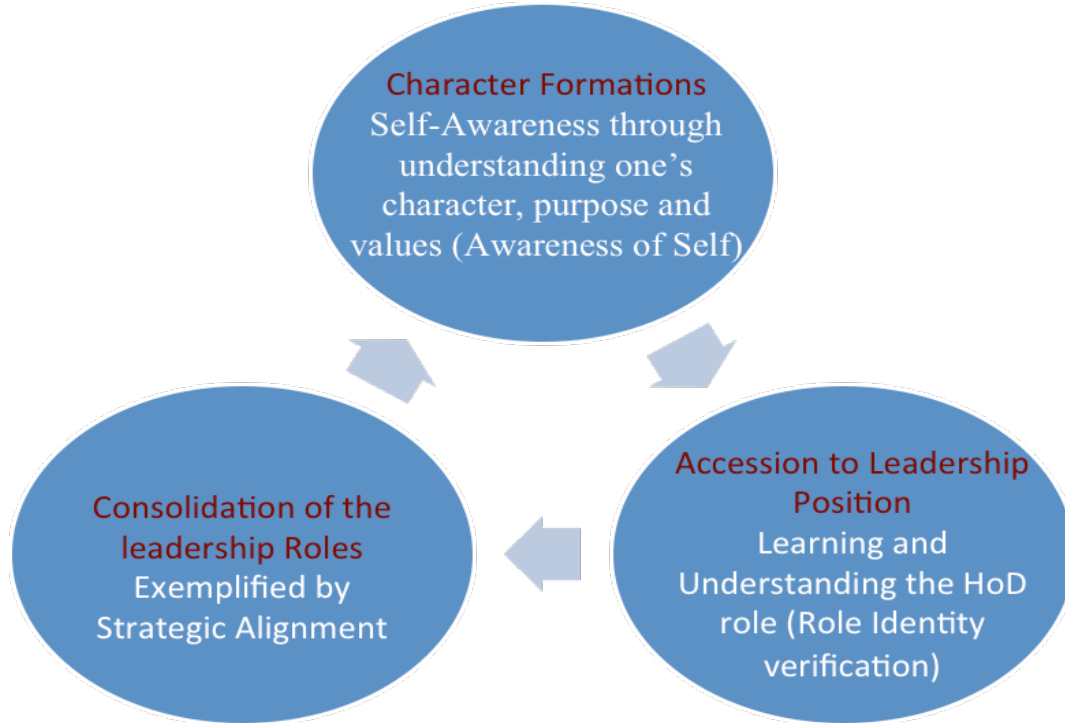
2.10 Conceptual Framework

The above theoretical framework, summarised into self-awareness, adapting to fit into HoD roles, and exemplifying leadership effectiveness, corresponds to the first three segments of Taysum's (2003) Holistic Leadership model depicted in figure 2-3 above. Three specific research questions below were therefore ascertained to guide in the investigation of how HoDs learn to consolidate their leadership.

1. How do university HoDs develop their leadership Capital?
2. How do academicians make adjustments to fit into HoD roles and learn to perform the roles effectively?
3. What practical evidence exemplifies the consolidation of the HoD roles?

Given the research focus on the formation, accession, and consolidation of the leadership of the HoDs, figure 2-4 below, adapted from figure 2-3 above, schematically conceptualises the interplay among these three major research variables.

Figure 2-4: Schematic Conceptualisation of Research Variables



Adapting the Holistic Leadership Model was informed from literature underpinning the need for leaders to develop self-awareness to understand not only their value systems that define who they are and how others perceive them but also forms the premise from which to identify areas for their continued growth both as persons and role occupants. Literature also established the need for congruence among organisational, leadership, and personal values and that effective leadership is based on and is filtered through leaders' core values. It was evident that the heart of effective leadership was never forgetting who one was while at the same time being aware of organisational values and expectations.

As leaders, HoDs are also expected to ably align and focus departmental activities with the overall university vision, understand their roles in the bigger university context, and be aware of problems associated with their roles and how to overcome such problems. Being aware of the wider expectation of their roles, understanding the strategic intent of the overall university, and how they should position their departmental activities towards achieving the overall organisational intent underscores the need for their strategic

proWess. They are expected to be proactive, relationship and network builders, change-oriented, innovative, motivating and inspiring, and championing compelling visions with which they infuse their teams.

The following section, therefore, outlines the road map of the investigation on how HoDs became aware of their person and leadership identities (leadership capital formation), learned and understood their roles (accession to roles) and exemplified consolidation of their leadership roles (leadership consolidation).

3 Chapter Three: Methodology

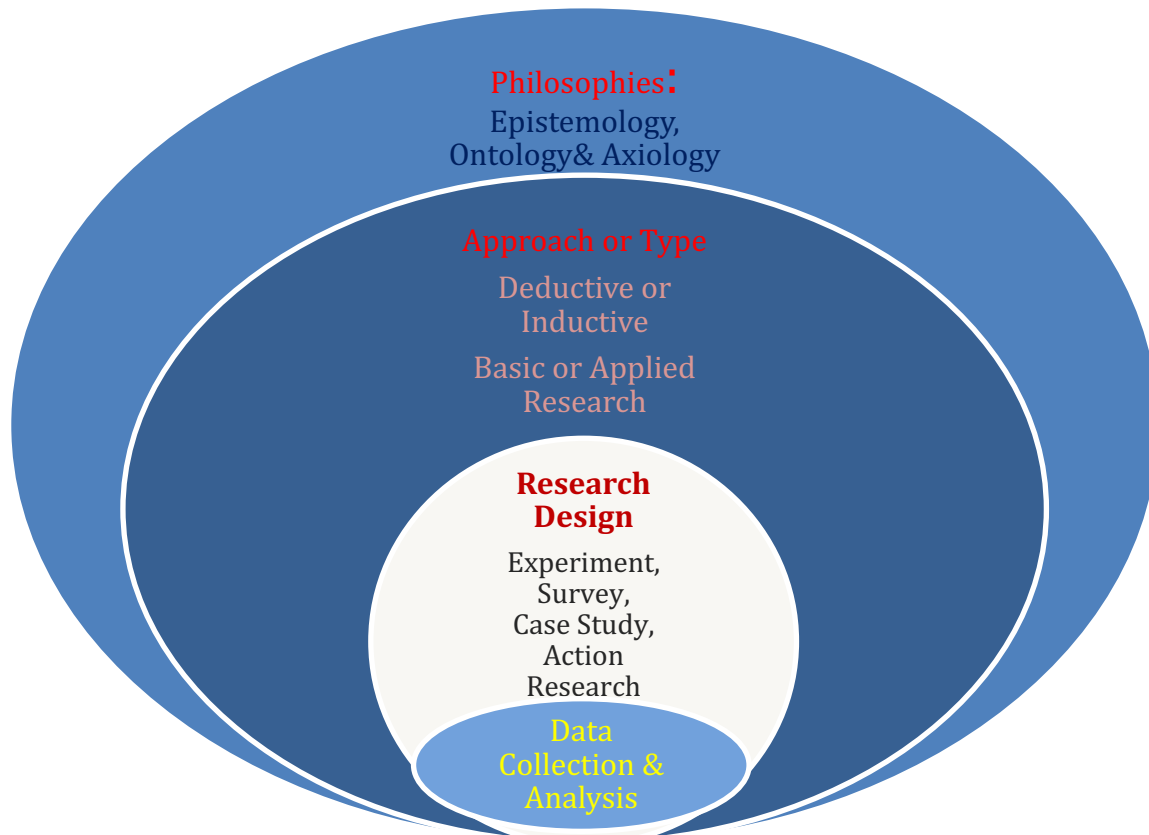
Research is a “careful critical enquiry or examination in seeking facts or principles; diligent investigation to ascertain something” (Ghosh, 1992:185). Such diligent investigations in education may aim at exploring issues in detail, shaping policy and improving practice (Newby 2014). The first aim is an exploration of a particular problem in detail, the second is an examination of how effective educational policy may have been implemented while the third focuses on identifying best practices in education. This research pertains to the first aim and focused on exploring how Zambian University HoDs learned to consolidate their leadership roles and was guided by the following three questions that were ascertained after completion of the probationary review.

1. How do university HoDs develop their leadership Capital?
2. How do academicians make adjustments to fit into HoD roles and learn to perform the roles effectively?
3. What practical evidence exemplifies the consolidation of the HoD roles?

Question one investigated how HoDs formed their character, while the second focused on their accession into roles and the third one addressed exemplified practices of effective leadership.

Premised on the conceptual framework depicted in figure 2.4 in the preceding chapter, the research process and methods were conceived and deployed. The process used to construct knowledge is visually represented as an onion, with layers, adopted from Saunders *et al* (2007) as shown in figure 3.1 below. The first and largest layer deals with the research philosophy held. The second layer covers the approaches that are adopted about theory development. The third layer responds to the research design employed, with this being followed by access and ethical consideration, while the data collection method comprises the inner layer.

Figure 3-1: The Research Onion, as adopted from Saunders et al (2007).



3.2 Philosophical Conceptualisation

Learning how to consolidate leadership is a social phenomenon that can either be viewed as "... something that is external to the social actors and over which they have no control ... [or] ...as an entity that is in a constant of reformation and reassessment, as members of the organisation continually modify it through their practices and through small innovations in how things are done" (Bryman, 2012:6). This may mean that the social phenomena can be perceived to exist independent of the social actors or is constructed by the social actors. These two positions are frequently referred to as objectivism and constructionism where objectivism, "... implies that social phenomena ... have an existence that is independent or separate from actors" (Bryman, 2012:33). It is the

position that social entities exist in reality independent and external to the social actors (Saunders *et al*, 2007). This is in line with Hollis' (2002) view that social phenomena are independent of human existence and therefore can be studied independently and objectively through explanation and establishments of laws.

Constructivism on the other hand is the position that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being constructed and reconstructed by social actors (Bryman, 2012), which is similar to subjectivism. Subjectivism aligns with Hollis' (2002:6) assertion that "social action needs to be understood from within other than being explained after the manner of natural science" where natural science refers to the study of natural phenomena (Ghosh, 2003). Epistemologically, therefore, "the social world and its categories are not external to us, but are built up and constituted in and through interaction" (Bryman, 2012:34) highlighting the observer-dependent view that stress the importance of the experience of an individual in creating the social world (Burrell and Morgan, 1979).

People as social actors, therefore, are not passive recipients of social activities but are actively and consciously involved in the interplay of social activities. Hume (2008:17) brings in 'experience' as a factor in the construction of meaning arguing, "When we become sure of what will result from a particular event, it is only because we have experienced many events of that kind, all with the same effects". Therefore, this would imply that we cannot directly know the causes of the effects we are observing but only when such coincides with similar occurrences we have experienced before and whose memories are still active in our minds. This aligns with Burrell and Morgan's (1979) concern about how individuals socially create, modify and interpret the world in which they find themselves as they navigate social norms. The research focused on understanding how HoDs reconstructed their leadership journey.

The above discourse underscores the complexity of the social phenomena highlighting that while actors consciously construct the social world they are also constrained by social norms and structures (Hollis, 2002). The social norms and structures are at play and set

the boundaries limiting social actors' freedom to express their consciousness. This may mean that human beings act with conscious intent and purposefully but within the confines of prescribed societal norms that may be inscribed by dominant social groups (Taysum, 2012). This makes the interpretation of social phenomena complex due to the lack of fixed laws that explain the connections among occurrence and phenomena and compounded by the inability to hold some variables constant like in the manner of natural science (Hume, 2008). As such, the research opted for an interpretivist approach to allow for a deeper understanding of the variables.

3.3 Research Approach

The research adopted an interpretive approach generally preferred by humanist philosophers in deciphering hidden meanings (Crotty 1998) of social phenomena and concerned with human behaviours whose understanding requires interpretation. Furthermore, the research was exploratory and descriptive, and "an exploratory study is a valuable means of finding out what is happening; to seek new insights; to ask questions and to assess phenomena in a new light. It is particularly useful if you wish to clarify your understanding of a problem..." (Robson, 2002:59 quoted by Saunders et al, 2007:133). The study sought critical and reflective understanding from respondents about their leadership journeys. They were asked to describe and reflect on their leadership experiences and actions, giving concrete examples. The responses were subjected to vigorous reviews by my supervisors, well vest with research processes and techniques (Bryman, 2012).

3.4 Research Design

Since qualitative research is concerned with understanding how people choose to live their lives, the meanings they give to their experiences and their feelings about their conditions, research designs such as ethnography (observing individuals as participants or non-participants), action research (studies carried out in the course of an activity or occupation) or a case study which is an investigation of a single instance aimed at identifying how an issue arose, resolved and isolating critical incidences that act as

decision points for change (Newby, 2014) are usually adopted. Understanding how HoDs developed their leadership capital, what critical incidences triggered changes in their leadership journeys, and given the real complex nature of variables investigated, prompted the choice of a case study design.

Leadership development is a contemporary and complex phenomenon whose investigation required interviewing HoDs in their locality to provide evidence on several complex factors - character formation, preparations for and consolidation of the HoD roles, that are suitable for exploratory research (Coleman and Anderson, 2000). Therefore, a case study design "...that involves ... investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real-life" (Saunders et al, 2007:139) became the most suitable design. Bryman (2012) adds that case study strategy involves detailed and intensive analysis of a single case such as a community, school, family, event, a person (focusing on life history or biography) or an organisation and the research focused on individual persons, the individual HoDs as the 'case'.

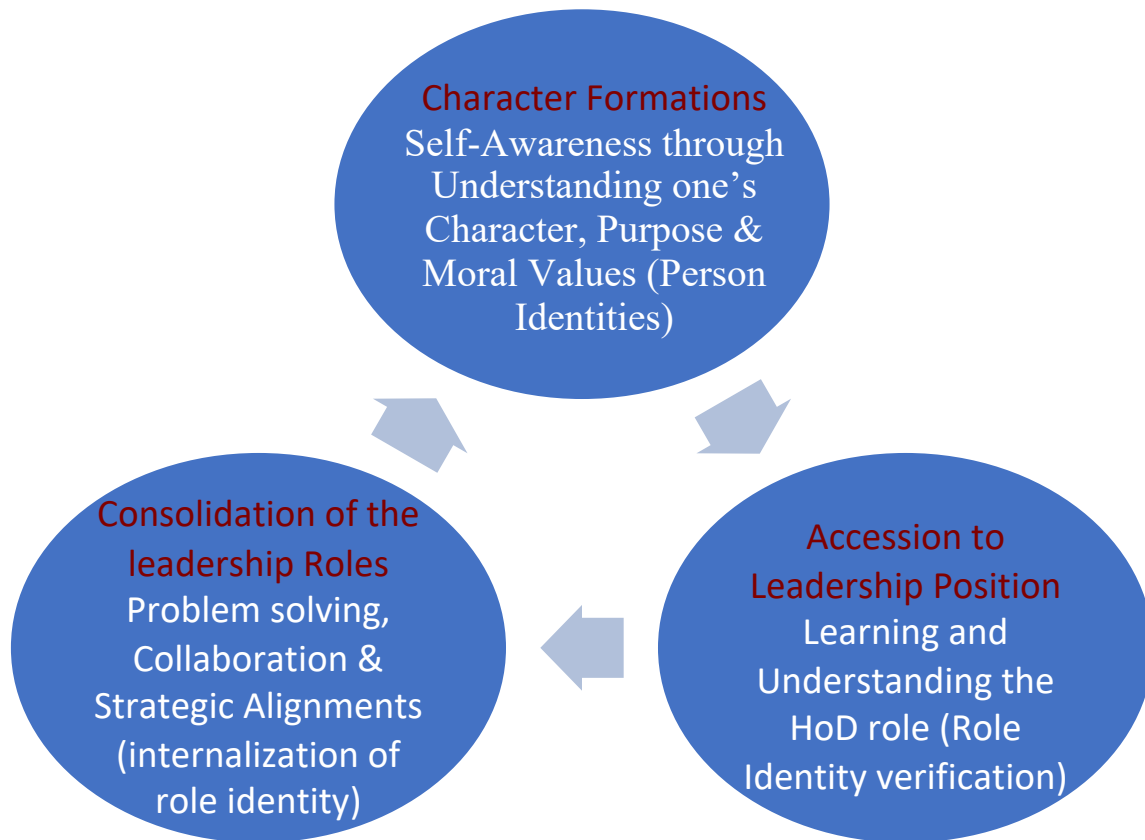
The term 'case' emphasises the complexity and particular nature of the phenomenon, and in this study, the focus was 'the leadership development trajectory of university HoDs', which is not only complex but also a contemporary phenomenon. The case study was, therefore, the most suitable for three reasons; it is an empirical study of phenomena within real-life context; applicable when dealing with a distinct phenomenon with many variables the research has no control over; and utilizes more than one source of evidence (Saunders et al, 2007). Investigating HoDs, from different disciplines and departments, provided different sources of evidence. Furthermore, a case study was suitable for addressing questions of how HoDs understood their roles and what values underpinned their behaviours and actions. The research was also concerned with which values and why such values were important in fostering effectiveness in HoDs' roles. Thus, how and why concerns are best addressed through case study methods (Bryman, 2012).

Alternatively, a survey would have been used for this study because of its exploratory, descriptive nature. However, according to Newby (2014:53), "a case study is a detailed

analysis of an individual circumstance or event..." As such, a case study allowed a lot of detail to be collected that would not normally have been easily obtained by other research designs. Bryman (2012) adds that data collected through case studies is normally a lot richer and of greater depth than can be found through other designs. Through such purposes as exploration, explanation, and description, case studies become a good source of ideas about human behaviours, a valuable opportunity for innovation, an appropriate method to study rare phenomena and a good method to challenge theoretical assumptions. Therefore, a case study was valuable for it made it possible to compare results from other situations that were similar or had similar characteristics (Newby, 2014). It made comparisons between findings and literature a little easier.

Overall, the research was guided by the conceptual framework adapted from Taysum's (2003) Holistic Leadership Model depicted in figure 3.2 below. As models are a representation of reality, they can assume the characteristics of theory and enhance our understanding of reality (Newby, 2014). In line with Taysum's (2003:12) views, "critical research using the Holistic Leadership Model framework will enable an interrogation of empirical data which will reveal if there are similarities or differences between aspects of formation, accession, consolidation..." Therefore, the model helped abstract and visually understand the interplay among the elements of character formation, application of the learned values into the roles and adjustments required by HoDs to comprehend their leadership roles. The model provided a framework through which important questions were developed and investigated.

Figure 3-2:Adapted Research Design Road Map



The above conceptual framework was informed by the high value attached to the moral virtues that create the moral compass for effective leadership. Effective leaders can critically self-introspect and are aware of their deeply held values that guide their behaviours and decisions and they understand their local context to avoid a possible mismatch between their values and the dictates of their organisational context. Given also that such reflections would inform praxis in terms of how intentions are formed, choices made or arrived at and the actions eventually taken, it was important to understand how HoDs developed their leadership capital by asking them to reflect on their life experiences that formed their character in terms of values, behaviours, influential figures that shaped these and critical incidents in their leadership journeys. With the understanding that academics ascend into the leadership roles for which most of them have not been prepared, how they understood the HoD roles and learned to lead by enacting their values was inevitable.

Furthermore, knowing that HoDs play a multiplicity of roles and that they are expected to ably align and focus departmental activities with the overall university vision and strategy, it was important to investigate how they prioritised and aligned departmental activities with the overall University strategic intent.

3.5 Population and Sample

Targeted respondents were HoDs (about 20), two from each of the Ten (10) different schools in the university of study out of a total of about Forty (40) as it was estimated on average each school had about Four (4) departments. The most suitable sampling approach was purposive that ensured that typical sample elements were chosen from the population as it was also considered to be very useful in attitudes and opinion surveys (Avry *et al*, 2002). Purposive sampling enables researchers to use their judgements to select cases that ensure that typical sample elements are chosen from the population to provide them with the information they need to answer their research questions and such sampling is useful in case study research in which the researcher wishes to select particularly informative cases (Saunders *et al*, 2007). Guided by this sampling method, the research tools were presented to University Deans who helped to identify the HoDs to participate in the research and with whom interview appointments were secured. Dawson (2009:54) also suggests that “if your research requires the use of purposive sampling techniques, it may be difficult to specify at the beginning how many people you intend to contact” hence the estimated sample size of 20 but the exact number was confirmed during the actual period of data collection.

3.6 Access and Ethical Considerations

According to Saunders *et al* (2007), research ethics guide the behaviour of researchers concerning the rights of those being researched and minimise possible negative effects on the research outcome as well as on the researcher. Research ethics guide the moral conduct and judgements of the researcher in the whole investigation process (Coleman and Briggs 2005) since it is their moral responsibility to conduct themselves ethically and, in this research, the following concerns were observed.

3.6.1 Voluntary Participation

Voluntary participation concerns the right of respondents to know the purpose of the research. It entails availing participants of all necessary information about the research so that they can freely choose whether or not they want to take part. It also concerns the right to withdraw from participating in the research at any time (Avry *et al*, 2002) or decline to take part in a particular aspect of the research (Saunders *et al*, 2005) and the right to withdraw is highly recognised by the BERA (2011).

Given that the purpose of the research was academically intriguing and was meant to help HoDs become effective in their roles, respondents found it exciting to participate hence creating no room for forced participation (Sekeran, 2000). However, to reinforce voluntary participation, HoDs' identities were anonymised to ensure privacy and their rights to confidentiality (BERA, 2011). Despite the inherent difficulty to avoid 'accidental disclosure' when dealing with high-profile respondents like HoDs, the research was conducted transparently with all participants. All the participants willingly provided their contact details and signed the consent forms.

Confidentiality was also applied to data storage. The storage of participants' data has potential harm in case such was used for other purposes than initially gathered (Coleman and Briggs, 2005). The research data was stored on a computer protected by passwords.

3.6.2 Informed Consent

Potential respondents had the right to know before the research about any likely risks to them in the course of their participation in the research (Avry *et al*, 2002). The BERA (2011:5) "takes voluntary informed consent to be the condition in which participants understand and agree to their participation without any duress [before] the research [gets] underway". In the research, all participants were briefed and made to understand the research process and the reasons why they had been asked to participate. Informed consent forms, participant information sheets together with the approval to conduct research were given to all participants before the interview and such helped to foster

cordial relationships between the researcher and participants and institutional representatives.

3.6.3 Minimising Personal Biases

Since “in qualitative studies, the human investigator is the primary instrument for the gathering and analysing of data” (Avry *et al*, 2002:424) also that “... researchers’ moral decisions are influenced by the personal-hood of the researcher ...” (Coleman and Briggs, 2005:74), biases are inevitable. Furthermore, humans act or make practical judgments based on their deep-seated dispositions that are part of one’s very being (Pring, 2010), caution should be taken when researchers interact with respondents, as they become human instruments of data collection, otherwise, interpretation of the findings may end up reflecting researcher’s own opinions. To counter such, “qualitative inquirers employ a variety of techniques to demonstrate the trustworthiness of their findings” (Ary *et al*, 2002:424). Mitigating against such likely pitfalls was achieved through getting cross-sectional views of HoDs from the entire university and validating the findings against relevant literature and learning from professional advice from the supervisory team that aligns with Coleman and Briggs’ (2005:74) advice that “carrying out ethical educational research, then, involves researchers in a dialogue that is informed by social moral frameworks ... as well as by their predilections and views”.

3.6.4 Minimising Harm During Interviews

Since interviews were the main source of data collection, care was needed to avoid “the relative greater level of control associated with interview-based techniques...” (Saunders *et al*, 2007:188). Therefore, “researchers must recognise that participants may experience distress or discomfort in the research process and must take all necessary steps to reduce the sense of intrusion and to put them at their ease” (BERA, 2011:7). For this reason, prior engagements through the Deans’ offices were arranged and research tools were availed to all respondents before the interviews to familiarise them with the contents of the interview.

The use of interview methods may also create what Wray-Bliss (2003) calls 'power-distance a condition that creates a psychologically superior position of the interviewer to the interviewee. The interviewer is psychologically placed in a position of power through the formulation of questions, "... including probing ones, which may cause discomfort or even stress" (Saunders *et al*, 2007:181). Coleman and Briggs (2005:81), add "...interviews are intrusive, and their questions can be distressing for participants if they are asked to confront aspects of their work or their lives which they find uncomfortable". Giving the respondents the research schedule and allowing them to ask and interpret the questions mitigated against such.

After obtaining ethical approval on 17th April 2017, seeking access for data collection commenced. A letter from Leicester University introducing the researcher, a letter from the researcher requesting permission to conduct the research, interview schedule, background data form, consent form, and participant information sheet were submitted to the university of study on 3rd April 2018. Permission to conduct the study was granted on 6th April 2018. Data collection lasted from 27th July to 7th August 2018 through face-to-face interactions with respondents in their offices with permission from the respective Deans of various schools. Both the Deans and respondents were availed the authorisation letter from The Registrar of the University together with all the above-stated research tools before commencing the interviews.

Through the coordination of the Deans' offices, interview appointments with 30 HoDs were secured with 25 of them being successful. The data collection period coincided with the semester opening and most of the HoDs were extremely busy but the reception by all the 25 HoDs was conducive, professional, overwhelmingly enthusing and very supportive. From their busy schedules, the HoDs willingly volunteered to attend the interviews that lasted between 40 to 150 minutes.

3.7 Data Collection

A semi-structured interview with structured questions, punctuated with flexibility for probes and prompts that allowed for follow-up on initial responses (Saunders *et al*, 2007),

was adopted. Like in-depth interviews, semi-structured interviews are preferred in qualitative research because of their emphasis on greater generality in the formulation of initial research ideas and on interviewees' perspectives (Bryman, 2012). Semi-structured interviews are like open conversations that provided an opportunity for much greater interest in the interviewees' point of view. As such they tend to be flexible; "responding to the direction in which interviewees take the interview and perhaps adjusting the emphasis in the research as a result of significant issues that emerge in the course of the interview" (Bryman, 2012:470).

In an unstructured interview (a suitable alternative) the interviewers roam freely but require great interview skills that can pose problems to a novice researcher. Semi-structured interviews were also preferred because there was a fair clear focus (provided by the adopted research model) on the variables to investigate (Bryman, 2012). Strydom *et al* (2005) explained that one-on-one interviews enable the researcher to gain a detailed picture of participants' beliefs about perceptions or accounts of a particular topic. With one-on-one interviews, the researcher will have a set of predetermined open-ended questions that will guide the interview rather than dictate the process. The interviews were done in a semi-structured way and were shaped partly by the interviewer and partly by concerns that emerged during the interviews.

Through verbal face-to-face interviews, qualitative data was collected through handwritten text on paper and later typed and stored on a computer in Microsoft word. The respondents had been given the interview schedule to read the questions on their own and were asked to respond verbally. They answered the questions from their perspectives revealing their context. As Dey (1993) asserts, context gives a background against which meanings of social actions can be understood, sets the basis for interpretations and minimises communication errors when social action is not explained against a relevant context. To foster good interpretation of intentions, HoDs were asked to explain in detail the meaning of their responses and such was compared against what literature espoused.

3.8 Data Analysis

In the research, conclusions are based on two broad methods known as deduction and induction. Both methods are widely used to help researchers understand, explain, or predict phenomena under investigation. In this research data were analysed inductively, "... a process of reasoning whereby we arrive at the universal generalisations from particular facts" (Ghosh, 2003:59), exemplified through an analogy that; 'if every ice is cold (specific, based on direct observation) then, all ice is cold (general, can be applied to any ice). Similarly, Newby (2014:107) defines induction as a qualitative approach in which "... evidence is brought together, reviewed, and patterns and processes identified that lead to the specification of theory". It is therefore a 'bottom-up' approach in nature, moving 'from specific to general', in which we observe some happenings, deduce a pattern and draw conclusions. Through induction, actual respondents' individual and specific views were analysed, compared from many fronts and collated into positions and themes.

In deduction, we start from a theory and try to prove it right with the help of available information. E.g., if all men are mortal (General, established premise), Socrates being a man, he is therefore mortal (specific). The deduction is, therefore, "the process of drawing generalisation, through reasoning [based on] certain assumptions which are either self-evident or based on observation" (Ghosh, 2003:57) that confirms the premise. In this research, no premise was being confirmed. Instead, data analysis involved the search for patterns from the responses and views that developed from the explanations on provided positions. Since inductive reasoning is based on learning from experience, identification of patterns, resemblances and regularities in experience are observed to reach conclusions (Newby, 2014), a process of moving from particular incidences to generalisation, data analysis in this research preceded from identifying patterns and relationships from the collected data to understand how HoDs developed their leadership acumen.

The process of data analysis was done manually as computer-aided packages for qualitative data analysis systems such as NVivo were not available at the time in this part of the world. The process involved several levels of coding, each of which related to a specific research question. First-level coding simply identified data that were relevant to the selected research question. Subsequent levels of coding were directed towards identifying and/or considering: patterns, similarities and atypical cases; the bases of commonality, disparity and typicality; potential interpretation of and/or explanation for incongruence. Following an inductive approach, therefore, the following applied: coding techniques for finding and marking the underlying ideas in the data; grouping similar kinds of data in themes; relating different ideas to one another (Bryman, 2012). This three-phased process is supported by Dey (1993) as comprising a comprehensive description of the phenomena under study, classifying similar concepts together and establishing possible connections among the concepts.

In the first phase, responses on each question (See questionnaire in the appendices) from all the 25 respondents were summarised into relevant social contexts, similar views were collated into wider themes that comprised amalgamated positions formed from the different coded respondents' views and this lasted seven (7) months from September 2018 to March 2019. The second was the analysis of the findings that focused on matching the emerging positions and themes against the theoretical and conceptual frameworks. First, different positions within themes were compared to establish possible logical connections and this process was laborious, repeated severally to precisely identify different concepts from the data and mapping back and forth to some critical literature, confirming the cyclic nature of research (Ghosh, 2003), and the process lasted eleven (11) months from April 2019 to February 2020. Comparison among various positions with literature, the process of converting the data into information, was the third and last phase, lasting three (3) months from March to May 2020 and focused on explaining what the findings meant.

3.9 Researcher Position

In research, there are three common positions of a researcher: an insider, an outsider and in-between (Dwyer and Buckle, 2009). Insider researchers are those who share the characteristics, roles and/or experiences of the participants. In contrast, outsider researchers do not share characteristics with the participants. Fortunately for me, I was a complete outsider in the research. To gain access, I had to seek authority from the senior officials; University Registrar and School Deans, therefore, avoided ethical issues associated with insider researchers.

Being an insider researcher may give privileged access to data and advantages that an external researcher may never gain as revealed from Coleman and Brings' (2005) case study in which the insider was able to bargain and easily identify with the respondents socially. However, the authenticity of the information obtained, the research process and the extent to which participants gave voluntary informed consent were questionable. "The perceived organisational status and power of the internal researcher raised issues about the extent to which this influenced participants' decisions on what information to give for organisational and research purposes and how they presented it" (Coleman and Brings, 2005:81). Given the difference in power relations between the insider researcher and respondents, voluntary consent and the audacity of the research data were questionable too. Towards such, Saunders *et al* (2007:182) advises, "where you are undertaking a research project as an internal researcher within your employing organisation ... there may be temptation to apply pressure to others ... to co-operate". Foucault (2003) adds that membership of institutions constrains the actions of individuals, distorting the views they may be allowed to give or feel able to give to people researching the processes of those institutions. Fortunately for me, as an outsider, the decision to participate in the research was entirely left to each HoD to make. After getting permission from each Dean, I was allowed to make appointments with individual HoDs, freely introduce myself and the purpose of my visit and secure the appointments while observing the ethical considerations outlined above.

3.10 Rigour of the Qualitative Research

The quality of research findings is affected by one, checking how reliable the data collection instrument is, and two, ensuring that the data collected is authentic. The former refers to the reliability of the data collection tools while the latter pertains to the validity of the collected data. "Reliability is the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions" (Coleman and Brings, 2002:60). It demonstrates that the operation of a study – such as the data collection procedures can be repeated, with the same results. In the case of an interview schedule, reliability would mean that if the same instrument was used to respondents in different institutions the results obtained would be similar each time the tool is administered.

There are several ways of testing for reliability and pilot test is one of the most common procedures. In the research, the interview schedule was piloted to three faculty members from a higher institution who are adjunct lecturers in my institution of work whose participation did not require ethical approval or permission from administration officials. The need to give the research tools to participants before the actual interview, willingness of the researcher to address inevitable questions are some of the areas identified through the pilot test. Furthermore, the pilot fostered the need to give respondents enough time to answer the questions from the initially envisioned thirty (30) minutes to one hour. Furthermore, the pilot helped in refining the wording of the interview questions and led me to remove some non-essential or non-pertinent questions.

The concept of validity is used to judge whether the research accurately describes the phenomenon which it intends to describe. Validity tells us whether an item measures or describes what it is supposed to measure or describe. It is the extent to which an "indicator is a measure of what the researcher wishes to measure" (Coleman and Briggs 2002:65). There is internal and external validity. Internal validity relates to the extent to which the research findings accurately represent the phenomenon under investigation. This pertains to how correctly the researcher portrays the phenomena/case or the degree to which the findings correctly map the phenomenon in question.

The main potential source of internal invalidity in interviews are potential biases. Sources of bias are the characteristics of the interviewer, respondents and the substantive content of the questions given the nature of qualitative research, which is subjective rather than objective due to the interpretation and in-depth analysis of the data that are produced (Akkerman *et al*, 2008). To mitigate against possible biases, the interview schedule was piloted, reviewed by the supervisory team, respondents had prior knowledge of the questions before the interview and were given ample time to ask for any clarification. There was no need for interpretation of the questions since all the participants were conversant in the English language which is the official medium of communication and instructions in Zambia. Voice recording of the participants would have enhanced internal validity but since the first three participants objected to voice recording, preferring to explain and give any details verbally, scribing the responses remained the only available means of capturing responses. Responses were written down on paper during the interview and any needed clarifications were sought from the respondents. To ensure clarity and correctness of the data, the interview took longer than the planned one-hour duration, lasting in some cases to two hours thirty minutes. The rigour in data analysis and adherence to ethical issues assured internal validity too.

External validity relates to the extent that findings may be generalised to the wider population with which the sample represents or to other similar settings. It is “the degree to which findings can be generalised to other settings similar to the one in which the study occurred” (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998:186). Such is enhanced through triangulations. Five different types of triangulation have been highlighted by Guion *et al* (2011): data triangulation (where data is gained from different resources), investigator triangulation (where several researchers investigate the issue), theory triangulation (where researchers interpret data using different theoretical lenses), methodological triangulation (where different approaches and/or different tools are used in collecting the data) and environmental triangulation (where different research conditions, such as concerning the site, time and season, are addressed. In this research, data and theory triangulation were applied. The data were obtained from respondents from different

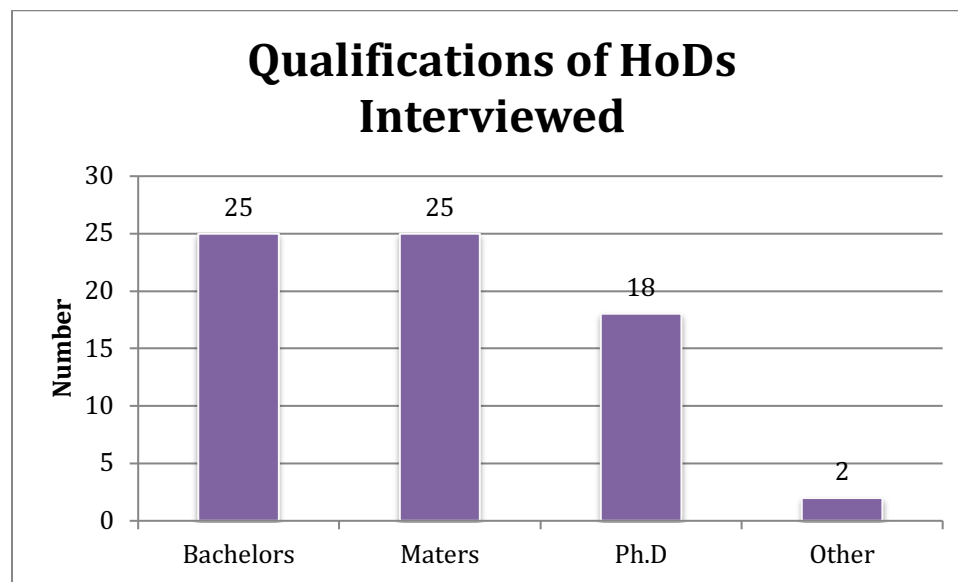
faculties, qualified in various disciplines and had worked in different industries with varying lengths of experience. Furthermore, respondents were a blend of male and female HoDs. Comparison with empirical literature further triangulated the data hence ensuring transformability in the analysis and writing up process, undertaken to ensure that the findings are transferable between the researcher and those being studied (Creswell, 2007). Furthermore, dependability was considered throughout the research process. This was done by sharing the work produced with my supervisor.

The following chapter summarises the findings into themes and commences with participants' background information.

4. Chapter Four: Findings

This chapter presents findings from twenty-five (25) interviewed HoDs. Preceding the findings is the background information of the respondents. All the respondents had attained at least a masters' degree qualification. Among these, 18 were PhD degrees holders, with two having additional postgraduate diplomas as indicated in Figure 5.1 below, with details in the appendix.

Figure 4-1: Qualifications of HODs Interviewed



The Bachelors' Degrees were spread over Eleven (11) disciplines, while Master's degrees spread over Fourteen (14) disciplines. Except for a Bachelors and Master's degree in education, and a Master's degree in Human Resource Management, the rest of the qualifications were in non-management/leadership disciplines. Similarly, PhD degrees spread over Seventeen (17) disciplines mainly in technical areas except for one PhD in Human Resource Management and another in Management Science. The two Postgraduate diplomas were in Actuarial Science and Human Resource Management. Qualifications in leadership were missing.

Table 5.1 below shows HoDs' prior work experience in different sectors and at various levels.

Table 4-1: Places HoDs had Worked

	Government	Non-Government	Both	Total
Managerial Level	4	7	2	13
Non-Managerial level	1	3	2	6
Worked only for the University	6	0	0	6
Total	11	10	4	25

Table 5.1 above indicates that Thirteen (13) respondents had worked at managerial levels and Six (6) at non-managerial levels in the corporate world leaving only Six (6) who had worked for the University only. Among the Nineteen (19) who had prior work experience outside the university, 5 worked for the government while Ten (10) came from NGOs but Four (4) had worked in both sectors. Their years of work experience as university HoDs are summarised in table 5.3 below.

Table 4-2: Length of Work Experience in HoD Position

Below 1yr	Between 1 & 3yrs	Between 3 & 5yrs	Between 5 and 7yrs	Above 7yrs
4	8	6	3	4

Table 5.2 above shows that Twelve (12) respondents had Three (3) years or less of work experience as university HoDs. Only seven (7) had over Seven (7) years of HoD-Work experience.

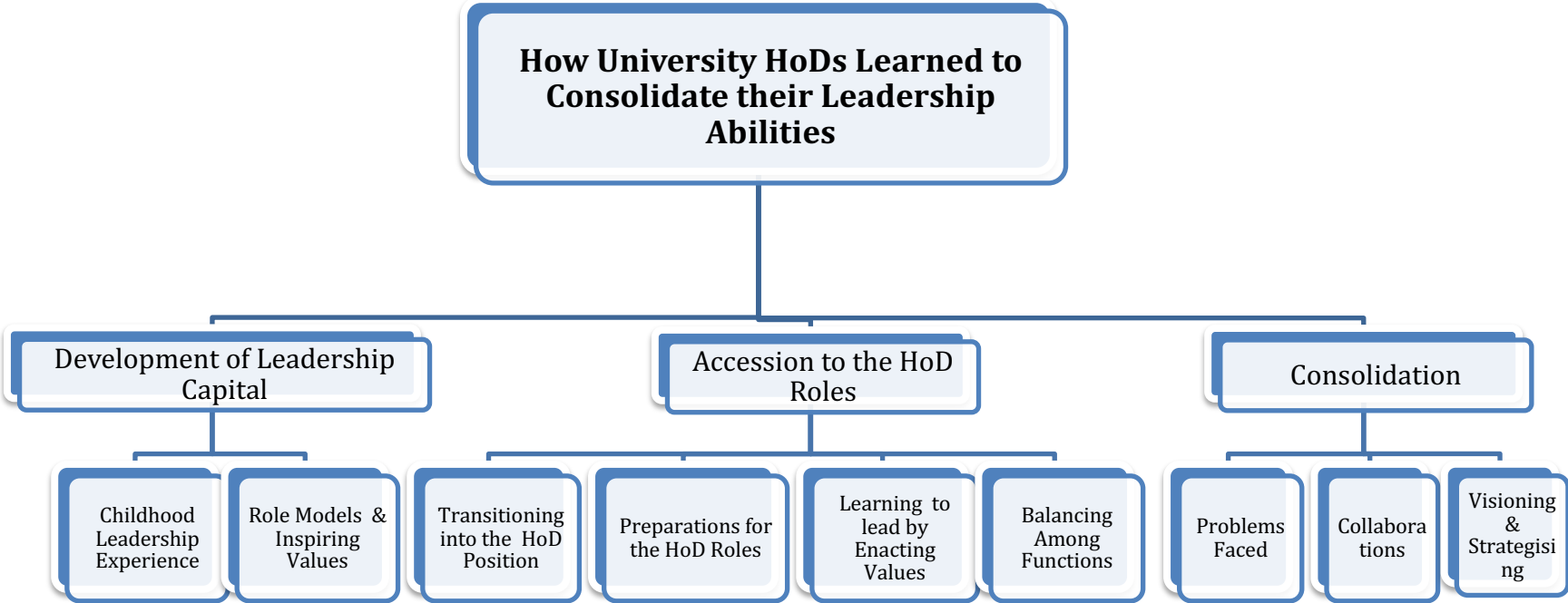
The following sections summarise the findings under Leadership Capital Development, Accession to Roles and Leadership Consolidation being the main themes corresponding to the following three (3) research questions;

1. How do university HoDs develop their leadership Capital?
2. How do academicians adjust to fit into HoD roles and learn to perform their roles effectively?
3. What practical evidence exemplified consolidation of the HoD roles?

As indicated in Chapter Four, the research findings were gathered through face-to-face semi-structured interviews with actively serving HoDs in the university. In compliance with the voluntary participation (BERA, 2011) Pseudo names (see appendix 9) are used in place of HoDs' real identities to maintain participants' privacy and protect their rights to confidentiality.

Figure 5.2 below shows the subthemes derived from the findings.

Figure 4-2: Derived Subthemes on Each Research Theme



4.1 Theme One: Development of Leadership Capital

This section presents insights into how HoD's 'self' was constructed. After analysing the findings (E.G., Appendix 10), two sub-themes emerged; Childhood Leadership Experience and How Inspired by Role Models.

4.1.1 Childhood Leadership Experience

Four categories of early leadership experience emerged from data analysis; family, primary and secondary school, university level, and church and corporate world. Respondents mentioned at least one category in which they had some leadership responsibilities. Only one declined to answer the question.

4.2.4.1 Leadership Responsibilities at Family Level

In line with Coulter and Robbins' (2007) assertion that leaders develop their values at a young age, eight (8) HoDs had a family leadership stint by being a firstborn or oldest girl child in the family. For instance, *Kyaliweme* being the second born in the family assumed the role of providing advice to younger siblings after the demise of the firstborn.

"My elder sister who was the oldest passed on, hence I assumed leadership in the family. Since then, I have been providing advice to my young brothers and sisters."

Kyaliweme

Shadrick, being the firstborn, assumed leadership duties towards his younger siblings.

"I am the Eldest son. Young ones looked up to me for direction."

Shadrick

Despite the age at which *Kyaliweme* and *Shadrick* were providing guidance and direction to their younger siblings not being mentioned, the responses point to

their childhood period. Therefore, from an early age, they were learning how to guide the younger members of their families. They were intuitively learning how to account to a higher authority (their parents) honestly and exerting courage as they protected younger siblings. At an early age, these HoDs were learning family values of love, care and how to be responsible and accountable and these values might have had a bearing in their adult lives as Hughes *et al*, (2009) suggest that values developed early in people's lives are difficult to change in a short time.

In line with Kuppuswamy's (1991) assertion that most African children learn through executing roles aligned with their gender, *Mweshi* learned to be responsible and execute house chores from an early age.

"From the family, I am the first girl after two boys. I learnt to take care of others as a girl. At an early age, I learnt to take care of the house and was in charge of house chores. Traditionally, boys are treated differently and not used for house chores."

Mweshi,

Similarly, *Chipego* started handling family leadership responsibilities in the family.

"I am the second born but Eldest girl in the family. In the African customs, a girl takes responsibilities at home."

Chipego

Mweshi and *Chipego*, the eldest girls, took care of the home chores. Different gender roles culturally prescribed for boys and girls seem to be the case, with girls being assigned house chores while boys are tasked with other errands outside the home. The gender-based home responsibilities of children align with Kuppuswamy's (1991) assertion that social aspects such as home chores like cooking and cleaning etc. are given to girl children while boys attend to outside home errands.

4.2.4.2 Learning to Lead at Primary and Secondary School Level

There was a high response rate, with Twenty (20) out of the Twenty-Five (25) HoDs sighting exposure to leadership responsibilities at school, both primary and secondary. The HoDs were appointed by school administration in various roles such as Class Monitor, School captains/Prefects, Bell Ringer, Librarian, Dormitory (House) Captain, Sports Captain and Head Boy. Representative quotes, starting with *Tembo's*, depicting moral constructs of being responsible, courageous, obedient and accountable are shown below.

"At school I was a captain – appointed as Head Boy of the school, guiding fellow school captains on how to ensure school rules were followed by every student under the guidance of the Headmaster and the Deputy. I would receive instructions from teachers on duty on how to organise some school events such as students' parades and work with respective school captains in their various roles."

Tembo

Tembo was learning how to become responsible and accountable, obeying instructions from teachers and ensuring that other school captains and the larger student population obeyed school rules and norms. Implicitly, the roles also required being trustworthy in the eyes of the administration, taking responsibility for one's duties and being obedient to teachers. *Tembo* was also learning how to uphold institutional values and codes of conduct and standards. He was learning how to behave according to the institutional customs and standards of behaviour. Being responsible, obedient and accountable to higher authorities are equally reflective in how *Mwelumuka* responded.

"At secondary school, I was a Dormitory Prefect responsible for conducting roll call in the evening to account for every member of the dormitory, drawing cleaning up duty rosters and supervising fellow students doing their cleaning"

duties and ensuring each student had completed their assigned task as well. I was also in charge of beds and allocating beddings to new students as well as taking charge of evening prep time and making sure no one was disturbing others during reading time."

Mwelumuka

By conducting roll call every evening *Mwelumuka* was learning how to account for every student under his jurisdiction. He was also learning how to take care of the dormitory properties such as beddings he was entrusted with and give an account to administration. He was therefore learning how to be responsible. Similarly, *Shadrick* was also learning the responsibilities of a librarian.

"At secondary school I was a leader in the library helping the teachers in charge-in, registering students who borrowed books to read and ensure they returned the borrowed books."

Shadrick

Shadrick echoed the aspect of ensuring that every borrowed book was registered and returned.

Learning how to become responsible through stewardship was also the case for *Joshua*.

"Up to secondary school, I was a class representative. In grade Eleven (11), I was made in charge of the laboratory. I was deputising as a laboratory Assistant as we had none. I was a class monitor from primary to secondary school taking care of the class equipment and ensuring no unnecessary noise-making in class in the absence of teachers."

Joshua

Responsibility and accountability are related to Dewey's (1909) virtues of prudence also called artificial virtues by Peters (1981) and are also renowned as higher-order virtues with value in the regulation of social life (Freese, 1926).

In addition to being responsible, *Mulenga's* experience revealed a sense of love for the role and care, which are both altruistic and affiliation virtues.

"I was involved in Football. I was a sports captain - Something I enjoyed at primary school. At secondary I was a class monitor responsible for conducting class roll Calls before the teachers come. I was given the responsibility of taking care of class equipment. I was responsible for collecting reading books, taking them back to the staff room and collecting students' exercise books from the class to take to the staff room for marking."

Mulenga

The sense of care and responsibility is also reflected in *Mbofwana's* postulation of leading others in cricket training.

"I used to play Cricket and I was leading others in training and planning events. I used to lead at every level."

Mbofwana

Training others requires the sense of care and willingness to develop others and such acts align with Peters' (1981) motive type of virtues like compassion. This altruism is also reflected in the responses from *Lusekelo* and *Mukwemba*.

"I was a Sports Captain at secondary school in charge of organising sports activities under the supervision of the Sports Master. I used to encourage others to actively participate in various sporting activities".

Lusekelo

As a Sports Captain, *Lusekelo* was helping others and encouraging them to actively participate in school sports. *Mukwemba* cited having been always willing to help in several portfolios.

"I have had leadership roles since primary school. I have always been willing to help without any formal recognition or remuneration... In any case, at primary ... a teacher would appoint a student to take control of the class in the teacher's absence and I was appointed severally. In secondary school, I did not take leadership roles because I was in a foreign country. But I used to be a team leader – we set – up a junior association of foreign students in Swaziland".

Mukwemba

From *Oliya's* response below, being a class monitor required having the courage to face fellow students and ensure that they obeyed school rules by not making noise in class in the absence of teachers.

"I was a Class Monitor at both primary and secondary school level. I never enjoyed reporting on my colleagues. As a class monitor, I was expected to write down the names of noisemakers and give the list to the class teacher. It put me in an awkward position when they got punished, as they became not 'your' friends anymore. It was difficult for me to make the class keep quiet because I was a quiet person".

Oliya

Oliya lacked the courage to write down the names of noisemakers and submit such to teachers for disciplinary measures. Courage is a renowned core virtue of sound moral character for leaders as identified by Aristotle (Freese 1926) and Pring (2010) who considered courage as part of moral virtues.

4.2.4.3 Leadership Responsibilities at University Level

Another set of Seven (7) HoDs said they had leadership responsibilities while pursuing their university degrees. Two of these (*Tembo* and *Chabota*) were student representatives at universities in foreign countries.

Tembo was a student representative at a university in Sweden where he was representing the interest of foreign students from developing countries, Africa in particular.

"I was a Foreign Student Representative' at the university in Sweden."

Tembo

Another student representative at a university in a foreign country was *Chabota*.

"I was a students' president and Secretary-General at the university in Egypt."

Chabota

Mainly, students studying in foreign countries face Cultural Shock. The excitement of getting into an international university faded and studying in a country where people speak in a foreign language leads to difficulties in communication. This aligns with Baklashova and Kazakov's (2016) findings on the challenges of International Students' Adjustment in foreign universities positing that students face difficulties in communicating with their lecturers because of language barriers and cultural differences as well as expectations between learners and teachers. A student representative, therefore, becomes their voice and acts as a liaison person in many social endeavours.

The other six (6) respondents held various leadership responsibilities at local universities with three of them having been Chairpersons. Chairpersons are responsible for presiding over meetings, providing leadership to members, fostering effective teamwork and sometimes exercising executive powers. To be successful in superintending over matters under their jurisdiction, chairpersons should be effective leaders, a skill set to which these HoDs were exposed as represented below.

"I was a Student Representative and the Chairperson of the Zambia Medical Association for the Northern Region."

Lubeka

"I love writing. At the university, I was a Chairperson for the university electoral commission."

Bupe

"At the university I was in leadership in religious issues – SDA. I was also the Chairperson and editor in chief of the University Press."

Caiaphas

The HoDs were mainly representing the interests of their fellow students in the universities. It seemed like, most of these positions were elective and voluntary in nature. For elective positions, the HoDs' characteristics must have earned them election victories. Student representative positions are mainly voluntary and without payment. Therefore, these respondents volunteered to serve others in such roles, which are benevolent and can be described as virtuous and altruistic acts.

4.2.4.4 Leadership Responsibilities in Church or Corporate World

There were nine (9) responses on leadership responsibilities at church and in the corporate world with only *Mweshi* who coordinated parallel programmes at secondary school and was a Head-Teacher.

"I taught at high school for many years. I was in charge of the parallel school as a coordinator. I was the Head Mistress."

Mweshi

Five (5) other respondents had leadership experience at the university where they had worked. This is represented by *Tembo* who was a project leader both in the university and in the corporate world.

"I was a Project Leader while working as a University Lecturer... I have headed many projects as a University lecturer. You can check my website and see for yourself."

Tembo

Similarly, *Caiaphas* also had leadership experience both in the university and corporate world.

"After my 1st degree, I went into the industry and took up leadership roles from the lowest up to General Manager. After my Master's degree I have been in leadership. I have been HoD for 3 terms."

Caiaphas

Four (4) others, typical among them being *John* and *Tukiya*, had leadership experience only in the university in which the interview was conducted.

"First time... I was a Junior Engineers Technical Student's club Patron. I was the leader of the club and had acting experience as HoD. Only now as HoD 2nd term."

John

"I became HoD at the age of 34 and I had been HoD for 6 years, I took a break, then I joined here"

Tukiya

There were two others whose leadership experience was in church and these were *Mwansa* and *Mwelumuka*.

"In social life, I have had leadership responsibilities such as a cell group leader, a deacon at church, church treasurer and church chair lady."

Mwansa

"I was in the leadership structure of the Catholic Church."

Mwelumuka

These Nine (9) HoDs talked about their leadership experience at the post-university education level. The respondents were already adults and were fully engaged in their various career lines. It is expected, therefore, that since this was a period of Post University, respondents were in the age of consolidating on the values learned earlier at family, primary and secondary school levels.

4.1.2 Role Models and Inspiring Values

Two categories of role models emerged; Mother and Father Figures. Some HoDs indicated having had more than one role model while Two (2) said they had no role models. Mother figures comprised Mothers, Teachers and Religious Leaders and among these Mothers topped the list. Father figures were Fathers, Extended male Family Members and male Societal Leaders and among them, fathers also topped the list.

4.1.2.1 Mothers as Role Models

Thirteen (13) HoDs admired their mothers for being a family anchorage, uniting and being able to provide and fend for the family as evidenced by *Kyaliweme*.

"My mother would provide for others beyond the nuclear family. She was always there for us – always working hard, putting a smile on her face. She always wanted to assist. I learnt from her inclusiveness no matter what a person was. Even up to now, she knows how to treat people and how to get well with different people."

Kyaliweme

Kyaliweme not only admired the virtues of hardworking and providing for the family in her mother but inclusivity and ability to understand human behaviour and use such to lead her family. *Tembo* also admired the mother as the family anchorage who also stood out in the community.

"My mother was the family anchorage. She was a woman of the people – always consulted."

Tembo

Understanding human behaviour, treating people as individuals and having good morals is what *Mononoki* admired in his parents.

"I admired the way parents led our home and provided guidance to us the children. They knew our strengths and weaknesses, and they would take advantage of that and help us accordingly. They would call us separately and rebuke us. Though rarely publicly when it was necessary to set an example to all of us. They appreciated us and rewarded us. They had good morals and were respected in the community. They became a reference in my life. They made sure we learned good behaviours from home before we would learn from others outside our home."

Mononoki

Knowing the weaknesses of others and applying such knowledge to relate well with them are some of the key leadership social skills (Carter 2013, and Groysberg and Slind 2012). Therefore, *Mononoki* was exposed to effective motivational strategies and people management skills from an early age.

Mukwemba did not only see in his mother as a family unifying figure and family provider but also as an encouraging and courageous person.

"... My mother also inspired me. She is a very strong person. She used to encourage me by saying, whatever challenges I face I can pull through. My mother was very strong even amid challenges. She managed to provide for us all her children. She ensured we had an education. She also ensured we were a united family and had an identity. I attribute who I am to my mother. She made me believe that everyone should have an equal opportunity."

Mukwemba

In addition to being a hardworking family provider, *Mwansa* also admired the dedication and commitment of her mother. Her mother was cited as an outstanding community member.

"My mother - was a church leader - the women's group. In the academic area; a senior in the nursing fraternity, a biomedical scientist. I liked the way she taught – the first professor in Nursing. She was dedicated to duty. Hardworking; she believed she could do anything. She believed in girl-child education. I liked her commitment to duty – her level of commitment to meeting students' needs."

Mwansa

While perceiving the mother as a family provider, *Oliya* also admired her commitment to self-development and that for her children.

"She got pregnant with me in the 11th grade and managed to pull through; educated me and many of her siblings. She became the sole provider in the family."

Oliya

Commitment to preparing children for their better future with humility and inclusivity is also reflected in *Mweshi's* description of her mother.

"My mother was my role model. She took good care of the 8 of us – preparing us for schooling. She was humble. I admired her humility. She never segregated between us her children and other dependents in the house. When I got married, I applied my mother's character. I treated all my dependants equally. I did not show partiality. My Mother's leadership style influenced me."

Mweshi

Humility and integrity as professional traits were also cited in *Luseklo's* response about her mother's conduct as a teacher.

"My mother was a teacher. I can't think of anybody else who was better than her... I admired her integrity in dealing with issues. Sometimes teachers would do funny things in class like favouring their children but she did not... She made me admire teaching. I have always been above board in dealing with staff and students."

Lusekelo

In addition to being a family anchorage, *Bupe* admired coaching and mentoring aspects from the mother that revealed caring for others, being responsible and helping young ones in setting the right priorities.

"A lot of what I do, I trace it back and owe it to my mother... She would coach us in maths and science. She taught me to focus on education. I was a stepchild in the family. I was in grade 8 when she told me that education would make me independent. I stopped asking for school fees when I was in 2nd year at UNZA. Mum gave me all her allowances and her fare. I told her she's done enough – she had other kids and responsibilities. I learnt to think of others first from my mother. I also learnt the aspect of focus... My mother would always ask me to bring a budget. She would veto everything. She never allowed luxury. She taught me how to prioritise and work with what we have. Then it looked like a simple thing but has helped a lot."

Bupe

Mothers were admired mainly for altruistic (Hughes *et al*, 2009) acts of being family anchorage, encouraging or motivating, fairness, humbleness, understanding and

affiliation values of caring and inclusivity. Mothers also exhibited being focused, Hardworking, family provider, courage to face and overcome challenges that Hughes *et al*, (2009) classify as Power values and were also liked for exhibiting integrity that Aristotle classified as a higher-order virtue (Freese, 1926).

4.1.2.2 Teachers and Lecturers as Role Models

Four (4) respondents cited their former Teachers and Lecturers as their early childhood Role Models. *Harry* admired how teachers exhibited their professionalism in being systematic, organised and honest.

"I liked Mr Malisen Paul at secondary school, my teacher for civic education. He was smart and systematic in his way of doing things. I liked how he was organising his work. I liked one Mr Muleya also... admired the power he was wielding. I believe in objectivity. Generally, I like the American system. I learnt under white control – they are articulate in doing things. I like honesty."

Harry

In addition to professionalism, *Joshua* admired the nurturing aspect through coaching and mentoring as well as offering to help the less privileged signifying acts of benevolence and philanthropic.

"... I come from a poor family in a rural area. So, I looked up to them [teachers]... They nurtured me. During holidays I would stay with them... In the rural areas, they were the limelight. They had a zeal to mentor others. They were open to help. When without fees, they would help."

Joshua

Similarly, *Shadrick* admired the professionalism and the encouraging acts of teachers.

"My secondary school mathematics teacher inspired me a lot. He made me choose to study engineering. His understanding of maths was inspirational. He encouraged me to go far and I hoped to live up to that. He had a good family."

Shadrick

Caiaphas also echoed similarly.

"At primary school, one teacher had a keen interest in me. At secondary school, we had expatriate teachers who inspired me..."

Caiaphas

The professional encouragement of teachers by taking a keen interest to help and shaping someone willingly was equally acknowledged by Caiaphas.

Teachers were admired more for altruistic values (Caring for students, Meeting students' needs, willing to help and encouraging) and less of power values (Professionalism in teaching, good living and progressiveness in their career) (Hughes *et al*, 2009).

4.1.2.3 Religious Leaders as Role Models

Religious leaders are often the most respected figures in their communities as they play a pivotal role in shaping attitudes, opinions and behaviours of their followers who put trust in them. The majority of community members and other societal leaders listen to religious leaders for moral guidance. Families too are usually influenced to adopt attitudes, behaviours and practices advocated by religious leaders. As such, religious leaders influence in shaping social values in line with their faith-based teachings. Three (3) respondents *Joshua*, *Mwelumuka* and *Tukiya* admired the philanthropic acts of religious leaders.

Joshua admired the commitment and Philanthropic virtues of missionary leaders.

"Missionaries of Africa - The priests and local parish... They were committed to work and willing to help others for no pay."

Joshua

Similarly, *Tukiya* was enthused by the love and care values exhibited by Hindu leaders.

"I learnt from religious leaders-Hindu religion. I admired religious leaders' values such as loving and caring about others – positive thoughts such as yoga meditation."

Tukiya

The above Philanthropic virtues created admiration and craving in *Mwelumuka* to emulate the work of religious leaders.

"The Catholic Priests. I just wanted to follow their footsteps."

Mwelumuka

Philanthropic virtues (Commitment to God's work, loving, willingness to help and caring) were thus admired in religious leaders.

4.1.2.4 Fathers as Role Models

Fathers were cited by Ten (10) respondents as role models and were admired for having provided leadership at the family level, lived exemplary lives, exhibited the good character of being honest, moral uprightness, sense of independence, dedication and commitment to work, patience, keeping promises, being focused and persistent as cited by *Tembo*, who admired self-reliance and strong discipline.

"My father was the eldest in his family. He never allowed begging-Begging was an insult. He always left enough for us to live on. After work, you are supposed to be at home and not going out searching for anything... He taught himself how to write."

Tembo

The self-reliance and sense of independence cited by *Tembo*, is also what *Chabota* admired about his father.

"I like my dad. My father was an independent worker who knew what he wanted. He had an inner resource."

Chabota

The ability to mentor children by encouraging them to embrace education and letting them learn from parental moral virtues such as honesty is what *Mulenga* admired about his father.

"My father was a role model... He taught me that the only way to succeed was education. He said it was an equalizer for both humble and well to do people. He stood out in the community and church. He was a deacon and elder in the church. He lived an exemplary life. Had good character, was upright and honest. Had good values and his behaviours were morally upright. He was quite sober. His decisions were morally sound."

Mulenga

Joshua also echoed admiring moral uprightness, being a responsible family man who is also committed to church and work, being honest and willing to help others.

"My father was a very dedicated church and committed family person. He was true to his word, had the zeal for work and was willing to help people. He never seemed to be weighed down."

Joshua

Modelling through the behaviour of being focused, persistent and being innovative were the virtues that *Lubeka* admired.

"My father was focused and persistent. He was never discouraged by anything. He was also innovative, generated new ideas. These attributes made me progress – because of his values. I became the youngest general in the Army. The values have made me be a mentor to students and colleagues."

Lubeka

In addition to being persistent *Mweemba* admired his father's commitment and sense of duty.

"He was a church leader – served in many positions. He never missed an appointment. I never saw him abscond from work. He never stayed at home when he was expected to be at work. I picked this as a value. Even at church, he never went late nor missed. He valued time."

Mwemba

As for *Caiaphas*, patience and the ability to understand people were not only admirable but were the virtues he learned.

"I learnt patience from my father. He taught me a lot of things. My father taught me patience that is helpful when leading people - Understand people as individuals."

Caiaphas

From the findings, fathers came out second from mothers as role models and were mainly admired for power values (Hughes *et al*, 2009) such as provision of family

leadership, being independent, dedication/Commitment to work, and being focused and persistent. They were admired for modelling good morals such as leading by example, honesty, keeping promises and moral uprightness. These virtues were also admired in extended family members and societal leaders as shown below.

4.1.2.5 Extended Family Members as Role Models

Two respondents, *Tukiya* and *Mwala*, cited members of their extended family as their role models. *Tukiya* reflected on the mentorship into manhood on how he learnt self-management and how to relate with others. From his grandfather, he admired self-confidence, hardworking, love, care for others and willingness to help others.

"Grandfather was my model. He taught me how a man should behave. Inspirational teacher – self-discipline and control and patience and how to approach others. Had self-confidence and problem solving, hardworking and helping others. He was loving and caring about others."

Tukiya

Mwala admired commitment too and respect for time, being firm and impartial, being principled and applying rules fairly without favouritism from his paternal uncle.

"My uncle was a council secretary and used to come to school and give talks. He was particular with time. One day my brother and I were late for school and we found the gate closed when he was giving a talk. That incident taught me that in leadership you don't have to segregate. Leaders should be principled while applying fairness."

Mwala

The above role models were coincidentally male and admired for similar virtues as those for which fathers were admired such as self-discipline, problem-solving, hard work, respect for time and being principled but fair, which are power values and Self-control, Good behaviour, and Patience which are traditional values (Hughes *et al*, 2009).

4.1.2.6 Societal Leaders as Role Models

Just like extended family members, societal leaders were all male and were also admired for virtues similar to those admired in fathers. *John* admired the first Zambian president, Dr Kaunda. He liked his love for humanity, his personal life and how he ruled the country.

"I liked the confidence people had in him – the night without the president... how people rallied behind him. I liked how he pronounced values of humanism and how he lived and how he ruled."

John

Chabota also admired the character of Nelson Mandela who was selfless and sacrificed his comfort to seek freedom for the oppressed.

"Nelson Mandela. He fought for freedom without destroying anything. He offered himself as a sacrifice – this is leadership, to serve others like Christ..."

Chabota

Similarly, *Mukwemba* admired an organised and respectful family, self-management and proving leadership through good character.

"I admired one foreign community person who commanded a lot of respect from Zambians who were living in Swaziland. His life seemed organised. I admired his educational attainment. Had a good family. I admired how his children were organised and respectful and assertive. He used to run a Gym."

He was physically fit. He was in control and managed to bring order in the community, not through command but his character."

Mukwemba

Societal leaders were admired for mainly power values of being principled or living the values, dedication to work, being organised, maintaining a well-behaved family, being of good character and providing philanthropic services to others.

4.2 Theme Two: Accession and Understanding of Roles

This section comprises findings on how respondents learned to perform their leadership roles, presented under four sub-themes: Transitioning into the Role, Preparations for the Role, Learning to Lead by Enacting Values and Balancing Among Functions.

4.2.1 Transition

This sub-theme was further partitioned into two positions; Assessment of Prior Expectations and Description of Initial Experience, whose findings are summarised below.

4.2.1.1 Assessment of Prior Expectations

HoDs described their prior expectations against the reality they faced when they first became HoDs. Two dichotomous categories with those who did not find major discrepancies and another who did, between what they had expected and the reality they faced, emerged.

a. No Major Discrepancies Found

Ten (10) HoDs did not indicate major differences in expectations and these had worked or acted before as HoDs as evidenced by *Mwelumuka*.

"Yes, only different environment. New regulations and systems are different. We have semesters and annual years."

Mwelumuka,

In addition to prior acting as a HoD, *John* believed he was appointed as HoD based on his long service.

"I used to act as HoD before I was appointed, so no difference... I think I was elected based on my long service. They may have seen some qualities."

John

Even though *Mwala* had not yet obtained his PhD, he acted as a HoD when most senior lecturers had left the department.

"Yes, because in 2011 when I was doing my PhD, I was made to act as HoD when many of my seniors had left..."

Mwala

The above sentiments of utilising knowledge from past experiences align with Hume's (2009) assertion of deriving understanding from experience.

Mwansa also echoed prior administrative work, as a Coordinator of a multidisciplinary clinical skills project, which enabled her to acquire the necessary experience.

"Yes, because I was coordinating a multidisciplinary clinical skills work – 16 disciplines. So, it was a move from a level of coordination to a higher level."

Mwansa

Away from work experience, *Lusekelo* was well-acquainted with the roles having learnt through observing how other HoDs worked.

"I used to see what other HoDs used to do so I am doing the same."

Lusekelo

A bit different from the rest, *Mulenga* cited his teacher's training on classroom management and that the actual teaching had helped minimise surprises in the new roles.

"Yes... I felt adequately prepared- qualification and experience-wise. My background in teaching, I taught students, and learnt management of classroom - As a teacher is a leader of students."

Mulenga

Mbofwana was another HoD who did not see any differences but was sceptical with seniors and sounded distrustful of them. Even then he did not cite any differences.

"... Almost in line but seniors could hinder your approach".

Mbofwana

The cited prior experience in leadership positions that helped HoDs to know what was expected of them in their roles aligns with Bush's (2016) assertion that drawing on one's earlier professional experience is an avenue for learning leadership. However, there is a need for a theoretical framework to guide the experience for it to be meaningful (Adair, 2010).

b. Cited Discrepancies

The other fifteen (15) HoDs cited discrepancies between what they had expected and the real experience in the position. The surprises are classified into four categories; Workload, Systems, Key Roles and Leading People.

1) Unexpected Heavy Work Load

Some HoDs were overwhelmed by the unexpected workload (Bush, 2016) like *Harry* who was still pursuing PhD studies.

"I came into office when I was doing my part-time studies. At the end of my current contract, I will not renew- I won't proceed being a HoD. I did not understand why my predecessor did not renew his contract for a second term. Had no time to attend to personal studies."

Harry

As a novice in leadership, *Harry* was more prone to experiencing work pressures due to the increasingly complex workload (Lokman *et al*, 2016).

Mwelumuka was not only surprised by work pressure but also the unexpected cooperation from seniors. *Mwelumuka* was initially scared that seniors would be intimidating but he was surprised when they cooperated very well with him. The other surprise was the workload he had to execute, which he too had not anticipated before becoming a HoD.

"Not really! The seniors I thought would be intimidating were very professional. Professionals don't care as to whom takes the leadership. My excitements were short-lived. Due to the pressure of work, the job became stressful. Most often people have turned down my instructions in a clever way."

Mwelumuka

Furthermore, *Mwelumuka* was also surprised by how people could cleverly refuse to carry out his instruction. He might have lacked effective supervisory skills that would have enabled him to ensure his instructions were carried out.

2) Organisational Systems

The second set of surprises pertained to organisational systems. Under this set, there was *Chabota*, who had not known the organisational structure and how the university system worked. However, *Chabota* was lucky enough to find help even though he did not explain the details about the help he had received.

"I felt inadequately prepared initially but later with help, I found the work was doable. The initial challenge was to understand the institutional structure, hierarchy and how things work in this institution. With help, I got to know the line of command."

Chabota

Chobota felt he had not been adequately prepared for the role as he needed to understand the administrative setup of the university affirming Banks and Hislop's, (1968) assertion that increasingly several professionals are becoming concerned about administrative issues when newly appointed. This is similar to *Mononoki* who had expected to find a fully functional system but the reality was different.

"I ... thought there would be no challenges. But things did not turn out to be as I had thought. I expected to find systems in place but I found none existing. I also expected that everyone will support me but surprises abound!"

Mononoki

Extrapolating the meaning of the expression, '*I expected to find systems in place but I found none existing*' would imply *Mononoki* was unable to understand the systems that were in place. Similarly, *Joshua* also faced difficulties with the work systems and decision-making processes.

"... I did not expect to be elected as HoD as I had considered myself not capable but when it came to pass, I expected to learn the job... I thought I would find well laid out systems. I had to learn to make decisions by myself. I had to learn how to consult. Even after consulting, I realised I was the final person to make a decision. Sometimes, I had to learn to make unilateral decisions."

Joshua

Joshua's difficulties could have arisen from his mental unpreparedness in taking up the HoD role. He realised he needed to learn how to consult but own the decisions he would make.

Lubeka was surprised to find out that the reporting and knocking-off time for HoDs were regulated.

"Culture of the university... a HoD is supposed to take the lead but it is the opposite. Here you are told/expected to report at a regulated time and knock off at a predetermined time by authorities. We are sort of regimented. A HoD is supposed to be self-regulating, setting their benchmarks for as long as they know what they are doing."

Lubeka

3) No Idea about the HoD Roles

The third category of surprises was about Roles. *Oliya* had no idea about what the HoD roles entailed. She felt unprepared for the tasks and this is a clear case of lack of orientation into and proper development for the role as argued by Bush (2016).

"It is different – not inline. Nobody told me good/admirable things about the position. I was expecting to find boring administrative work. I felt inadequately prepared instead. I have no social science background."

Oliya

Similarly, *Kyaliweme* had challenges with drafting memorandums.

"I had thought things would run smoothly. I had been pushing issues to top management yet it was our role. This is because we are a new school. Drafting proposals became a challenge..."

Kyaliweme

Lastly, in this role category was *Caiaphas* who was surprised by two aspects, discovering that the HoD role was not about exerting authority on others but more of work coordination and also discovering that senior lecturers were very cooperative than juniors.

"Not at all! Initially, you think you would be in charge and call the shots. The opposite surprised me. I had also thought the senior lectures would be the most difficult (uncooperative) but the juniors were instead."

Caiaphas

This discovery by *Caiaphas* is very crucial since HoDs are middle leaders whose success requires relationship and network building for effective work coordination (Hill, 2005). Effective relationships help them to act as a bridge between university authority structures and collegial relations in departments (Branson *et al*, 2016). Networking and relationship building are about people and this leads us to the fourth and last category of surprises.

4) Difficulties in Leading People

A leader needs to understand human behaviour (Reece and Brandt, 2009) to provide effective leadership as revealed by *Mweshi* who noticed rather late, changes in personalities and was deserted by colleagues after ascendance to the HoD position.

"Before we would laugh freely with colleagues and I expected the same would continue. As HoD, I started seeing different personalities. I felt I needed to change. I needed to become firm. As a HoD one needs to exercise authority. Consequently, some colleagues have distanced from me."

Mweshi

Mweshi needed to learn how to create an effective supervisor/subordinate relationship as a middle leader whose success fulcrum on effective work relationships (Branson *et al*, 2016) that forms their source of authority as middle leaders (Bush, 2016). This was also the case for *Bupe* who faced challenges in handling disciplinary issues.

"I was not expecting the kind of disciplinary and personnel issues I am facing".

Bupe

Tukiya found it difficult to have requests approved by seniors.

"Getting approval for some request is delayed. Understanding colleagues and subordinates were also difficult. I am about 6 months old here."

Tukiya

Tukiya's case sounds more of being unable to influence upwards, building the network and managing relationships (Groysberg and Slind, 2012) and affirms that building a relationship is one of the biggest challenges for novices (Hill, 2005). A network of supportive work relationships is a pool from which one can solicit professional support in many areas.

Similarly, *Mweemba* had expected to be fully supported by everyone but the *converse was the case*.

"Not quite. I expected to have full support – everyone to buy in your ideas. But I was amazed even those who coerced me to go for the position would offer resistance. The demand of the office is something else. You could have your views but as you push, you discover the school has a different agenda. The higher powers may not be in tune. E.g., we wanted to expand the number of staff by recruiting but management says we don't have resources to recruit – very frustrating."

Mweemba

4.2.1.2 Description of Initial Experience

The initial experience was described variedly as exciting or enjoyable, challenging, demanding and stressful.

a) Exciting or Enjoyable

Eight (8) HoDs described their initial experience as exciting or enjoyable considering it as recognition for their efforts or as promotion as evidenced by *Mononoki* who considered the occasion as an opportunity to make contributions in the department.

"I took it as recognition of responsibility. There was some excitement; I appreciated that you can make some contributions to the department."

Mononoki

Similarly, *Tukiya* took it as a promotion and he enjoyed support from both colleagues and seniors.

"It was a promotion at the age of thirty-four (34) years. It was a success, enjoying the post. I am getting help from seniors and colleagues. Supported throughout the hierarchy."

Tukiya

Equally, *Lusekelo* and *Shadrick* found the initial experience fine due to their prior experience as an Assistant Dean and acting HoD respectively. In addition, *Shadrick* also enjoyed a good handover.

"It was ok. Sometimes demanding. I was Assistant Dean for undergraduate, the role that helped me settle in well as a HoD. It enabled me to understand examination issues - grading lines. This gave me a wider view when I became a HoD. Even now, I understand issues much better."

Lusekelo

"I am a graduate of this department and have acted as HoD before. The previous HoD happily handed over the role to me..."

Shadrick

Having found help from seniors and being enthusiastic as a young man, *Mangimela* found the experience exciting initially but challenging afterwards.

"It was an excitement initially but the challenge was to comprehend the role. I found senior colleagues in grade and years of work experience. I was young but enthusiastic for the job but I had a mentor who was guiding me."

Mangimela

Prior leadership experience within the university such as having been Assistant Dean or prior acting in the HoD position seemed to have played a vital role in making HoD roles exciting. Other reasons advanced were the availability of senior colleagues who were ready to help and also smooth handover from predecessors and this affirms the prominence of on-the-job leadership learning in HEIs (Brodie and Partington, 1992).

b) Challenging

Six (6) HoDs found the initial experience challenging, the case of *Chabota* who was new and had not understood the university's administrative setup and operations.

"It was a big challenge. I did not understand how the university works. I had not served for more than 4 years before I got appointed as a HoD. I had a lot to learn and the work was very demanding initially."

Chabota

Bupe, despite having worked as an Assistant Dean, still found Staff disciplinary issues and handling finances challenging.

"Before I was appointed in a HoD position, I was an Assistant Dean for Research and I used to act as HoD but I was not directly involved with staff discipline issues. Even then I came to realise that it is the most challenging in the university.... It is extremely challenging, especially with finances. All academic staff are in the departments, they need to be facilitated by HoDs and not the Dean or Vice-Chancellor... I face a lot of disciplinary issues... We are one of the biggest and busiest hence we have a lot of demanding personnel issues."

Bupe

Bupe emphasised people management issues, as the most challenging tasks and this was similar to *Caiaphas* who singled out the difficulties in supervising lecturers and handling administrative functions.

"Not always easy! Academics need freedom, anything to the contrary, they would react. The most difficult aspect is when they don't do anything and keep quiet. It took me a bit of time to understand this behaviour. E.g., many of them

agreed to review the curriculum but not even one has started. But they have no problem with lecturing."

Caiaphas

Mwala also found handling meetings, managing examinations and preparing budgets challenging.

"It was a bit challenging – schedules of meetings, managing exams, preparing budgets etc. Most of the things were not in place but I had to attend to them."

Mwala

For *Chipego*, combining administrative tasks with research created divided attention.

"I took a while to juggle my administration responsibilities with research and teaching. I came in when it was a very busy period. I was very heavily involved in research so I found it difficult to combine with administrative work- divided attention."

Chipego

Mukwemba also described drafting memoranda without prior training as a challenge.

"There were a lot of grey areas. We don't undergo administrative training. So, what we do is based on one's imaginations. You have to learn how to draft memos, so we thus rely on secretaries. We have no one to sit us down on what to do. But I now know. In the beginning, there were a lot of uncertainties but over time I have been learning through meetings."

Mukwemba

In summary, what made the initial experience challenging from the above quotes were; lack of knowledge about how the university worked, handling disciplinary issues and budgeting and finance complicated by the inability to handle both administrative functions and academic work simultaneously.

c) Demanding

Five (5) other HoDs described their initial experience as demanding, aligning with Lokman's *et al*, (2016) statement that educational novices are more prone to experiencing work pressures due to the increasingly complex administrative workloads. *John* was an example.

"A lot of work! Responding to memorandums that come on short notice given the number of hours required to produce the required information."

John

Similarly, *Harry's* citation of demanding instructions from seniors on short notice affirms Bush's (2016) assertion that HoDs' roles are highly demanding for novice academic leaders.

"Work is demanding but manageable.' ... You would have no time to consult. Thus, there are communication hitches. We have other responsibilities outside work and as such consolidating the information required to respond creates a lot of pressure."

Harry

In the same vein, *Mwansa's* initial experience was demanding due to deadlines on administrative tasks.

"Very demanding - A lot of deadlines. It requires you to complete many documents/process results. The demand was always stressful but sometimes

fulfilling when students appreciated help rendered. E.g. In 2016, the school ... was split into four schools. There was shadow management in the four schools. I needed to show many others how to do their work – orient them to their responsibilities”.

Mwansa

Mulenga found providing leadership, meeting students’ needs, managing examinations and results, and meeting administrative deadlines demanding and such were compounded by limited knowledge about the roles and time to plan.

“... Quiet demanding, leading and giving directions to others. You need more time and good planning. You must be knowledgeable, be ahead of others. This requires reading widely to understand the roles. E.G., students need results on time. The difficult part is that the scripts are usually very bulky and many with different components that should be marked by different Lecturers. Success requires constant reminders. Keeping to deadlines is a very big challenge.”

Mulenga

The short time required to respond to memoranda, deadlines on administrative tasks and understanding the new roles made HoDs to perceive their initial experience as demanding.

d) Stressful

Six (6) others described their experience as stressful due to various demands including the dislike for administrative tasks and the loss of academic freedom and autonomy (Machovcová *et al*, 2018) as evidenced by *Oliya*.

“It was stressful, I guess. I did not like it at all! The transition from academia where I was free to confinement in an office – it’s mandatory to be in the office. I don’t see what would make such a job enjoyable. I have issues with

administrative work. People who study administration are better off being placed to handle administrative work or secretaries should be administrative assistants. Our secretaries are stenographers! Their role is to receive visitors and then sit at their desks and do nothing!”

Oliya

Oliya was expecting to find competent and liable secretaries to handle administrative work a position that Banks and Hislop, (1968) opposes, arguing that time is long past when professionals could leave all the administrative work to clerks.

Lack of prior preparations and knowledge about what was involved in the job made the initial experience stressful for *Joshua*.

“I was plunged into uncharted territory. I remember an instance where I was seated in the office not knowing what to do. It is a lonely office. Other Lecturers would be gone but you are expected to be in the office even when you don't know what to do. I can say the job was confusing ...”

Joshua

Joshua's concerns affirm the lack of preparation programmes (Bush's, 2016) and the rare opportunities for formalised learning (Branson *et al*, 2016) for leaders in HEI.

For others, like *Mwelumuka* and *Kyaliweme*, the fear to provide leadership to former lecturers made the job stressful.

“I am close to four years now as a HoD. Initially, it was a mixture of excitement and a bit of being scared. My senior colleagues were my Lecturers. So, to provide leadership was intimidating on my part.”

Mwelumuka

"I did not feel adequate. I did not know what changes I would bring. I hoped to do my best. I was very apprehensive when making presentations – used to be anxious."

Kyaliweme

Mwelumuka found the initial experience intimidating while *Kyaliweme* perceived herself inadequate to lead professors typifying lack of courage, which is considered as the basis of moral leadership that enables leaders to act virtuously in the face of adversity (Carson 1998). Similarly, *Mweshi's* self-perception of inadequacy and initial low self-esteem was a source of stress.

"It was very stressful. I am very new to the university... There are Professors in this university. Handling them was a challenging perception. I thought of declining the role. I was not sure of the leadership style to adopt. My memorable experience was to be served with high respect by the secretary...."

Mweshi

As for *Mweemba*, stress resulted from a lack of mental preparedness for administrative work. He sounded like he was compelled to take up the HoD responsibilities or he was the most highly qualified faculty member in the department at the time hence, the only one available for the job.

"I had just returned from my PhD studies and had no intentions for administrative work but research – hit the iron while it was hot. The appointment destabilised me – had not planned for it! Though it was a short-lived uncertainty. Here HoDs are elected, not appointed by the Dean. You are asked to share your vision and I was not given that opportunity. I went as unopposed after my colleague withdrew from the race."

Mweemba,

Generally, the reasons for stress were the dislike for administrative functions and forgone academic freedom resulting from the structured and restrictive nature of administrative roles (Machovcová *et al*, 2018). The situation was compounded by a lack of courage and mental preparedness to lead former lecturers who were senior in the university hierarchy.

4.2.2 Learning to Lead by Enacting Values

The variables investigated on enacting values were; what respondents enjoyed about the roles, how they related with others at work and carrying out instruction against their will. Correspondingly, three positions; perception of the roles, work relationships and going against one's will, emerged through data analysis.

4.2.4.1 Perception of The Roles

Twenty-One (21) HoDs indicated they enjoyed making a **positive contribution** to the institution and their field. Only Three (3) did not enjoy the role, and One (1) skipped answering the question.

a. Positively Valued the Role

HoDs who positively valued their roles felt privileged to provide a service, while others considered it as an avenue to provide leadership and a learning opportunity.

i. Providing a Service

Eight (8) HoDs valued their roles as a means of contributing to the success of the university. These views concur with Ashkenas and Manville's (2019) assertion that as people enter into various positions in organisations, they need to know about themselves and embrace new opportunities. They need to identify areas to make changes to adapt and take up more responsibilities while remaining true to who they are. The HoDs, therefore, appreciated their new role identities - the meanings

they developed to make sense of and enact their new roles (Crow and Møller, 2017).

Tembo's sentiments are reflective of the above views.

"Enjoying the contribution I am making to the institutions; strengthening work ethics as a key factor of productivity."

Tembo

Similarly, *Shadrick* perceived himself in the role as providing a professional service to both staff and students.

"Putting in systems and organising the affairs of staff and students."

Shadrick

Equally, *Mweshi* viewed himself as contributing to the improved reputation of the department.

"You contribute to the reputation of the department."

Mweshi

Tembo was emphatic about ethical values considering them as the fulcrum of good leadership (Ebben *et al*, 2009) while *Shadrick* response inclines towards leading staff and students (Day *et al*, 2011). *Mweshi* was concerned with improving the image of the department through improved services.

Caiaphas was also delighted.

"A lot of pleasure because; I influence how the department operates - especially with rapport. The most interesting aspect is when I supervise those older than me in age and experience."

Caiaphas

Caiaphas was most likely happy to be a HoD and could have been looking forward to becoming one. He sounded as one who enjoyed exerting influence over others and providing leadership. He was not scared to supervise experienced seniors.

While implying providing a service, *Mweemba* sounded more imposing.

"I want to see work done."

Mweemba

Mweemba's views align with Connolly's et al, (2017) argument that management involves ensuring proper functioning of systems in which others participate as opposed to leadership which is an art of influencing others to achieve goals.

ii. An opportunity to Lead

This position had seven (7) respondents who were very emphatic about leading. People are appointed in positions of authority but how they lead depends on how they understand and develop their leadership identity. Knowing their leadership identities fosters their effectiveness and internalising such allows them to act ethically and confidently to convince others of their competencies for the roles (Armstrong and Mitchell, 2017). In the same vein, *Mukwemba* understood the role as an avenue to directly influence decisions in the department.

"I am directly involved in decision making at the departmental level, which isn't the case if you aren't in management."

Mukwemba

Similarly, *Mononoki* understood the role as a means for building an effective team.

"I enjoy providing leadership to the department; being like a supportive tool for others; creating a team of academicians."

Mononoki

Mwala found the role as an opportunity to offer leadership in research to inform teaching. He exhibited his leadership through the introduction of an e-learning platform and providing policy guidelines to the government on development issues in line with the university's quest to serve the general public (University Act, 1999).

"One key role is guiding the department. I have made research very prominent and encouraged members to report on research quarterly. Research-informed teaching gives the difference between university lecturers and secondary school teachers. It also helps to advise the government on development policies. I have introduced e-learning platforms."

Mwala

Mwala's quest also aligns with the need for HoDs' need to participate in policy formulation rather than being forced to implement policies that are externally developed but whose professional input and commitment are essential for successful implementation (Lumby and Foskett, 1999). Making research prominent is a good trait of effective academic leadership that fosters quality teaching and learning (Brodie and Partington, 1992).

iii. A Learning Opportunity

Six (6) other HoDs described the role as a learning opportunity. Similarly, these views pertain to the perception of role identity. As Stets (2009:38) asserts, "The energy, motivation, drive that makes roles work require that individuals identify with, internalise and become the role". This implies that the six were positively internalising the role. The desire to learn how to lead takes leaders out of their silos and gives them a fresh vision of their field and themselves (Adair, 2005).

This desire to learn was reflective of *Chabota's* response.

"It is an exciting challenge -Producing new programmes."

Chabota

Similarly, Lusekelo was learning how to execute administrative functions.

"I have learnt a lot in terms of administration."

Lusekelo

As for Mbofwana, the challenges in the role provided some new learning opportunities.

"The challenges provide energy - Something new to learn every day."

Mbofwana

Joshua acknowledged understanding the challenges the university was facing.

"Appreciating how the institution is managed and the challenges it has. It was difficult to understand that [the university] had no money before I was HoD-It was difficult to understand the funding structure. Also making comparisons with other universities. The knowledge gained – challenges and opportunities."

Joshua

Joshua was learning new identities associated with the HoD role. While comprehending the challenges the university was facing, *Joshua* took it as a learning opportunity to appreciate the magnitude of the leadership huddles the university was struggling to surmount.

As for *Mweshi*, the HoD role as an avenue to gain wider exposure.

"Interaction with people from diverse backgrounds-academic and other fraternities. Before I was a HoD, I was restricted to interacting with workmates and students only. I now get to learn about others that turn out to be beneficial for me. At the non-managerial level, the office of the registrar made no use to me then, but now it does and I get to know the officers better. Even students are now freer to consult. I get to learn about social problems students face. I am enjoying that interaction. I also have online connections. There are so many people from outside who want to research with us. The interactions have enhanced my networking."

Mweshi

Mweshi's views affirm Hume's (2008) assertion that peoples' life experiences shape their belief systems and inform their reasoning and actions and Burke and Stets' (2009) suggestion that identities develop through social learning.

b. Negative Perception

Each person is substantially different from all others in terms of their personalities, needs, demographic factors and past experiences and/or because they are placed in different physical settings, periods or social surroundings (Burke and Stets, 2009). Perception is the unique way in which each person sees, organises and interprets things based on their background of individual differences (Ashkenas and Manville, 2019). Each person reacts not to an objective world, but a world judged in terms of his/her own beliefs, values and expectations (Hume, 2008). Sometimes it may lead to selective perception in which people tend to pay attention to only those things that are consistent with or reinforce their expectations (Burke and Stets, 2009). Selective perceptions may lead to misinterpretation of single events at work or create a barrier in the search for new

experiences and Hughes *et al*, (2009) posit that leaders' values influence their perceptions. Only Three (3) HoDs perceived the role negatively.

Harry's values made him initially see the role as taxing.

"The job was taxing, with a lot of responsibilities. It's a matter of providing a service."

Harry

Similarly, *Oliya* found HoD roles not enjoyable as compared to academic work.

"It is easier to lecture and conduct research. I was just appointed. I am compelled to attend to administrative activities."

Oliya

Oliya's response aligns with Machovcová's *et al*, (2018) assertion that middle managers often hold on to their academic identities and they even tend to disengage from leadership roles.

While *Harry* found the role taxing and *Oliya* felt compelled to execute administrative activities *Mwelumuka* only found the allowances enjoyable.

"I don't enjoy anything except the allowances."

Mwelumuka

These negative perceptions of the role confirm Hill's (2005:2) assertion that "academics are often ambivalent about assuming leadership roles" due to the daunting administrative tasks that disorient them from their normal source of motivation – teaching and researching.

4.2.4.2 Work Relationships

Leaders need to understand their identities to enable them to develop stable social relationships and interact well with others at work (Burke and Stets, 2009). Such self-understanding defines who they are and reflect their motivations, drive and energies that underlie their actions and the decisions they make (Crow and Møller, 2017). Such self-understanding fosters leaders' ability to develop effective relationships since they would understand who they are, what their roles entail and be sure of how well they are executing their roles, know how others see them as individual persons and role occupants or leaders and become aware of areas in which they may need improvements (Burke and Stets, 2013). Having a role identity, therefore, provides a social identity since every role is tied to other members of the role set. The HoDs' role set included subordinates, peers and seniors. In line with Tubin's (2017) encouragement for workers to be clear on how they collaborate with all at work, four HoDs' relational positions emerged and are summarised below.

c. Relating Well with All.

There were Eleven (11) HoDs who said they related well with all and the aiding factors were prior work experience and family upbringing.

i. Learned Through Prior Work Experience

Some HoDs like *Chipego* were internally groomed, and most likely had already established acquaintances and hence sharing some common values.

"Relationships are cordial. I try to be positive with everyone just like I was before I became the HoD. I have some lecturers who taught me, so when I need advice, I don't impose but rather consult. Respect them because they are my seniors. With colleagues, I consult on their availability. I strive for mutual respect. I am a product of this department. Generally, in this department we

are enjoying cordial relationships – we have no cliques. Every academic member is busy with their research hence we have no time 'pocking noses' into others' business. People have no time to waste. All the previous HoDs have had cordial relationships with everyone."

Chipego

Being a product of the department could have yielded higher chances of acquiring and having similar values hence the healthy work relationships. *Chipego's* acquaintance with departmental personnel most likely created a conducive social environment that fostered cordial relationships with everyone.

Mulenga had also learned how to relate well with others through his professional work experience.

"When you realize that leadership is an opportunity to work with others, teamwork becomes of the essence. As such others feel part of the system and have supported me and this makes it easier for me to work with seniors."

Mulenga

Mulenga attributed sound, trustworthy and full of openness in relationship with all to good communication (interpersonal communication), good planning, unit of purpose and teamwork. These attributes could have possibly been acquired through work experience.

Similarly, *John* also said,

"I have good relationships with all, getting on well with colleagues and have no complications with the Dean... I teach roles of Heads of Departments in Education to students in the fourth year."

John attributed the success to his prior acting experience and his tacit professional knowledge from the undergraduate course he taught on the roles of HoDs in

educational institutions. It is surprising to note that the university offers a course on HoD roles but yet there were still many unknowledgeable HoDs about the roles! Deem's (2006) research findings on UK universities that showed reluctance by leaders to engage in leadership development through formal learning may be of substance.

Mwansa was very categorical saying,

"... Very good relationships with all because I have learnt to read and understand university regulations. Many staff come to consult me on the regulations. I have worked under two Deans. Even my seniors consult with me on how to go about student issues. E.g., Peers who were shadowing me were able to consult me freely."

Mwansa

Mwansa seemed to emphasise the importance of mastering the organisational rules and regulations through on-the-Job learning and concurs with Deem's (2006) statement that middle-leaders emphasise networking than acquiring leadership competencies through formalised learning and refers to such learning as professional socialisation.

In addition to on-the-job learning *Bweupe* said,

"We are a small team of Eleven (11), so we work very well together. Always meet with the Dean, there is personal contact" emphasising interpersonal interactions."

Bweupe

Mononoki as well described his work relationship with all as very good attributing the success to prior work experience.

"Very good. Despite conjuring other areas, I ensure that work related issues are kept within the work confines. We adhere to the rules and principles of work. I do a deliberate 360° feedback. I also allow informal feedback from subordinates. The feedback tends to help me in fostering cordial relationships. On certain issues I deem not suitable to discuss publicly, I prefer a one-on-one situation."

Mononoki

Chabota also learned through life experiences.

"I relate well. Only in few circumstances when I experience disagreements, but that is also normal. If you are true to the calling, you get things right. Remove 'self' and be professional. I learnt about this generally. Some leaders are born others are made. Other things I have learnt. Life has been a good teacher."

Chabota

Similarly, Caiaphas also learned through life experiences.

"Relationships with colleagues are good. Most of my seniors were my Lecturers but they are the most obedient. Coupled with my wider industrial experience and patience I learnt from my father; it has worked for me."

Caiaphas

Experience as the best teacher cited by the HoDs affirms Hume's (2008) assertion that identity meanings are shaped through various life experiences.

ii. Learned from Family Upbringing

Other HoDs attributed their ability to relate well with all based on their upbringing as revealed by *Tembo*.

"People who shape us aren't friends but perceived enemies... smile always, make others feel that you are approachable, deliver on your promise, and keep your words. My parents taught us not to be hostile ... An elderly person could give you a gift genuinely and you very well know that your parents will not appreciate such a gift at home. As a child, you are at pains whether to accept such a gift or reject it. If you reject the one who has offered will feel bad, if you accept you may be disciplined at home."

Tembo

Tembo explained that friends would pacify us – will not tell us the truth. He amplified that an enemy is a person who can make you cross the bridges. He added that how one carries oneself with others mattered the most. He added that he learnt to appreciate good values from his upbringing, sharing a paradox as a child. Applying personal values acquired from the family and learning how to apply such to the general public is a challenge from *Tembo's* analogy above. This example exemplifies the challenges of synchronising personal values with the general public expectations.

Harry also emphasised the importance of work relationships.

"Relationships are very good. As for corporate work, I ensure that everyone knows that they are all working and contributing to corporate objectives and it was not personal work... through my upbringing, I have come to appreciate the value of good relationships."

Harry

Harry attributed his good relationships to his upbringing where he grew up with many others and learnt how to accommodate others indicating relational identities are learned from childhood through socialisation.

Mukwemba also echoed similarly.

"I have no challenge working with colleagues. I have a very cordial progressive relationship with all. With seniors, I may not consult all but the Dean. Overall, the relationship is healthy. I have no problem with subordinates. I relate with every person as an individual. This has helped me to understand people, appreciate them and treat them with respect. It is important to harness the positives of people rather than focus on the negatives. It's worth amplifying strengths than weaknesses. This knowledge emanates from my mother – give each person time. Utilize people in areas of their strengths. So, it is my responsibility to identify people in areas of their strengths. Every person has one area in which they are better than somebody else."

Mukwemba

Through his background, *Mukwemba* learned how to understand people, acknowledge their strengths as a means to connect with them and minimise talking about others' weaknesses. He endeavoured to know what people were good at and utilise such knowledge to build meaningful relationships (Burke and Stets, 2009). *Mukwemba's* quote too indicates that social identities are culturally constructed from childhood (Crow and Møller, 2017).

d. Relational Issues with Work Colleagues

Five (5) HoDs cited some issues in their relationships with work colleagues and *Joshua* was a typical example.

"I have had a good working relationship with all except one colleague. I don't like looking down on anyone but rather be in the background and let others lead. My parents taught me to respect others irrespective of rank. My background in the mission school also taught me to treat others humanely. I don't like antagonism hence the reason it was difficult for me to work with one unreasonable colleague."

Joshua

Despite all the family and mission school learned values, *Joshua* could not relate well with one colleague. Therefore, having good values may not be enough as one needs to understand other people's behaviours and be willing to collaborate with them taking into account their nuances and peculiarities (Maister and Mckenna, 2005). This implies that one needs both person and social identities to be effective in their roles.

Similarly, *Tukiya* was a bit sceptical about how she related with her work colleagues.

"Colleagues may have different ideas but we are relating very well. I have had no confrontation with subordinates unless they say things behind my back that I don't know."

Tukiya

Tukiya sounded doubtful about how colleagues perceived her ideas. She may have lacked confidence about her competencies hence the perception that her colleagues might have been having different ideas. As a leader, she was supposed

to understand the behaviours of people she dealt with in the workplace (Littauer and Sweet, 2011). This implies that role identities and social identities overlap. Through interactions, role identity meanings are shared with others who may have a different understanding of it and this means that having a role identity provides a social identity since every role is tied to other members of the role set (Burke and Stets, 2009).

Mwala was also suspicious of his colleagues.

"My seniors have been very supportive. With colleagues, there is some resentment due to jealousy. Juniors are very supportive. One colleague was very hostile. I considered him on some project and now we are working well together. Even in meetings, those who would try to oppose are now on my side. I did not take their actions of opposing personal. I even called one and told him it was not the right way to behave and he apologised. I asked him to avoid gossiping. I have reciprocated by being very good. I sent him for a Students' Supervisory Techniques course even when he had no students to supervise."

Mwala

Mwala cited resentment due to suspected jealousy singling out one colleague whose initial behaviour was described as 'hostile'. He learnt to communicate assertively to settle issues. Effective leaders communicate to inspire (Kouzes and Posner, 2012) and the HoD learned to cooperate with colleagues to foster harmony (Baron and Grimshaw, 2010). Through interactions, people develop their social and relational identities.

Mangimela cited mixed feelings about the relationship with colleagues but later managed to build bridges with many. He added that he was very careful about approvals that had caused many HoDs to lose their jobs.

"I called a colleague for a chat ... but he could not believe it, I offered him tea in my office... Some traps restrain relationships and many have been surcharged – to pay for omissions or commission... Becoming a HoD emanates from the recommendation from the Dean – 3 names are proposed. Criteria – performance of the person and relationship with colleagues and ability to influence... With seniors, things are fine. They are professional and not political. They are well prepared to work with others and know how to avoid politics."

Mangimela

The response pertains to mistrust among work colleagues in the department. It is, however, the responsibility of every individual to create good-natured relationships with others without shifting the blame. But this is an area in which the HoD had difficulties.

Bupe seemed to have had mistrust in colleagues and mistrust can create conflicts that could damage or prevent the creation of effective relationships. But he indicated having had good work relationships with seniors in whom he perceived professional work ethics void of negative politics. Relating well with seniors only goes against the suggestion for leaders to work well with everyone (Tubin, 2017).

"We have excellent work relationships. The challenge is that everyone smiles at you but elsewhere they may consider you otherwise. In leadership, everyone knows the truth other than you. It is good that my predecessors are still serving lecturers so I consult them. Much of the work is done through committees. This helps shape relationships as people participate in the same activities. There are also coordinators for various programmes."

Bupe

Bupe may not have seen supporting colleagues as an important action but as an intrusion (Ramsden, 1998).

e. Following Instructions out of Fear

There were four (4) HoDs who did not mention how they related with subordinates and colleagues but with seniors such as *Shadrick*.

*"There is no room for conflicts with academics. **I just have to ensure that I satisfy the need of the Dean.**"*

Shadrick

Shadrick's response aligns with Burke and Stets' (2009) assertion that people act to control perceptions of who they are in a situation to match the expected feedback. The response closely aligns with the behaviour exhibited by subordinates in organisations with strong power-distant relationships (Cummings and Worley, 2009). Subordinates are therefore closely supervised and are not expected to disagree with the position held by their seniors signifying the existence of permission seeking leadership culture (Adeyemi, 2017).

In the same vein, *Lusekelo* also cited seniority phobia.

*"Reasonably well. Once in a while, I have had some misunderstandings but they were easily resolved. I am a non-confrontational person. **I feared most on how to deal with senior colleagues.**"*

Lusekelo

Lusekelo feared dealing with senior colleagues both in rank and age but the source of this fear was not explained. Whatever the case, fearing seniors is not a good sign of healthy professional relationships. Such fears align with Adeyemi's (2017) assertion that African leadership culture induces fear in subordinates due to its permission seeking nature and high conservativeness.

Mweemba, also confessed he was not comfortable being a boss over his former lecturers, but rather a facilitator. By 'boss' he most likely meant imposing his decisions on former lecturers who he still held in high esteem.

*"It's been good – be professional. There are a few challenges when dealing with colleagues. Serving in a department where you were taught you find your former Lecturers hence you became a facilitator rather than being a boss. So, I have been consulting these seniors. But when you have anything to present to seniors you have no guarantee you will get it – especially on budgets. **The Dean is the kind of person with whom you can have an informal discussion. We work closely with the V.C – many MOUs on languages. I am usually part of many high-level meetings. We also interface with [...other departments]."***

Mweemba

In addition to seniority phobia, *Mweemba* did not trust seniors, especially on budget approval. He did not give reasons for such mistrust but we can construe that he either lacked effective budgetary skills or the ability to canvas and exert upward influence. Most probably, he was not able to build a network of collaborative allies and manage relationships (Groysberg and Slind, 2012). Such behaviour too, confirms the permission seeking and highly conservative nature of the African leadership culture. The existence of an autocratic management style cannot also be ruled out as well (Cummings and Worley, 2009).

Oliya on the other hand sounded very subservient to seniors and particularly to the Dean, highly confirming the permission seeking and highly conservative nature of the kind of leadership in place.

"The Dean consults everyone when appointing a HoD. My colleagues may have suggested my name. I have no problem with the Dean. When he called me to

tell me about the appointment, I first refused. I suggested someone else. He promised he will support me and he is willing to help when approached."

Oliya

Oliya's loyalty was to the Dean who is the appointing authority. She did not mention anything concerning cultivating a good rapport with colleagues and subordinates.

f. Disregard for Subordinates

The other five (5) HoDs' descriptions on how they related with subordinates aligned with autocratic tendencies. For *Mwelumuka*, it was a must for subordinates to cooperate with seniors, failure to which, they would get punished.

"Very corporative. My senior colleagues have been exceptionally corporative. I have two Professors and colleagues. They all know the demands of this office. As for subordinates, they would get punished if they don't cooperate."

Mwelumuka

We can also infer from the quote that seniors knew the demands of the office they had held before as the reason they cooperated with *Mwelumuka* as a way probably of informally mentoring him. Unfortunately, *Mwelumuka* didn't seem to reciprocate by building effective relationships with subordinates. Instead, he would opt for punishing subordinates if they failed to cooperate. Such action can be likened to what Ramsden (1998) calls academic arrogance usually directed towards supportive staff. He could not extend an olive branch of goodwill from seniors to his subordinates over whom he was expected to provide altruistic leadership.

Kyaliweme sounded like she was still learning how to win over her subordinates to have them fully engaged in her work endeavours.

*"We report to the Dean. I relate very well with the Dean. I sometimes feel I don't receive the support I need maybe because of the nature of work or because we are a new school. Most of my fellow HoDs are supportive. Some have been able to remind me of some issues. I also consult Assistant Dean Undergraduate. **For subordinates, it was initially challenging. Many need to be brought on board. Some may not accept every leader. I have tried to engage everyone. Though I may not know how they perceive me I involve them in decision-making.**"*

Kyaliweme

From her statement, '**Many need to be brought on board. Some may not accept every leader**', she sounded like subordinates had not yet accepted her leadership over them. She, however, cited cordial work relationships with the Dean and colleagues even though she craved more support from seniors, an indication that she was still learning the HoD roles.

As for *Mweshi*, former lecturers gave her moral support in her new roles but she treated subordinates as her 'babies'.

*"I have cordial relations with seniors. They have been very supportive. A number of them were my Lecturers. I see them as my parents. Even when I became a HoD, they encouraged me a lot. They offered me great latitude – they have been mentoring me. My relationships with colleagues have been fair. **I treat juniors as my babies. Sometimes they are casual.**"*

Mweshi

Mweshi's relationship with seniors was another case revealing the existence of informal mentorship practices in the department. Despite appreciating moral support from seniors, she did not reciprocate in the same manner to her

subordinates. Such tendencies reveal the HoD's inability to understand the importance of an effective leader-member relationship (Carter, 2013).

Mbofwana was still learning the art of effective delegation.

"The relationship is good, no bad issues. Sometimes when you delegate, subordinates think you are overburdening them. When the task can be done in two days, I give subordinates to do it in 5 days."

Mbofwana

Seemingly, *Mbofwana* needed to understand the factors that foster effective delegation. Similarly, *Lubeka* sounded like a leader who was yet to learn the tenets of delegation.

*'The relationships with my seniors and colleagues are very cordial because of my interpersonal skills. I have gained trust from all. I learnt interpersonal skills from family values. **For my juniors, I share my vision with them**'.*

Lubeka

Despite the claimed adeptness in interpersonal skills, sharing one's vision with subordinates may not have helped *Lubeka* to build healthy work relationships as each subordinate is supposed to internalise and hold the vision for themselves (Munroe, 2014). A truly compelling and widely shared vision is developed collaboratively (Ramsden, 1998). Subordinates want to hear how their dreams will come true and how their hopes will be fulfilled by the vision being advanced and it is only when they fully participate in its development can they buy into such a vision.

4.2.4.3 Executing Instructions Against Their Will

The responses fall into Sometimes, Never, Not yet and Always categories.

c. Sometimes

Two HoDs said they had sometimes executed instructions from their seniors that were at variance with their will and one of them was *Tembo*.

"There are technical issues that are important. It is better to listen to experience before accepting or rejecting anything... Values may come because of culture but what is most important is conviction."

Tembo

Tembo differentiated between personal preferences from practical experience and preferred to execute instructions coming from one with practical experience than relying on his values that could merely have been culturally imbued and not practically tested. Even though *Tembo* gave a dichotomous situation of choosing between practical experience and personal preference, he inclined more towards respecting instructions coming from one with practical experience in any given circumstance. Somehow this response points towards being cautious and prudent when making decisions over serious issues and such acts can be considered as virtuous according to Aristotle, as doing so can result in preserving good things (Freese, 1926) as opposed to rushed decisions based on personal values that may lack wider experience.

Mwala would rather use group consensus than dispelling off instructions unilaterally.

"Sometimes yes. When I get such instructions, I call for departmental meetings for consensus. At one time I was scolded that I should have made the decision alone."

Mwala

Mwala's response seemed like using consensus as a guise of hiding one's personal preferences on decisions that have potential negative repercussions as evidenced

by how he was at one time scolded for his desire to consult. This is a perfect example of masking behaviour (Bullingham and Vasconcelos, 2013).

d. Definite 'No' Answers

There were two (2) HoDs who said they had refused to execute instructions that were at variance with their will. One of them was *Oliya*.

"No. I politely refuse. I have refused before... I felt it was morally wrong. The work was given to someone else."

Oliya

Oliya did not elaborate on the moral issue to which she had objected but this response signifies a strong belief in one's deeply held moral values. The response also indicates being courageous to stand up for one's beliefs but such beliefs should be widely renowned and accepted in society otherwise one risks being cited for insubordination in African leadership culture renowned to be high in power-distance relations (Cummings and Worley, 2009) and permission seeking culture (Adeyemi, 2017). This was similar to how *Kyaliweme* responded.

"Not really! If something were not okay, my superiors would deal with it."

Kyaliweme

Kyaliweme's response was even much stronger, depicting a real strong sense of independence, even though she had never been in such as dilemma. This could only be possible among people, who are mature, know that what they believe in is right and have the courage to stand up for what is right. It is possible to behave independently in organisations where collegiality principles of management are prevalent (Day *et al*, 2011) where members treat each other as colleagues irrespective of the positions they hold and where authority is based on expertise rather than positions.

e. Belief in 'Personal Values' not yet Tested

Five (5) HoDs said they had not yet faced a situation that placed their will against that of their seniors and *Mulenga* was one of them.

"I am emphatic! I always question decisions imposed on me. I haven't had such an opportunity of doing something against my will from seniors. I would refuse to carry out an illegal instruction. But for collective responsibility, such as following Organisational Policies, I can oblige."

Mulenga

Mulenga was on one hand saying he would question decisions imposed on him but on the other hand, he would oblige to collective responsibility that was in line with organisational policies. *Mulenga's* response inclines strongly towards self-evaluation that favourably identifies and conforms to group prototypes (Uhl-Bien et al, 2013:87) and is a clever way of masking. Similarly, *Chipego* also said,

"Not yet! For as long as such is in line with the university vision and mission, I have no problem. Otherwise, I may have to seek guidance. But I am renowned as a straight person. It may be difficult for others to instruct me otherwise."

Chipego

Chipego believed she could not easily be swayed from her personal beliefs unless she was convinced that the instructions, she was asked to execute were authentic and in the interest of the organisation.

f. Subduing Personal Values and Pacifying

Sixteen (16) HoDs had carried out instructions against their will due to various reasons. These responses indicate the eminence of permission seeking leadership culture with the high-power relationship. A typical example was *Mwansa's*

behaviour of accepting an instruction to withhold examination results for non-graduating students but release for those who were graduating.

"Yes! We were requested to withhold some results for students who had not finished paying their fees. Among them were some students who had passed all their courses works and were due for graduation. We were instructed later to withhold results for continuing students but release for those who were graduating. I felt there was no fairness because both categories had not finished paying their fees and should have been treated similarly!"

Mwansa

Despite agreeing to execute the instruction, such instructions were unfair and were at variance with altruistic virtues preferred in education leadership (Hughes *et al*, 2009).

Similarly, the supervisor overruled *Mweemba*.

"Yes, related to exams. I was asked to turn up for examinations scheduled on the weekend. I wrote to my colleagues to turn-up but I did not as it coincided with my religious day of worship. Generally, I oppose that which is against my will."

Mweemba.

Mweemba agreed to administer examinations on the weekend as instructed but he simply asked others to do so while he attended to his religious duties. Such behaviour exemplifies lack of real commitment to the intended purpose (Achua and Lussier, 2010).

Lusekelo narrated a similar incidence.

"Sometimes the Dean would overrule pass mark. I was not happy but could not help but go with it. It was a department decision so we went with it!"

Lusekelo

This is similar to Chabota's narration but started by laughing.

"There is university, national, and departmental-wide cleaning day! There are so many conflicting works to be done. When you are a HoD, the 'self' is removed'. You are required to follow instructions as given."

Chabota

Chabota's response resonates with masking behaviours (Bullingham and Vasconcelos, 2013). Just as an actor, he conformed to the expectation of seniors as failing to do so may have had negative reprisals. *Joshua* also echoed these obligatory matters as he responded in affirmative.

"In a general way yes. As HoDs we are involved in staff contract renewal, voting on policy etc. I would find myself on the side of the minority. In such situations I would go by the collective agreement even though such a decision was against my will. I always strive for consensus."

Joshua

As for *Joshua*, he would not only oblige to seniors' instructions but would rather use consensus to hide his displeasure. This action may not only be considered as lack of courage but also great dishonest and lack of authenticity.

Mwelumuka preferred to surfer quietly and in the process, exhibited lack of courage and truthfulness.

"Yes, I have been picking up litters-cleaning the environment. I have also been attending seminars on behalf of the Dean. I would rather suffer inside than refuse."

Mwelumuka

Under the guise of consensus, *Bupe* also went to present to a committee a department position that was against his will.

"Yes sometimes. I was an acting Dean and at the time we were discussing contract renewals. I was made to represent my committee's decision that was not in my interest. Leadership calls for collective responsibility. You can have contrary views but you have to learn to work with contrary views. If such views are contrary to the regulations, we need to iron them out. There are always trade-offs in leadership."

Bupe

The above ordeal illustrates the paradoxical dilemmas leaders face in real life and hence the reason ALF, (1988) suggests that they must be given all the necessary exposure and carefully planned preparation to enable them meet the challenges they inevitably face. These dilemmas also affirm Branson's *et al*, (2016) assertion that middle leaders are caught between satisfying line management's needs within a hierarchical framework and the professional need for cooperation and collegiality within their departments.

The hard reality is that obeying instructions from seniors is considered as a norm as *Caiaphas* remorsefully shared a moving testimony about the action he took on his colleague who had a stroke.

"Yes, it's normal! There was a member who had a stroke. We were assessing on how to end his contract. He has a family so I felt bad to have his contract

terminated but I had to do it even though it was against my personal wish. We are simply following the authority line of the institution and I have to take lead even in those areas that are not in my line of interest."

Caiaphas

Caiaphas's revelations are yet another example of how middle leaders are placed between hard situations where they are required to make impersonal but hard decisions mostly in favour of management. *Mbofwana* on the other hand advises that leaders should only stick by their personal values when they have firm reasons.

"It happens many times. Three (3) months back I was preparing a lesson plan. Seniors suggested some inclusions that were wrong. Later I was asked to revert back to what I had suggested. When you impose something, you must have strong reasons."

Mbofwana

For sure subordinates should refuse instructions from seniors only when they have firm reasons that are morally sound. *Mukwemba's* case on the contrary, is a caution for leaders to learn to gauge the wider context before disagreeing to execute instructions from seniors.

"Yes, but with clear indication that such were at various with my values/views. E.g., I have received a request to help a distant learner student by uploading his assignment on the system and mark. The student submitted the assignment after the deadline. He could not upload it on the IT platform. It was barred. Most of such students are relatively older and have difficulties with ICT. I sincerely believe everyone should be treated equally. We should not set standards we can't adhere to. I refused to assist and wrote to the Director of

Distance Learning attaching a memorandum on that issue from higher authority and I copied it to my supervisor. I am compelled to assist the student."

Mukwemba

Mukwemba's refusal was apparently due to his inability to understand the value of altruistic acts (Hughes et al, 2009) in leaders. The senior was right to compel him to help the student, as doing so was a virtue admired in educational leaders (Haydon, 2007).

Mononoki also had no room to refuse as he treated instructions from seniors as orders.

"I do as a matter of obeying orders. But I do explain my feelings and views about it. I avoid giving feedback to my seniors in the presence of others. I learnt this in my management studies. I also learnt through short courses that have taught me boundaries of what to do in management arena. My experience has also added impetus."

Mononoki

Mononoki however, preferred to share his disagreement with seniors privately. This action reveals wisdom that might have been acquired through practice about knowing not only what to say but also how and where to say what to seniors, especially in highly permission seeking leadership cultures with high-power distance relationships.

4.2.3 Preparedness for The Roles

Learning to lead effectively is very important (Warren and Burt, 2005) and lack of it kills the spirit of an organisation (Littrell and Ramburuth, 2006). Fortunately, every normal person has potential to learn how to lead (Bass, 2005). However, given the understanding that most HoDs seldom get formal and profound

preparing for their roles (Bush, 2016), the research investigated how HoDs learned to understand the wider expectations of their roles. From the data analysis, two positions emerged, none and reliance on work experience.

4.2.3.1 No Formalised Preparations

Typical sentiments of being unprepared for the role like that of *Oliya* from Twelve (12) respondents comprised this position.

"I was not prepared for the position. I feel I am a Scientist and not an Administrator. I have had no other leadership experience in the department other than this time. Our setup is that we are appointed from being a lecturer to a HoD. I thought maybe I needed Leadership and Management training. I thought I am expected to know how the university runs... The job is basically about coordination. I learn as we go. Duties are laid out in the letter of appointment. The Dean also tells us what is required at every point."

Oliya

The statement, "Our setup is that we are appointed from being lecturer into a HoD position", aligns with Bryman's (2007) assertion of HEIs' failure to equip HoDs with the required leadership competencies and subjecting administrators to learn how to lead on the job or drawing on their earlier professional experience (Bush, 2016).

Similarly, *Harry* was also learning experientially.

"Not been inducted – jumped in the bandwagon and started swimming...there should first be one month to work with incumbent before she/he leaves office to provide for smooth handover and enable the successor to learn the lenses. I would have loved to attend some workshops on management and leadership issues."

Harry

Harry craved for induction by predecessors and had considered lack of preparation as a missing link and craved for formal grounding in management and leadership skills. He added that since the HoD tenure was 2 years, it would have been helpful to synchronize the tenure so that new HoDs are inducted as a group at the same time. He attributed his learning the roles to prior work experience as a resident lecturer prior to becoming a HoD and also through the church.

Mwansa echoed similar sentiments,

"I have had no specific training. It is learning along the way and individualised inquiries - Through observation of how others have been working. I would have loved to have been to seminars to learn on what the HoD job entails. Some form of induction at the point of appointment would have been very helpful... Staff expects me to be a role model and I know this through informal feedback from both staff and students. E.g. one student told me that I was not serious on some issue that were important to them. I also receive feedback from seniors in form of guidance/instructions."

Mwansa

Having had no formal preparations but learning through Self-Inquiry and observations, *Mwansa* wished to have been inducted on appointment or sent to attend seminars on HoD roles. She was learning the roles through informal feedback from both staff and students. A lot is expected of the HoD and it is unfortunate that such are learned accidentally and worse still, through interactions with students.

John also would have loved prior preparation in management and leadership roles.

"I would have loved to have been prepared to head a department in the university through practices such as induction ..."

John

John added that he got information from the supervisor, students and subordinates on what to do and that there was generally open communication that was sufficient to understand the roles.

Shadrick equally had no formal preparation.

"I have been learning through interactions with fellow HoDs. I would have loved to be taught the structure of the institution. I would also have loved to learn the psychology of dealing with people, though not very essential ... learning through performance appraisals that have just been introduced - it is a new phenomenon... I also receive informal feedback from colleagues and juniors."

Shadrick

Shadrick learned through interaction with fellow HoDs but craved to have been taught the university structure. On understanding the wider roles, he had privy to performance appraisals that had just been introduced, and such availed him formalised feedback to understand what the HoD roles entailed.

Joshua was also learning through the ropes without formalised development.

"I have no formal preparation and I have attended no courses related to HoD work. I received no formal induction apart from a very helpful handover and willingness from my predecessor to be consulted. Lack of preparation is what made the job very difficult initially... No one is trained as lecturer, its job on training. Later on, a number of meetings shade some light on budgeting issues but such learning was sporadic. I had expected to be formally prepared. I should have been trained on how to write memos, develop an activity-based budget, write quarterly reports, handle disciplinary matters, manage difficult people and exposed to various governance documentations and policies ... The role is to coordinate the activities of the department. A HoD has got very little

authority. You can only initiate things such as development of new programmes but such have to be approved by higher organs. Learning through the ropes."

Joshua

Despite having had no formal preparation, *Joshua* had helpful handover and the predecessor who was willing to be consulted. He however craved for formal training in writing memorandums, budgeting, governance and handling disciplinary issues. Through meetings, he came to know what the roles entailed, a practice that affirms the existence of professional socialisation (Bush, 2016).

Kyaliweme was another HoD who had no formal preparation but her predecessor was ready to assist maybe as a way of mentoring. However, she had wanted to be formerly attached to a mentor.

"I was appointed maybe due to seniority. But I have not been prepared. The previous HoD would remind and assist me on some activities. This has motivated me. Maybe the... [former]... is coaching me indirectly ... An orientation would have been good; a mentor should have been identified to take me through. If I was attached to someone, I would be grateful. Training is good but continuous interaction with someone who had done the job before is much better ... I receive feedback from colleagues. My seniors just tell me what to do but not how. I receive some formal feedback from colleagues but also informal. Informal feedback has been more frequent."

Kyaliweme

Being appointed based on seniority confirms Brodie and Partington's (1992) statement that HoDs enter into leadership positions based on their scholarly achievements and not based on their leadership abilities. In any case, *Kyaliweme* preferred to have been formerly orientated to the roles and assigned a mentor. Surprisingly, *Kyaliweme* got feedback from colleagues but not from her supervisors

and preferred continuous interactions with those who had done the job before conforming the tendency for academics to de-emphasise formal management training in favour of professional socialisation (Deem, 2006).

Mukwemba attributed his preparation to professional socialisation but he too was not formally prepared for the role.

"I was developed through interactions with colleagues, guidance from the Dean and former HoDs. I would suggest having annual workshops just like the ones Deans and Directors attend. HoDs should be taken through on what is expected of them and how they should relate with secretaries. Many of us are relatively young and have found secretaries who were here when we were students. Hence instructing them becomes difficult. They look at us as their own children. Some of us may thus be typing and filing our own documents. So, we may be losing a lot of documents ... learned ... through various platforms to which I have been sent to attend and learn. I listen to the Vice Chancellor. At one time we were introduced to the University Strategic Plan. This has made me understand how departments feed into the overall goal of the university. My Dean also briefs me on many issues."

Mukweemba

He suggested annual workshops for HoDs to learn about what is expected of them and relate with administrative support staff. He broadened the understanding of his roles through briefings by seniors and various platforms he attended.

4.2.3.2 Through Previous Work Experience

Experience is the best teacher as confirmed by Hume (2008) that life experiences shape our belief systems and inform our reasoning and actions in future endeavours. Literature equally acknowledges that knowledge is created through the transformation of experience (The Open University, 2016). In fact, leadership development is experiential and knowledge that is actually implemented is mostly

acquired through learning by doing (Achua and Lussier, 2010). HoDs too, experienced leading from either outside the university, prior to joining the university or from within, in other administrative roles.

a. From Outside the University

Without any formal preparations, seven (7) respondents utilised their prior work experience from outside the university to handle their HoD roles as cited by *Bupe* below.

"Two pathways helped shape my leadership. I first worked for the government in the Council as Chief Officer for a year - a management position. Secondly, while on my PhD studies in the UK, we had courses that focused on transferable skills such as administration... We were encouraged to focus on our professional development ... Before I was appointed Assistant Dean, I worked as a Project Officer, a position that gave me a lot of insights about the operations of the university ... I was also chairing the International Next Generation Researchers, a project supported by USA and JICA... Generally, this department tries to prepare leadership successors... We start early to prepare people to take over. I already have the responsibility of preparing one to take over from me.... It is a process of mentoring ... Others are just thrown into leadership even when they are still preparing themselves in their academic areas ... It is not good to give junior academicians administrative roles. When one becomes an Administrator straight from obtaining a PhD, their academic progress is jeopardized. As such they would spend a lot of time in administration but remain junior in the academia ... The appraisal has been formalized for Deans already and it will come to us later. But we get some para-formal appraisal feedback when we present a report."

Bupe

Bupe did not only highlight relevant prior leadership experiences but underscored the importance of formal learning in administration functions. During his Ph.D. studies, he chose to acquire administrative skills that became useful in HoD roles hence agreeing with Bass (2005) that leadership is a learnable set of skills as long as the individuals are willing to learn (Ouston, 1995). Even then, *Bupe* underscored the importance of formal preparation in management and leadership and counted himself lucky for having been exposed to management training earlier in his career. Furthermore, he cautions against appointing fresh graduates into leadership positions without preparing them in administrative functions, and highlights the importance of mentorship that affirms the suggestion that managers learn better under the mentorship of experienced seniors (Achua and Lussier, 2010).

Similarly, *Mweshi* attributed his preparation to prior work experience. He too cited mentorship as being critical in learning how to lead even though he still craved to have been formally prepared on how to relate well with colleagues. Through committees, he had however, grasped the wider expectations in his roles.

"Not much maybe the mentoring! It is just my background where I was a Chairperson of a Board. The mentorship was informal. I should have been made aware of how to treat colleagues on becoming a HoD, that I should start behaving formally with colleagues. We mostly meet in committees to share on a number of issues ..."

Mweshi

Despite having attended a course on leadership, *Tukiya* maintained that her preparation was mainly through previous work experience. Grasping her HoD roles was enhanced through interaction with colleagues and feedback from seniors and students.

"Previous experience only. Professionally yes! Last week we attended training on Leadership, Coaching and Mentoring. I have read about leadership and got

inspiration from my grandfather and Religious Leaders ... discussions with colleagues, feedback from seniors and students give me insights."

Tukiya

Chabota too had no formal preparations but relied on previous work experience.

"I have had no training. I remember telling the Dean that I am not the right candidate; there are others who have served longer. I have been learning on the job... But my experience in my previous job has helped. I worked in a research centre and had risen to level of Principle Scientific Officer – which was the second highest position in the institution. But even at the research centre, it was learning on the job ... learning ... based on the signed contract and guidelines and also instructions from seniors... Feedback has been very instrumental. We get professional input from colleagues... The dean would be on my back on certain issues."

Chabota

The on-the-job learning coupled with studying the employment contract and professional socialisation were the three (3) avenues for Chobota in comprehending the wider expectations in the HoD role.

b. Inhouse Experience

Six (6) other HoDs cited their experience from within the University as their mode of preparation for the HoD roles as indicated by *Mulenga*.

"We have succession plans in the department. HoDs mentor juniors – I was deputising the HoD before I was appointed... It is assumed that when you are a qualified lecturer you are well grounded in Management. In my opinion this notion is based on our belief ... that people are born leaders. I think leadership is not inborn, it requires formalised training ... We have appraisals through which feedback is given on planned executed work. Through such reports and

feedback, we come to understand what is expected of us. Feedback is given through appraisals, reports and colleagues."

Mulenga

Mulenga dispelled the myth that leaders are born but senior leaders grow young ones through well-designed programmes such as mentorship (Armstrong, 2009). He was the second HoD to cite the existence of formal appraisal systems that helped him learn the wider expectations of the HoD roles.

Caiaphas also said he relied on his leadership experience in the corporate world.

"Prior exposure to the office and my 6 years of work experience in the office. I had the privilege to act in the Dean's office hence I understand the HoD's from above ... I suggest some induction for HoDs and also for Lecturers. Older HoDs, should induct new entrants particularly on how to treat people. On a scale of 0 to 10 the importance of the ability to understand people for a HoD scores 7. For me, I have devised the way I address people uniquely. I have individualised approach and greetings. I have also established relations at a personal level. Leant this through experience in the corporate world ... "

Caiaphas

In any case, *Caiaphas* underscored the importance of induction pointing out the need for grounding in people management skills (Hill, 2005) for HoDs. His acting experience in the office of the Dean enhanced his wider view of the HoD roles. He suggested induction by former HoDs as a better way to mentor novices.

Mwala emphatically stressed the need for people management skills for HoDs. Through feedback in meetings when presenting quarterly reports, he was able to understand the wider expectations in his roles.

"I had acted on a number of occasions as HoD... I have had no formal training to head a department. As for preparations ... there should be an officer to

ground us in People Management. There are times I have counselled people. HoDs need to be aware of what is expected of them. We need guidance on how to be firm because some people need to be pushed... We need management skills to manage both Students and Staff. I had a student in her final year who had lost guardians. I had to counsel her but I was not trained in such areas ... I have understood the key role of a HoD – to guide the departmental direction. I get feedback through meetings, when presenting quarterly reports and I also learn from other members.”

Mwala

The cited ineptness in people management abilities affirms Hill's (2005) assertions that such is a skill set most academics lack as they enter administrative ranks.

Despite *Lusekelo* having had prior experience as Assistant Dean and using self-initiative to read about leadership in Higher Education, she laments the limitation of the unguided on-job-learning and craved for formal training in leadership and formal induction.

"I got a lot of insights from a book ... on leadership in higher education. Combined with having been an Assistant Dean, it helped ... I would have loved training in leadership. We just got thrown into positions and expected to work. I needed induction of some sort!"

Lusekelo

Lusekelo's response validates Adair's (2010) argument that unguided on-the-job experience may not yield meaningful learning if they lack formal guidance. On-the-job learning is enhanced by reflection and some feedback and comparing practices with some worldwide renowned best practices. In fact, effective learning requires supportive reflection through coaching and mentoring (Earley, 2020).

Similarly, *Chipego* craved for formal mentorship despite having had prior acting experience as a HoD and having been an Assistant Dean.

"On various occasions, I acted as HoD, I was also an Assistant Dean for undergraduate and postgraduate successively in the school. We don't have stronger mentorship programmes – its either you sink or you swim. For me, my preparation was adequate. Our department is small compared to others ... that would need some extensive preparations ... Through different acting roles. I also received comprehensive handover written and verbal notes."

Chipego

The acting experience combined with comprehensive handover notes seemed to have worked for *Chipego* in comprehending the role. This positive gesture is indicative of the willingness of seniors to mentor novices.

Similarly, Mweemba was a sectional coordinator but he still wished to have had skills in leadership, people management and budgeting. The need for budgetary skill affirms Deem's (2006) suggestion for HoDs to refine their skills in the formulation of strategy and the management of finance.

'I was Sectional Coordinator for 4yrs... I prefer to have been prepared through a series of Seminars and Workshops in Leadership Skills. I needed particular skills in budgeting – a missing link. Decisions to recruit at departmental level even though it is done at the council level, we need grounding in HR skills ... Having been a HoD over a year, I have come to appreciate what the role entails. I receive feedback from colleagues and seniors... We advertised for direct recruitment for the first time and this action was applauded. I have also received negative feedback that I am selective – focusing on some people and not others.'

Mweemba

Feedback from colleagues and seniors equally enabled *Mweemba* to learn the wider expectations of the role. He considered both positive and negative feedback as essential in learning about the roles.

4.2.4 Balancing Among Core Functions

Despite Branson's *et al* (2016) assertion that balancing the varied and daunting HoD duties with one's own academic work is one of the most critical challenges HoDs appointed directly from the faculty ranks face, HoDs are expected to foster quality-learning outcomes by effectively leading teaching, learning and research, which is the *raison d'être* (Middlewood and Burton 2001) of HEIs. From the findings, some were able while others were not.

4.2.4.1 Enabling Factors

The fifteen (15) who said they balanced were aided by the ability to delegate, a skill they acquired from prior leadership experience affirming Hume's (2008) argument for 'experience' as a factor in the construction of meaning. They drew on their earlier prior professional experience to learn the new roles (Bush, 2016). The findings also affirm Törnsten and Murakani's (2017) belief that leadership identity develops from individual self-concepts based on their beliefs, values, motives, attributes and their past professional experiences. *Mulenga* affirms this assertion.

"I ensure that my work is planned for the whole semester – calendar of events. I also believe in teamwork. I delegate but I love to have everyone involved. Teaching takes much of my time. I also do research to support my lecture notes. I involve my team in administration."

Mulenga

Mulenga cited developing the calendar of events, which pertains to having a work Plan. He also mentioned involving everyone in the administrative work perhaps through delegation. In terms of time consuming, he ranked teaching higher than administration and researching which could have been due to the cited delegation of administrative work. This may also imply that the teaching load was not reduced when he became a HoD.

For *Shadrick* too, teaching remained a priority but was able to balance by delegating some administrative activities but wished he had worked on promoting the department in the university and to the general public. *Shadrick* ranked administrative work higher in terms of time consuming.

"Teaching is a must. I sometimes delegate administrative activities... There is no field that suffers. What I could do better is selling the department to outsiders – interacting with outsiders ... Administrative activities take up a lot of time. Such include activities like ensuring Lecturers comply with schedule, supervising and preparation of exams - ensuring that moderation is done properly, compiling results, attending meetings etc."

Shadrick

Chabota, elaborately explained the purpose and benefits of delegation of administrative duties as means to balance. However, he emphasised that teaching was a priority and the teaching load remained the same.

"My first obligation is to follow my teaching schedule. In between, I attend to administrative issues, then last, I attend to research. Other people come in to act when I am not available. There are other colleagues equally qualified to handle administrative work – delegating. If you do everything you are destroying yourself. I have attended many conferences and I have had exposure elsewhere."

Chabota

Balancing was initially challenging for *Kyaliweme*, but she later learnt to delegate. In fact, *Kyaliweme* used delegation as strategy to develop her juniors.

"It was challenging at first. I delegate. I have one staff development fellow to whom I delegate. But sometimes I feel guilty because my students want me to be in the ward. We already have some collaborative researches. I have now

learned how to plan but my normal working hours have increased. I now carry work home."

Kyaliweme

Despite delegating some of her administrative work, *Kyaliweme* could not manage to execute all her tasks in official working hours but had to carry some work home.

Similarly, *Mwala* was reporting for work early to attend to administrative work before anything else. He also encouraged teamwork, affirming Kouzes and Posner's (2012:32) assertion that success in leadership requires effective relationship revealed through effective teamwork.

"Through delegation - I have a focus person. But we all teach - our core responsibility. We plan as a team. I encourage course coordinators to share the challenges they face so that together we can find solutions. I sometimes come early to attend to administration work. I also put in extra time for my research work after normal working hours. The administration issues are heavy. If not careful, the research component can suffer. Now I cannot do most of the laboratory work."

Mwala

Mwala confessed that the administrative work was heavy and if not carefully handled, could have a negative effect on research work. Being careful here would mean delegating part of the administrative work, working as a team, reporting early to work on the same and creating time after normal working hours to attend to research work. This simply implies individual research work could not be conducted during normal working hours.

Chipego echoed similarly, conducting research outside the normal working hours, during weekends. She cited delegating some meetings as a way of managing to balance.

"For my research, I have to come over the weekend. Sometimes I delegate especially on meetings. I learnt delegation from previous HoDs even from the Dean."

Chipego

Chipego said she learnt delegation from the predecessor and her supervisor. The learning can be considered as part of mentoring perhaps through her keenness in observing how her seniors were handling administrative work.

Mononoki attributed balancing to his planning and delegation abilities.

"What helps is strategic planning. This, I learnt from my father. Lessons in management have also helped me -The value of delegation; building others to do some of the duties I do. I have a Masters and PhD degree in management from Saint Clements University in Britain."

Mononoki

Mononoki indicated having learned strategic planning from his father, a situation that did not sound real unless he was working with his father when he was already an adult, which he did not say hence creating doubts about the authenticity of the claim. He however, articulated very well the value and purpose of delegation that he most likely learned from his cited management studies.

While acknowledging the difficulty in balancing, Lubeka said she managed through delegation but still wished for fewer teaching hours.

"It is difficult but through delegation we manage. Heading the department takes much time. You need to plan, supervise and control juniors. It is quite tasking. Hence need for a HoD to have fewer teaching hours. For now, we are not much research focused – policy of the university."

Lubeka

Coincidentally, their department was at the time not focusing much on research that he claimed was the university policy. The heavy administrative work load prompted his craving for lesser teaching load.

4.2.4.2 Thwarting Factors

Apparently, the ten (10) HoDs who said they were not able to balance were novices, who had not mastered the skills of delegation and effective teamwork as evidenced by *Oliya*.

"It's very difficult. A HoD has a lot of administrative work that can't wait. I have to sometimes cancel lectures. I have no one to delegate to my lectures. Administrative tasks take much time. These involve completing various forms, ensuring all classes have lectures; resources (teaching aids) are available. I have no alternative but to execute the HoD tasks. Those who have been HoDs before are willing to help."

Oliya

Oliya wished she could delegate her lectures instead of administrative functions that were additional to her professional work. She prioritised administrative work which could have been delegated to former HoDs who were available and willing to help. It is really sad to note that administrative responsibilities took precedence over teaching – cancelling lectures!

Mwansa also echoed the same, saying that research was on hold as much time was taken up by administrative work. This response too, reveals lack of delegation knowledge and ability.

"It is a challenge! I do not manage my time. Much time is taken up by teaching and managing student affairs. Research is shoved off. There are other events I coordinate such as awards. Administration takes more time, followed by teaching then research. Activities that fall under administration are students

record maintenance, rectifying students' queries, drafting memos on student issues, recruitment and administration of students and examination processes, guidance of staff on academic issues."

Mwansa

Joshua gave an elaborate narration on how administrative work made him miss some of his lessons.

"It was a challenge initially. I had taught for 5 years prior to becoming a HoD and had never missed class. When I became a HoD, clashes emerged because I would be required to attend to urgent emergent administrative issues. The sad part is that some students stay out of campus, so it is very devastating if a class is cancelled ... With time I learnt to balance but research suffers ... When I became a HoD, we had very few students. I had to work on proposals to increase the numbers. Sometimes, I had to carry work home. I had to deal with students' disciplinary issues such as plagiarism. I have about 16 to 18 courses against 6 Lecturers. We also have 5 postgraduate courses ... I did not take a lesser teaching load. We have cases where students would take up courses we did not advertise hence as HoD I have to teach on such courses."

Joshua

Consequently, despite some experience, research was still suffering. Furthermore, Joshua was not privileged with reduced teaching load enjoyed by fellow HoDs in developed countries (Bush, 2016).

Mweshi equally saw research suffering due to his prioritised teaching and heavy administrative work. This affirms Kelly's (1999) assertion that teaching workload leave little time for development of research and postgraduate training in Zambian Universities.

"Balancing has become impossible. Research is suffering especially. My time is confined to teaching and handling the HoD staff... The HoD activities include,

attending to students, writing memos, staff appraisals. Most importantly memos from above require immediate responses. Committee meetings also consume a lot of time. HoD is a member of every committee in the department."

Mweshi

The heavy teaching load compelled *Mweemba* to wish for fewer teaching lessons.

Department issues take up almost seventy percent (70%) of my time. Even with delegation, you still need to follow through, hence the need to be part of the process. We are currently doing accreditation and curriculum review, even though I have delegated I need to be somehow involved. We want to go eLearning at master's level and the Dean is always following through so I have to be on my toes ... priority rank – department duties, then teaching and last research."

Mweemba

Evidently, *Mweemba* least prioritised research work due to the heavy administrative functions that in turn has potential to affect his ability to control the quality of teaching and research (Machovcová *et al*, 2018) in the department.

Similarly, for *Bupe*, research work suffered due to heavy administrative work.

"It's quite difficult to balance. There are activities that suffer. We have to put in extra effort. I spend much time on administrative responsibilities. My research has actually suffered. It is like an undesirable job. It takes a huge toll. It impacts on the others."

Bupe

It may not only be research that suffered but the entire department since the way an entity is managed impacts on the quality of learning outcomes (Coleman and Anderson, 2000).

Caiaphas also failed to balance due to meetings and delegated tasks from seniors.

"It is difficult to balance. Teaching is much easier because it is structured. However, it is difficult to contact Lecturers once they are out of their classes, only through phones. Research is difficult to conduct due to lack of funds but I advocate for group research. Leading the department takes up more time due to meetings. There are also delegated tasks from supervisors."

Caiaphas

Caiaphas's response goes against the key role of HoDs, to lead in setting the tone of their departments, model teaching and learning standards, foster professionalism and the quality of learning outcomes (Marzano *et al*, 2005). The response aligns with Hill's (2005) views that administrative work disorients the normal source of motivation for academics whose professional identity and satisfaction emanates from their professional expertise and accomplishments (Branson *et al*, 2016).

Strangely, *Mweemba* blamed his failure to balance on others who he described as not understanding people. Apparently, he was not aware that it was his responsibility to understand both his person and role identities.

*"It was a challenge because in here generally there has been what I would term as failure to understand. You are expected to be available 24/7. I have the same teaching load with everyone else. When it comes to promotion, I am expected to have published... Members want you to be in the office all the time... Balancing is not easy; I have to put in extra work. If my colleagues are putting in 4 hours, I have to put in 6 hours. HoD activities take up much of my time. **I rarely do research work alone but I cannot share leadership.**"*

Mweemba

Mweemba is a classic example of an HoD who seriously required leader and leadership development (Earley, 2020). The realisation that he was supposed to be in the office most of the time affirms the assertion that "Even more frustrated will be the new chair who is not aware that leaders are expected to have a public

presence in the office throughout the working day and for most of the working year”(Knight and Trowler, 2001:166). His refusal to share leadership reveals his ignorance about shared leadership and its benefits (Bryman, 2007).

Mukwemba, explained the activities he classified under administrative functions that occupied most of his time.

"HoD function involves meetings, sometimes half a day to whole day meetings. There are routine administrative tasks to attend to. During student registration my administrative work increases. Every student needs to see me in person. Students whose problems are not resolved need my attention. During examinations I have to ensure papers are set and administered. I have to ensure the safety of Examination Papers and answer scripts. This is a period where I have no excuses. During time of planning, I have to contact other departments. Even when I delegate, I have to preside over. Once in a while I have also to attend to tasks delegated to me from above."

Mukwemba

Despite his emphasis that Headship consumed a lot of time, executing clerical work, *Mukwemba* was another perfect candidate for immediate leadership development.

4.3 Theme Three: Consolidation of Leadership Role

In order for HoDs to effectively handle their core functions (Middlewood and Burton 2001), they should understand the strategic intent and direction of the university (Ramsden, 1998) to ably position their departmental activities accordingly. Their leadership practices deduced from the findings, fell into three sub-themes; Problems Faced, Collaborations and Strategic Alignment.

4.3.1 Problems Faced and How Handled

From the explanations, inadequate funding, relationship issues, work overload and delayed communication from central administration emerged as the major problems encountered.

4.3.1.1 *Inadequate funding*

At least seven (7) HoDs cited scarcity of resources caused by inadequate funding, which is a perennial problem faced by many universities in SSA (Odhiambo, 2014). This is partly the reason why Bryman (2007) challenges universities to engage in strategic resource mobilisation. The lack of resources made it difficult for *Harry* to replenish machinery in the department.

"Lack of resources. No vote for this office. The entire system has no money. Even when machinery is broken you have to go pleading for replacement... There is no social life. We work more like horses... listen more to management on what they want you to do."

Harry

Harry's challenges about scarcity of resources, burdensome work and downward communication were not reciprocated with solutions to redress the problems. He simply complained. Effective leaders face challenges with courage and seek out solutions to their problems from many fronts but for novices, decision-making

processes become difficult as prioritising among activities is strained by multifaceted expectations (Garrett, 1997).

To overcome inadequate funding, Tembo had thought of ensuring that students paid their tuition fees in full but higher authorities did not favour the suggestion.

"Funding related. When we try to improve liquidity, government intervenes in the work to get credit. We want students to pay when they register, but government intervenes."

Tembo

Similarly, scarcity of resources affected staffing numbers, mostly lecturers, in *Chabota's* department.

"Lack of resources particularly the inadequacy of staff. I have to cope with the fewer numbers. The university is government funded. There is competition with other universities that have come up. The competition for postgraduate students is very tight. We still have the same admission criteria when circumstances have changed."

Chabota

Chabota had realised the increased stiff competition brought by the plethora of university education but did not suggest how to survive the competition. Inadequate resources are a world phenomenon (World Bank, 2000), perhaps increased postgraduate enrolment could be the solution.

For *Kyaliweme*, lack of funding prevented her from motivating her staff through continuous learning.

"Implementing certain activities is a challenge maybe due to the economic situation. I can't motivate staff through continuous learning. How to source for

funds and other resources is a challenge. I don't have the know-how for resource mobilization. How to engage with potential funders is a challenge."

Kyaliweme

Kyaliweme's inability to mobilise additional resources complicated her situation hence the call by Brodie and Partington (1992) for universities to consider developing capacities to generate and manage their resources effectively.

The inadequacy of funding equally affected the timely availability of examination resources in *Mwala's* department but his ingenuity salvaged the situation. He decided to start the procurement processes early and devised an alternative source of funding to complement on the government budgetary allocation.

"We face problems with resources during exams. This is a practical school. We need materials... some resources are not available in Zambia but need to be procured from outside. Lecturers make requests 3 weeks prior to exams. If the resources are not available, then exams can't be conducted. Early requisition is the solution that has worked. I ask Lecturers to submit their requirements in time... We have started creating our own sources of funds – we have a Hatchery."

Mwala

Bupe stated many problems but inadequate finances were the biggest challenge leading to suspending a course that was advertised.

"Yes, the biggest problem is finances. Departments are the operational units. Learning and teaching takes place in departments. In theory we have budgets, but they are not honoured practically. I spend a lot of time thinking of how we will raise money, which is a difficult task for a HoD ... Second problem is staff attrition. We are understaffed. Yesterday students complained about a suspended course because we have no lecturer to handle it We have no

time to sit down and write a project proposal... Yesterday, I quarrelled with the resident engineer on some delayed work."

Bupe

Despite inadequacies in government funding being among the perennial issues third world countries are facing, suspending a course that was advertised calls for visionary leadership in the 21st century Africa (Folarin (2013) to mobilise resources to meet the various challenges organisations face. With strategic and visionary leadership, maintenance of equipment, attrition of lecturers and staff motivation and relational issues can be redressed in one way or another.

4.3.1.2 Relational Problems

At least Nine (9) HoDs cited relational problems that has featured eminently in this research, affirming Hill's (2005) assertion of such being common among novice leaders. Lack of leadership preparations on how to create effective relationships (Branson *et al*, 2016) seems to be the major cause as typified by *Joshua* who complained about lack of collaboration.

"Lack of prior preparation to the HoD role... Dealing with staff – the HR aspect. People who don't want to collaborate. There are inadequate regulations to guide on dealing with people who refuse to collaborate. Such is a puzzle given that such people are very educated."

Joshua

Joshua wished for guidance on how to deal with people who refused to collaborate but such would not have been a big issue if he was well vested with human resource management skills (Armstrong, 2008) such as disciplinary and grievance management.

Mulenga also faced difficulties in building an effective team due to different political inclination among his staff.

"I experience difficulties in building a team of people from different backgrounds. For example, two people would refuse to work together because they belong to different political parties. People take membership to political parties very strongly. As such I need a lot of time to accomplish a lot of goals. Consequently, you become so overwhelmed. Delegation is the answer."

Mulenga

The inability to build an effective collaborative team did not only affect goal accomplishment but was also partly indicative of *Mulenga's* failure in his key roles – building a team (Cohen, 2010) and utilising affiliation values (Hughes *et al*, 2009) renowned for creating social relationship, networking, and team working.

Mangimela also faced lack of cooperation from colleagues and effective teamwork.

"Too much work, lack of cooperation from colleagues; lack of teamwork such that delegation becomes a challenge. Thus, you are left alone in the department to do all the work when others are out there on their personal errands. People prefer to do their personal errands than work on delegated tasks... a report was required. I assigned someone to compile the report but the work was not done and the person had switched off the phone. I had to give another person to do the work but I had to plead for the work to be done."

Mangimela

Mangimela's case was also indicative of failure in team building (Cohen, 2010) and lacking affiliation values (Hughes *et al*, 2009). Freedom to attend to personal errands explains academics' dislike for administrative work that are more structured and compelling them to work under surveillance by higher authorities (Machovcová *et al*, 2018).

Mweemba struggled with building a team of people from diverse social backgrounds and that indicates failure in team building that is at the core of effective leadership (Philips, 1998).

"Relational issues... I deal with a dynamic team from diverse social backgrounds. Their outlook on life is diverse and to get them in one accord is difficult – an issue of having cliques. There are micro politics at play... People take things personal sometimes. The dynamic nature of the department also entails different preferences."

Mweemba

Mbofwana was challenged by the teaching schedule as a result of lecturers taking leave without his knowledge. This indicated ineffective supervision.

"The major problem is faculty members taking leave without letting me know. Therefore, arranging classes for the students becomes a challenge."

Mbofwana

The fact that faculty took leave without the HoD's permission or knowledge highly indicates lack of collaborative work-relations and networks, and effective leader-member relations (Carter, 2013) in the department. It is highly probable the HoD lacked self and social awareness that enable leaders to know what fosters their effectiveness (Earley, 2020). Leaders are expected to develop self-awareness that enables them to adapt and make necessary changes to fit into their roles and develop or align their work activities in line with the organisational overall intent.

As for *Mononoki*, bad attitude was an issue but he sounded as though he was 'equal' to the challenge. He exhibited self-awareness and resilience that helps leaders to adapt to others and understand why they react to them the way they do (Earley, 2020).

"Not every staff is supportive. Others have bad attitudes. I usually seek a private audience with them initially. If skills are lacking, I seek higher authority's indulgence. I also acknowledge their good performance in the presence of others - Non-monetary way of motivation. Where necessary, we follow the due process of discipline. My belief is to help and improve people than discarding people outrightly."

Mononoki

Mulenga cited resistance to change and the need for patience in leading students.

"The major problems are resistance to change. Individuals have their own work culture. If you don't share your vision, you get a lot of resentment. You also need a lot of patience with our current generation of learners otherwise we may lose them."

Mulenga

Mulenga's preference for visionary leadership (Kotter, 1996) to avert possible resentment is commendable and so was his ability to understand the behaviours of students (Marzano *et al*, 2005), which in essence exemplifies good academic leadership.

4.3.1.3 Work Overload

Nine (9) HoDs complained about work overload emanating from the HoD roles that were additional to their academic duties. Despite their heavy teaching loads, that were not reduced on taking up HoD roles (Bush, 2016), respondents like *Mweshi* were overwhelmed by administrative tasks that are worrisome to many academics (Machovcová *et al*, 2018).

"Being overwhelmed with work. Memos come all the time that require immediate responses, issues of missing results, student records and facilitating requirements from Lecturers. You even attend to activities that are irrelevant."

Mweshi

Similarly, *Bweupe* cited being overladen by meetings and high rate of communication with central administration.

"We have a lot of meetings - too many. There is frequent communication between central administration and school departments. We are compelled to push things to work."

Bweupe

Since communication is central to effective administration and leadership, without it an organisation would not run smoothly (Banks and Hislop, 1968). *Bweupe's* complaint is indicative of inability to understand the HoD role.

Similarly, *Mwelumuka* did not know that administration functions were a core part of HoD roles and that he was expected to act as a link between senior management and the employees. He was reactive in his perception, waiting for management to respond to his request instead of proactively following up and creatively canvassing through collaborative net-works and upward influence or impressive management (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2002).

"Work over-load from supervisors. Almost everything comes to the HoD. With competing demands from colleagues and administrative work, I cannot conduct research. It also takes a long time to receive responses from administration."

Mwelumuka

Failure to meet deadlines might have created pressure for *Oliya*, hence the complaint about work overload.

"The HoD challenges are administrative activities that have deadlines. Responses are needed there and then. But instructions reach me very late - rushed to respond. Two weeks ago, I was asked to collect CVs from Lecturers,

but I have not received them to date. I don't understand why preparing a CV would take too long to complete. This is another challenge of delayed response from colleagues. Managing people is not easy."

Oliya

Oliya's complaint affirms academics' dislike for administrative work, which is more structured and compelling them to work under surveillance by higher authorities (Machovcová *et al*, 2018) and restricts their freedom and autonomy.

Mwansa was stressed as a result of failing to submit examination results on time.

"Some staff members are not meeting deadlines – both seniors and juniors. Especially on exam results that are required to be uploaded on the electronic platform by specific dates."

Mwansa

Lack of effective people management and supervisory skills might have played a role in *Mwansa's* ordeal. Such strict adherence to deadlines creates dislike for administrative work among academics.

Inevitable administration work overload was equally burdensome for *Caiaphas* at the time he was pursuing his Ph.D. studies.

"Mostly timelines. I find myself torn apart compounded by the fact that I am also pursuing my PhD studies. I am sometimes made to apologise in meetings when tasks have not been done. Administrative activities take another huge toll on me."

Caiaphas

Mukwemba also echoed his inability to effectively attend to competing demands.

"Competing demands is the biggest challenge. Just like I had to create time to attend to you (referring to the researcher) – had hoc activities. I only feel overwhelmed by personal issues."

Mukwemba

Apparently, *Mukwemba* did not know that he was supposed to act as a figurehead (McShane, 2009) for the department, a role that required him to receive and attend to visitors on behalf of the department. Being overwhelmed by personal issues was indicative of lacking administrative expertise (Ebben *et al*, 2009) such as ability to plan, organise, measure and control performance, and adeptness in interpersonal relations.

4.3.1.4 Delays in Communication from Central Administration

Two HoDs, *John* and *Tukiya*, cited delays in communication from central administration.

"No major problems – only delays in response to requests sent to seniors..."
(*John*)

"Sometimes delays from central administration..." (*Tukiya*)

The burden of effective communication lies with the originator of the message and not the recipient (Greer and Plunkett, 2007). The HoDs' behaviour of laying back and waiting for central administration to respond lacked proactiveness on their part. Their behaviour implies they had not developed effective social attributes such as effective communication, social awareness, social judgment, persuasion and negotiation, collaboration, team-building, relationship-building, behavioural

complexity, multicultural awareness and sensitivity (Adair, 2005) that are part of the defining features of leadership identity (Armstrong and Mitchell, 2017).

4.3.2 Collaborations.

Traversing departmental interests while collaboratively delivering the overall university goals requires leaders who do not only demonstrate strong ethical leadership behaviours but also exemplify normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships (Waheed *et al*, 2018). The research findings showed, HoDs collaborated mainly through School Meetings, rarely through Interdisciplinary/school Committees and Personal Initiative while others focused on their Departments.

4.3.2.1 Collaborating through School Meetings

Thirteen (13) respondents said they collaborated with others mainly through the meetings regulated under the school framework as exemplified by *Bupe*.

"We are not independent. We work within the school framework and participate in a number of school programmes. We are represented in all school activities and share resources and courses. If we have a deficiency in teaching, we import... We also service other departments. Even when it comes to supervising masters' degree students, we take them to where there are resources and of course have healthy competition with collaboration."

Bupe

Bupe's response typifies regimented bureaucratic cultures (Achua and Lussier, 2010), a form of organisation characterised by division of labour, defined hierarchy, detailed rules and regulations, and impersonal relationships (Coulter and Robbins, 2007), that create stable work environments as well as emphasise strict adherence to set rules, policies and procedures (DuBrin, 2009). However, resource-sharing was an eminent agenda in such meetings.

Chipego considered interdepartmental meetings as mandatory for every HoD to attend, another indication of strict bureaucratic practices (DuBrin, 2009).

"We work through school committees on which HoDs are mandatory members. The Dean may also arrange some meetings to look at some school issues."

Chipego

Despite the eminent regimented nature of the meetings, *Shadrick* considered them as avenues for equitable resource sharing.

"... collaborate through meetings mostly - we have courses we offer to other departments and other departments teach our students in some courses. The Dean also brings departments in common activities. The Dean is Key in coordinating departments."

Shadrick

Given not only the scarcity but also the fast way resources are depleting in developing countries (World Bank, 2000), joint sharing of resources is a wise and strategic practice.

Mangimela, indicates the rareness of collaborative events among different schools.

"Have interdepartmental meeting within the same faculty. Interfaculty meetings are rare but could be arranged through central administration. These are not regular as compared to within faculty."

Mangimela

Unfortunately, lack of university-wide collaboration may not foster creation of professional communities of learners (Bush, 2016).

Mulenga regarded departmental meetings as a critical means to share ideas on how to improve the quality of education.

"We have introduced departmental meetings in which we share ideas on how to offer quality education and skills to students. We meet together to identify the gaps, synchronize and harmonize our plans. We have introduced joint committees to deal with issues such as graduation. Different HoDs come together for such."

Mulenga

Mulenga's responses on the meeting agenda aligns with pursuing the core function of higher learning institutions (Middlewood and Burton 2001). Joint committees comprise HoDs from different schools.

By discussing how each department was performing towards set targets, Tukiya, affirmed focusing on core function of HEIs. Unfortunately, an elaborate description of the activities and goals was not given.

"We hold HoD meetings and monthly academic activities. We also have academic review meetings where we look at how each department has performed on tasks and goals. We also look at future plans."

Tukiya

Lusekelo equally echoed pursuance of the core functions.

"Through meetings and other collaborative initiatives such as joint research, curriculum development, deciding on teaching schedule etc."

Lusekelo

Oliya considered school meetings as a means to formulate the overall direction of the school.

"We have management committees chaired by the Dean. We also help each other. We discuss issues about the direction of the school in management meetings. I am also free to go to other departments to consult."

Oliya

Even though *Oliya* did not elaborate further, discussing the direction of the school was a strategic thought (Davies and Davies, 2003). Personal collaborative initiatives were mentioned as well.

Apparently *Kyaliweme* considered school meetings as the major official collaborative avenue in the school.

"Through meetings like the one we are holding today- where I have come out of. We also have subcommittees such as keep the university clean."

Kyaliweme

'Keep the university clean' committees comprise HoDs from different schools. Furthermore, *Kyaliweme*'s behaviour of leaving the formal meeting to attend to the researcher was not only courteous but also indicative of the positive perception of the exercise and importance attached to learning. It is a personified intellectual virtue (Pring, 2014).

As for *Mweemba*, school meetings availed avenues to handle crosscutting administrative functions such as appointments, curriculum and employment contracts.

"We have committees within the school where HoDs meet to handle appointments, budgeting, dealing with curriculum issues, recruitments etc. People above retirement age are on contract. There are a few moments where different departments converge."

Mweemba

With such administrative agendas on meetings, successful discussions and meaningful solutions calls for HoDs' administrative expertise.

4.3.2.2 Collaborating through Interdisciplinary Committees

Four (4) HoDs cited interdisciplinary committees in which activities such as curriculum design, facility sharing and interdisciplinary research were discussed and arranged. *Tembo* for example said that activities such as curriculum design and development of research are better handled through interdisciplinary committees.

"By design, there are cross cutting areas for collaboration such as curriculum design, facilities sharing etc. We also have interdisciplinary activities such as research."

Tembo

For *Lubeka*, interdisciplinary collaborations were avenues to consider the affective and social development of students (Kelly, 1999).

*"Some areas are interdisciplinary hence we work **in teams and not alone**. We also have monthly academic meetings. We also look at the **social development** of students. We look at **the affective part of students** such as sports, culture etc. These are done collaboratively. We do so, both physically and online".*

Lubeka

Interdisciplinarity activities such as research and curriculum development need a combination of two or more academic disciplines into one activity. They require melding of several specialties, drawing knowledge from several other fields to create something by thinking across boundaries. Even though social development activities have rarely been cited, they foster learners' development of social skills (Wayne, 2010) required in developing effective relationships.

4.3.2.3 Collaboration based on Personal Initiatives

Four (4) other HoDs used personal efforts to collaborate with others. For instance, *Caiaphas* reached out to other departments to ensure the well-functioning of his departments and the entire school.

"We consult a lot among ourselves. Even in the absence of the Dean, we do a lot to ensure that the school is well functioning. We also work in committees – a regular feature."

Caiaphas

Similarly, *Mwala* showed willingness to learn from others in a different department, an act that exemplifies Teamwork, which is an essential part of workplace success.

"We have interdepartmental meetings. I actually go to other departments to learn from other HoDs. I learnt M&E from other departments. I also learn from other members of staff."

Mwala

Using his vast experience from a higher level, *Mbofwana* willingly shared expertise to help others.

"I have worked as a Dean before. I am using that experience. As such I am helping others in working together. I have designed lesson plans that I have shared with others."

Mbofwana

As leaders, the cited personal initiatives to collaborate could have helped create a good working climate within the organisation (Ebben *et al*, 2009).

4.3.2.4 Preference to Focus on One's Own Department

Unfortunately, four (4) other HoDs preferred to focus on their departments and felt compelled to collaborate with other departments. *Joshua* typified such uncooperative desires.

"We are compelled to work with others, so we offer our course to other departments. We also have departmental and school meetings. The only challenge is that most departments want to work autonomously."

Joshua

Such behaviours negate effective teamwork and working as a community of learners. Even an extremely talented person does not have enough time, skill, connections, reputation, leadership capacity and energy to do everything alone. Higher level managers may not appreciate middle-leaders who are concerned about only their own units that may turn out to be a loss to the organisation as a whole (Greer and Plunkett,2007).

Similarly, without the Dean's directives, *Harry* would most certainly concentrate on the affairs of his department.

"We communicate according to need. We have school management committees under the jurisdiction of the dean – we are the decision-making unit of the school."

Harry

Communicating according to need indicates lack of personified and inherent desire to collaborate with fellow HoDs. Such identities have potential to thwart prospects of creating a learning culture (Senge, 2006).

Even though *Mukwemba* collaborated with others, his priority was his department.

"I have departmental needs as my primary responsibilities. We work closely with other departments too. There are some departments within the school that are difficult to work with. They feel their programmes are superior and they bring in more money than others."

Mukwemba

Self-centred leaders, as *Mukwemba's* response entails, have large egos that inhibits them from realistically understanding their weaknesses and appreciating complementary strengths in others (Kotter, 1996). In fact, egoists fail to subjugate their immediate interests to some greater goal and do not foster creation of collaborative teamwork efforts. They perceive others as threats and not collaborators. In fact, self-centred people rarely conduct self-introspection to realise their own weakness but easily shift blames on others. *Mononoki's* response is another typical example.

"We all have plans that we follow, but we linkup through meetings. We have monthly and Ad hoc meetings too. Generally, we work collaboratively well but not 100%. Others are very egoistic."

Mononoki

Self-awareness enables leaders to understand not only their value systems that define who they really are and how others perceive them but also forms the premise from which they can identify areas for their continued growth both as persons and role occupants (Earley, 2020).

4.3.3 Strategic Alignment

As noted from literature, leadership involves creation strategies to achieve a vision (Porter, 2008) or seeing the big picture to ably develop and implement correct

actions to realise the vision (Gerry *et al*, 2014). Given that strategy has become a key aspect of leadership in HEIs (Davies and Davies, 2003), how HoDs positioned (or thought to) their departments towards achieving the overall organisational was a key dimension for the research. From data analysis, seven (7) positions emerged; Awareness of the University Strategic Plan, Service Delivery Improvement, Strategic Partnerships, Increased Revenue Generation, Academic Excellence, Improved Marketing and Still Thinking.

4.3.3.1 *Aware of the Overall University Strategic Plan*

Five (5) respondents acknowledged being aware of the existence of and the general need to align their departmental activities towards the university overall intent as evidenced by *Harry*.

"We were dealing with the same issue the previous week - a lot of expectations from the school; Identifying goals and people to execute the goals, updating our website – assigned to a colleague, encouraging juniors to work hard on their planned activities, giving each worker their space to work."

Harry

Implicitly, *Harry's* department was in the process of identifying strategic goals connecting departmental activities with overall university strategic plan.

Mwelumuka also echoed the same.

"In every monthly school meeting, we ask about strategic thoughts. We have our departmental plans that feed into the university plan. We are reminded that we can't budget for activities outside the university plan."

Mwelumuka

The reminders, probably from seniors, about budgeting for activities provided for in the strategic plan only, may imply that *Mwelumuka's* departmental activities were misaligned to the overall intent of the organisation. In order for the university

to achieve its overall objectives, operational activities should have supportive financial plans (Briggs and Sommefeldt, 2002). But budgeting is one of the major challenges HoDs faced.

4.3.3.2 Improved Service Delivery

Three (3) HoDs were thinking of improving the quality of learning as indicated by *Mangimela*.

"We organise our programmes to contribute to the growth of numbers of graduates the university has planned to graduate. We are working on achieving the goal of producing more graduates for the industry. We are working on improving Information Communication Technology (ICT) and other infrastructure to support learning."

Mangimela

In Mangimela's department, ICT was required to foster quality education and that is in line with the notion of financing activities that support learning (Briggs and Sommefeldt, 2002). The response also aligns with the call for universities to respond to dynamism in both the external and internal environment and expectation placed on them (Rebora and Turri, 2010). However, the total planned number to graduate was not mentioned.

Tembo wanted to ensure that every staff was fully engaged and focused on providing quality education.

"... To ensure that everyone in the department understands their roles, let everyone feel that their roles are very important and that there were no superior or inferior roles".

Tembo

In *Tembo's* quote, the emphasis was on individual staff to understand their roles, from the lowest to the highest in rank. The HoD also wanted to ensure that everyone was equipped with right tools.

Shadrick also focused on system improvements.

"I have introduced a new system of data collection – e-learning platform that has been adopted by the whole school... input of results with very few errors. It was developed in 2011 and it feeds into the main university results database. I also introduced a system for selecting students into quotas with minimal errors."

Shadrick

Shadrick's e-learning platform is a good contribution to improving quality education (Bush and Bell, 2002). Despite such operational changes addressing the real needs universities should focus on, rather than implementing externally induced transformations that provide minimal benefits internally (Girma and Matebe, 2018) they exemplified technical prowess and not leadership.

4.3.3.3 Intent to Create Strategic Partnership

Three (3) other HoDs thought of positioning their departments through strategic partnership as stated by *Mwansa*.

"Thinking of developing regulations... and create linkages with partners. We have a strategic goal of identifying partners. We want to sell our vision to corporate partners. Our team reports to the Vice Chancellor and we have our own strategic plan."

Mwansa

When shared and concretised, *Mwansa's* thoughts on strategic partnership are well placed and aligns with the new developments in EA on global networking, mobility and collaboration (Odhiambo, 2014). This was the same case for *Mwala*.

"I am thinking of partnering with some mobile service providers to help farmers to be forewarned on potential disease outbreaks. This will help the university to respond to society – community service. This is in the university strategic plan. I have shared this thought with the Dean and others on how we should resource funds for exams. We plan ahead with my technicians."

Mwala

Mwala's thoughts were supportive of the call for community service (University Act, 1999).

Collaborative research with international agencies was Mbofwana's quest to answer to the call for community service.

"I am heading Health foundation programmes. We are lacking in the aspect of research. There is shortage of time to do research... I am planning to collaborate with others on some research with the guidance of the whole faculty team."

Mbofwana

Mbofwana's responses contradicts Gimma and Matebe's (2018) argument that middle-leaders don't understand how to initiate and manage changes.

4.3.3.4 Increased Revenue Generation Ventures

Three (3) other HoDs were concerned with strategically positioning their departments through revenue generation as evidenced by Mukwemba.

"We have applied for land to build and expand to offer more programmes. Such will help in generating more income. I am of the view that the university should be self-reliant. It should be autonomous – the way to go! We need to support ourselves. My vision should be in line with the larger context of the school. The biggest drive for us is to support income generation ventures for the university."

We are doing consultancies and short courses that are raising funds to support operations."

Mukwemba

Mukwemba displayed entrepreneurial thoughts of increased revenue generation through expansions but such thought needed careful planning to avoid the dangers of over expansion that may result in depleting resources and hence negatively affecting the quality of learning outcomes (World Bank, 2000).

Chabota's thoughts also echoed this quest for alternative revenue generation ventures.

"I wanted to unlock the misunderstanding that there are no resources. We now have... many business avenues for revenue generations."

Chabota

Chabota's response aligns with renowned and current university practices in the developed world of adapting to survive through prioritisation of revenue generation and many other strategies (Parker, 2002).

In the same line, *Chipego* said,

"I want to strengthen our income generation... As the university is expected to provide public service, we are trying to enhance our response to our clients. I want to have an MOU with the ... farm. Previously, such services were provided by South Africa and Zimbabwe. I want us to enhance our visibility of what we need to do as a department. We are following the university strategic plan but have not yet developed our plan from the university plan... I was not involved in the university strategic plan development and I am not sure of how inclusive the process was."

Chipego

Chipego's thoughts were also supportive of meeting community service obligations (University Act, 1999). However, without clear strategic alignments with overall university plan, such thoughts may result in unnecessary increased pressure that may in turn compromise the quality of education outcomes (Hill *et al*, 2016).

4.3.3.5 Promoting Academic Excellence

Two (2) other HoDs had their strategic thoughts cast towards enhancing academic Excellency starting with *Bupe*.

"I have focused on three strategic areas to raise resources and achieve academic success; become a hub for postgraduate studies... research-led department... and writing and publication."

Bupe

Bupe's strategic thrust was at the core of HEIs (Middlewood and Burton 2001) and aligns with Hill's *et al* (2016) call to improve the quality of learning outcomes.

For *Caiaphas*, the strategic thrust was in three areas; curriculum review, improving staffing and coordinating students' final year projects.

"Doing curriculum review to be achieved in my tenure. We did not have all the staff we needed but we now have ... the number we needed. I have coordinated students' final year projects very well a feature that has become a model, adopted by the entire school. We work within the framework of the university strategic plan."

Caiaphas

Caiaphas's thoughts align with Girma and Matebe's (2018) suggestion for Universities to focus on making changes that fulfil their very reason for existence.

4.3.3.6 Improved Marketing Strategies

Three (3) other HoDs thought of enhancing the relevance of their course offerings as evidenced by *Joshua*.

"I had thought the department had viable courses relevant to all the other schools' programmes... I wanted to influence that our courses can be widely taught in other schools. This was an enormous task. I tried but with little success. We now have students doing a double major... and other disciplines."

Joshua

Joshua thought of vigorous marketing strategies to popularise courses in the entire university but this was an uphill battle whose success required creating collaborative networks and adept in marketing strategies, areas in which most HoDs were not developed. Success highly hinges on the quality of educational service delivery over which HoDs should be held accountable (Lloyd and Wolstencroft, 2019)

The above scenario applied to *Lusekelo* as well.

"I wanted to increase the capacity of the department. I fought to link our department with the industry. I was keen on seeing that our school was offering programmes that were relevant to the country's needs... I wanted to have on board many young Lecturers. It was the first time during my tenure that we have recruited from outside Staff Development Fellows. I have done a lot of lobbying to companies and other schools. As departments within the school, we were not collaborating. Some departments ... are lagging behind in the required numbers of Lecturers."

Lusekelo

Lusekelo, wanted to offer demand-driven courses and establishing strategic partnership with the industry as well as strategically contributing to the manpower

demands of the country (Mwanakatwe, 2013). Yet again, issues of quality were not cited.

Mweemba's response seemed to be premised on the call to increase the quality of education provision, improve student recruitments and sustain their continued attendance (Hill *et al*, 2016).

"Promoting the department through student recruitment, mode of delivery and working on MOUs... we are providing a counter in the loss of students' numbers... This has raised the profile of the department. We want to enhance the model or delivery through online courses, fulltime and courses done through research. This has raised our contribution to the numbers... We have strived to have an international face by having lecturers from the international arena. We have introduced the teaching of short courses."

Mweemba

Mweemba's thoughts do not only comply with the provision of community service (University Act, 1999) but also forms a good foundation for effective strategic planning in terms of budgetary decisions that would lead to appropriate deployment of resources (Bush and Bell, 2002).

4.3.3.7 Thinking about Strategic Positioning

Six (6) HoDs were still learning on how to strategically position their departments as evidenced by *Oliya*.

"I am still learning about the job and have not thought about anything yet especially that I have just been appointed."

Oliya

Bweupe was only aware of the existence of the university strategic plan.

"We have a new strategic plan – 2018 to 2022. I was not part of the development of the plan. I think there was a lot of consultation and interaction when it was being developed."

Bweupe

Despite sounding being honest, *Bweupe* was unconcerned about the relevance of the university strategic plan to the operation of his department. He did not even give hope about probable efforts to develop departmental plans that would contribute to achieving the university intent.

On the contrary, *Kyaliweme* sounded positive about waiting for an opportune time to start developing the departmental plans and had shared her plans with someone in the same department.

"My plan is to come up with a work plan derived from the overall school plan. I have shared my intentions with the Assistant Dean. I have planned that when we are less busy, we strategise on the key issues to focus on activities like Fund Mobilisation."

Kyaliweme

Mweshi was equally still thinking.

"The goal is to produce quality graduates. We need to meet in due course on how we plan our courses. These are thoughts yet to be tabled."

Mwansa

Despite the outrightly acknowledged absence of strategic alignment of the departmental activities with overall university intent being a moral virtue of honesty (Pring, 2010), the ineptness is a serious call for upskilling in strategic management.

4.3.3.8 Lack of Strategic Linkage

Most of the HoDs became aware of the existence of the university strategic Plan mainly through the School Meetings when seniors reminded them to only budget for activities provided for in the strategic plan. Despite such awareness, most of them did not clearly explain how their departmental activities were linked to the overall university intent and supported through budgeting. The lack of such explanations indicate that strategic planning and budgeting were not among their prominent activities (Bush and Bell, 2002). This position is against Coleman and Anderson's (2000) urge that educational planning should be explicitly tied to financial planning. Nevertheless, good thoughts were expressed.

a) Improved Supportive Services

Some HoDs were concerned with prioritising to support and finance activities renowned to improve teaching and learning, such as investment in various electronic medias, an initiative expected of effective leaders in HEIs (Coleman and Anderson, 2000). Despite these views aligning with Briggs and Sommefeldt's (2002) advise on providing a range of resources to optimise learning, they sounded disjointed and void of strategic objectives they intended to achieve.

Given the scarcity of resources and the plethora of information technology systems and the commercialisation of educational provision making survival a function of numbers and revenue generation, rather than the provision of quality learning (Briggs and Sommefeldt, 2002), being strategic on what activities to prioritise becomes of essence. Despite the cited e-learning platforms and other supportive systems being a good contribution to quality education and answering to Bush and Bell's (2002) call to institutionalise conditions that promote quality learning, the lack of strategic alignment possess some danger. In fact, Briggs and Sommefeldt (2002) caution that conditions that promote quality learning do not currently exist in most colleges but what exists is the proliferation of learning programmes.

Careful planning, which is strategic in nature, should therefore show how the support services aim at supporting the *raison d'être* (Middlewood and Burton 2001) through well evidenced and articulated strategic plans that lacked from the HoDs' views.

b) Creating Business Partnerships

There was also clear intent of creating business partnerships to enable departments provide services to communities outside the university and carryout joint research in line with the university purposes (University Act, 1999). While such thoughts were strategic in nature, they did not seem to emanate from the university overall plan hence contravening the notion in strategic planning of moving from a big picture before devising an effective methodology and the right set of actions that will lead to realising the vision (Lynch, 2000). As these views do not reveal determination of the long-term goals and objectives of their departments and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals (Armstrong, 2008), the findings may not be considered as effective strategic practices. Given also that no HoD indicated having been involved in the development of the overall university strategic plan, the possibility of misalignment between departmental activities and overall university intent were highly likely (David *et al*, 2009).

c) Alternative Sources of Revenue Generation

Increased revenue generation thoughts were also expressed. Respondents envisioned developing avenues to generate money and reduce their sole reliance on government funding. Increased finances would not only enhance their visibility but also enable them offer more courses and generate money to sustain their plans of becoming semi-autonomous. While such thoughts and actions are good and once operational can help the departments become self-sustaining financially

(Gerry *et al*, 2014), they lacked valuable information on strategic positioning, choices and actions (Armstrong, 2008).

With the purpose of their departments in mind, they should have assessed their standing in line with the overall organisational intent, and then make strategic choices of the future activities based on their well-assessed current position but such explanations were lacking. In fact, departmental activities should be strategically aligned to avoid the common trend in EA where expansion is reported to have depleted resources hence negatively affecting the quality of education (World Bank, 2000). Expansion unmatched with corresponding growth in the number and quality of lecturers to ensure an efficient and effective lecturer-student ratio became the norm in most East Africa universities (Zelen and Olukoshi, 2004). Therefore, the quest for increased income generating ventures for the university should be traded cautiously and such is the pinnacle of effective strategic planning, which is apparently lacking.

d) Promoting Academic Excellence

The casted thoughts towards promoting Academic Excellence through improved curriculum, staffing and coordinating students' projects are at the core of HEIs functions (Middlewood and Burton 2001) and align with Brodie and Partington's (1992) quest for university departments to promote excellence in research and teaching. It is indeed an area in which HoDs' leadership is required (Ramsden, 1998:63) and whose impact affects the quality of learning outcomes (Coleman and Anderson, 2000). However, to ensure success is what their departmental plans should have extensively revealed, whose details were not clearly spelt out.

e) Improved Marketing Strategies

Improved marketing to foster course relevance was another well-intended perspective. Some HoDs envisioned making their courses relevant and attractive

to other departments and the industry at large through increased collaboration and improved course delivery. Seemingly, in their thinking, the more relevant their courses became in the minds of students, other department and the wider community, the highly likely the increased student enrolments, an aspect Deem (2006) considered as being resourceful.

Improved marketability of their course offerings was a good foundation for strategic planning that would provide the basis for budgetary decisions and lead to appropriate deployment of resources (Bush and Bell, 2002). In fact, linking the departments with the industry and offering programmes that were relevant to the country's needs was part of university's pledged community service (University act, 1999). It is also a contribution towards meeting the manpower demands of the country (Mwanakatwe, 2013) recommended by the 1963 Lockwood Commission Report. The importance of the expressed views notwithstanding, precise linkage between their thoughts and the university overall intent was not explained and that may create incongruence between top management planning and the practical operational reality at departmental level (Davis and Davies, 2003).

4.4 Highlights of Key Findings

This chapter has summarised how HoDs developed their leadership capital, accessed the roles and consolidated their leadership.

Moral values for leaders such as altruism are very critical (Haydon, 2007) in the effectiveness of educational leaders. How such are developed is the major contribution from this research. Other Key findings are highlighted below.

1. HoDs' development of the 'self' (Cultural Capital) - called the Leadership Heart (values, beliefs, dispositions) (Sergiovanni 1992), is formed through parenting and supplemented by the hidden curriculum (Dewey, 1933) in schools and religious institutions. Therefore, culturally specified gender roles (Kuppuswamy, 1991) instil in children cultural capital such as taking

- care of vulnerable persons, building bonds with close relatives, and many others. Through family social learning, children develop the values that form their character and parents constitute the foundation of such development.
2. The key players in moral development of children are mothers, fathers and teachers. Mothers are the source of the development of children's cultural capital of altruism and affiliation that is augmented socially through the hidden curriculum in schools. Father's moral virtues, life styles and standing in society foster children's self-esteem and set the motivation for children's successes further in life.
 3. Despite having successfully developed their cultural capital from early childhood socialisation, HoDs required direct socialisation to ably align their cultural capital appropriately with role and social identities. This implies that learning to lead requires institutionalised direct socialisation that is context specific.
 4. Due to the lack of context specific direct socialisation, HoDs did not develop their leadership professional capital. They faced cultural shock (Bush, 2016) as they grappled with administrative work, complex organisational systems, people management issues and relationship building areas in which they needed upskilling. Even though many positively perceived their roles, most of them did not comprehend their leadership identity and lacked knowledge on strategic development and alignment.
 5. The findings therefore strongly confirm that Knowledgeability and expertise to lead effectively are closely tied to social relationships leaders have with members of their organisations and profound understanding of the wider context in which they are located and such learning are fostered by direct socialisation into the dominant cultural capital.

The following chapter discusses these major findings in the light of theoretical and conceptual framework.

5. Chapter Five: Discussions of The Findings

In this chapter, themes derived from the findings are discussed in the light of theoretical and conceptual frameworks. To start with, a recap on theoretical framework is provided, followed by summarised findings presented under each research question. A schematic presentation of the findings is also given, as a prelude to the discussions.

5.1 Recap on the Theoretical Framework

Theoretically, it was conceptualised that self-awareness enables leaders to understand not only their value systems that define who they really are (Earley, 2020) and how others perceive them, but also forms the premise from which to identify areas for their continued growth as professionals (Stets and Serpe, 2013). To attain such professionalism, leaders need to understand their identities; the meanings they use to make sense of and enact their roles (Crow and Møller, 2017). Understanding their professional identities influence their behaviour, drive their willingness and ability to be effective in their roles. Professional identities defined as “that part of the self specifically oriented to roles along a personal career trajectory” (Robertson, 2017:776), comprises values, beliefs, knowledge, understanding, experiences and wisdom that inform praxis (Taysum, 2012).

While Knowing professional identities fosters leaders’ effectiveness, internalising them allows leaders to act ethically and confidently in their roles (Armstrong and Mitchell, 2017), since people’s stable social relationships and effective interaction hinges on their Identities (Burke and Stets, 2009). Even though few people may know their identities (Haydon, 2007), their internalised values guide their thoughts, decisions and actions as well as what moral and ethical choices to make (Reece and Brandt, 2009). Self-knowledge (cultural Capital) therefore, fosters the development of leaders’ ability to effectively adapt and make necessary changes to fit into their roles and ensures congruence among organisational, leadership

and personal values. Without such congruence, misalignment between personal values and organisational values are highly likely to occur and can render leaders ineffective even when they are technically competent (Hughes *et al*, 2009). This implies that social capital enhances cultural capital to produce human capital.

Generally, it was conceptualised that identities are socially constructed (Burke and Stets, 2009). Furthermore, person identities (Cultural Capital), also renowned as master identities (Serpe and Stets, 2013), are formed early in people's lives and acquired from a variety of sources (Reece and Brandt, 2009) and remain relatively stable over time (Hughes *et al*, 2009). These identities are further reshaped through life experiences (Hume, 2008), through socialisation.

With self-knowledge, preferably imbued through reflective experiential learning (Earley, 2020), HoDs would be able to "co-ordinate a multitude of tasks whilst being held accountable for the performance of their departments..." (Lloyd and Wolstencroft, 2019:118). Being aware of the wider expectation of their roles, understanding the strategic intent of the overall university underscores the need for their strategic prowess (Bryman, 2007). They are expected to be proactive, relationship and network builders, change oriented, innovative, motivating and inspiring as well as champion compelling visions with which they infuse their teams.

5.2 Summary Findings

Conceptually, how HoDs consolidate their leadership roles was envisaged to comprise three major domains; development of the leadership capital, accession to roles and consolidation of leadership. Each theme was addressed by a single research question (RQ) shown below.

RQ1: How do University HoDs develop their leadership Capital?

In line with Aristotle's conceptualisation that virtuous parents nurture virtuous offspring (Freese, 1926), the findings showed that HoDs' leadership characters were nurtured through executing culturally gender-based roles at family level, enhanced by the hidden curriculum in schools. The popularity of school prefects also affirmed HoDs' verified person identities. Through voluntary and elective roles, few HoDs continued to enhance their leadership development at university level.

Cultural Capital (altruistic, affiliation, and many other virtues) was induced through family and school socialisation processes. Since people develop into what they have been nurtured to become (Freese, 1926), the HoDs internalised and personified the modelled virtues they admired.

RQ2: How do Academicians make adjustments to fit into HoD roles and learn to perform their roles effectively?

Accession into HoD roles revealed culture shocks (Bush 2016) for novices except for those who had prior leadership experience. They found their initial experience challenging, demanding and stressful, an indication of failure to rely on cultural capital to easily adapt into new and different social settings. The lack of formal preparations into the roles, coupled with lack of formalised direct socialisation, made majority of the HoDs fail to develop the human capital requisite for effective performance in the headship roles.

Very few HoDs viewed the roles as non-taxing due to daunting administrative functions (Hill, 2005). A good number expressed disregard for subordinates, majority revealed phobia for seniors while others had trouble relating well with peers. Similarly, many HoDs' applied coping mechanism to pacify seniors as they seemingly conformed to the organisational norms (Branson *et al*, 2016). The success or failure to equitably attend to academic and HoD roles was premised on

the ability to delegate, a part of human capital acquired through prior social learning.

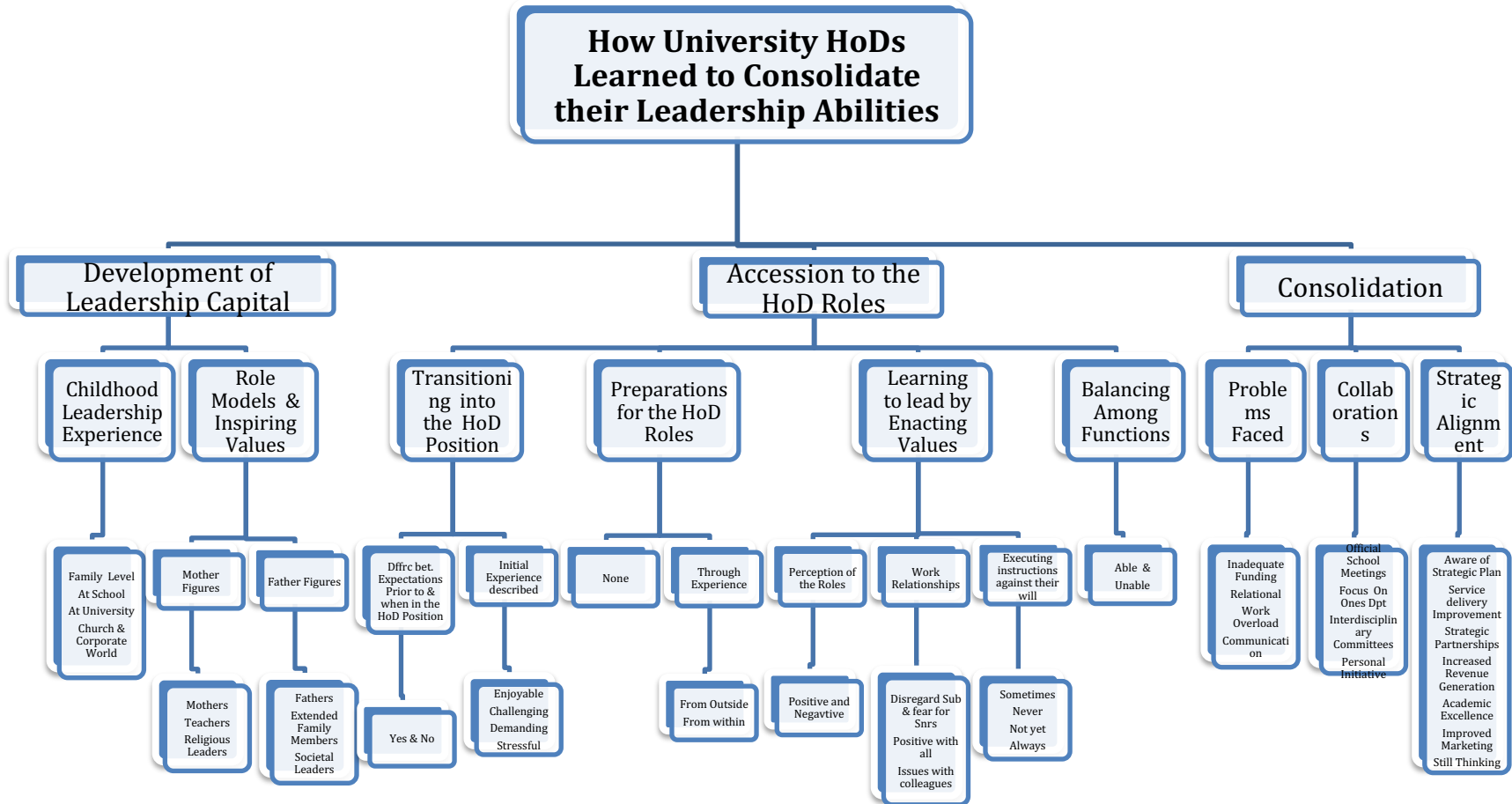
RQ3: What practical evidence exemplifies consolidation of the HoD roles?

The development of effective professional capital was not eminently evident. Majority of the HoDs grappled with inadequate funding coupled with relational issues resulting from ineptness in people management skills. Others were overburdened by administrative functions and ineffective communication that were also attributable to lack of direct socialisation into the roles.

Limited collaboration among HoDs to formerly prescribed school meetings that few felt compelled to attend was an indication that professional socialisation (Bush, 2016) was contrived. Furthermore, the much desired strategic prowess among HoDs was non-existent. Despite the widely acknowledged awareness of the need to strategically align their departmental activities with that of the university, there were no explanations on how departmental plans and the corporate strategic objectives were linked. Given also that none of the HoDs were involved in developing the university's strategic plan, the findings affirm lack of developed human capital on strategic alignments.

The above-summarised findings are shown in figure 6.1 below followed by detailed discussion of the same.

Figure 5-1: Schematic Presentation of Findings



5.3 Development of Leadership Capital

For it is probable that a man will turn out as he has been brought up (Freese, 1926), this section discusses the development of cultural capital (person identity), underlying factors and how such impacted the development of the HoDs' leadership potential. The moral virtues that inspired the HoDs and influenced them in shaping their leadership character, wraps up the discussion on the leadership capital formation.

5.3.1 Developing the Cultural Capital

Capital takes different forms (Cochrane, 2006) and among them is Cultural Capital believed to facilitate the development of human and decisional capitals (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012). HoDs' cultural capital started developing through unconscious modelling and socialisation in the family as exemplified by a few who had leadership stints by virtue of being a first-born or eldest girl-child in the family. Since African cultures intuitively teach children, to learn gender based-roles - girls handling home chores such as cooking and cleaning while boys attending to outside home errands (Kuppuswamy, 1991), HoDs were learning being accountable to higher authority with honesty and the courage to provide protection over younger siblings at that early age. This learning of socially accepted roles was vital for shaping their moral character and started developing in infancy, progressed through childhood, adolescence and stabilised in adulthood (Kalat, 2008).

The families, as social structures prescribed and enforced specific norms that formed the meanings the children attached to their roles and gender. The social structures within which they grew therefore influenced the meanings they developed about themselves and the conception of right and wrong things (Pring, 2010). Therefore, people start learning the meanings that define their person identities from close associates that trump choices on moral issues later in life

(Monroe, 2001). Since cultural capital refers to person identity elements such as social values, social preferences, ethics and morals among others (Cochrane, 2012), HoDs' cultural capital development originated from family social learning.

By consistently reinforcing the mores and morals in their children, parents were fostering the internalisation of certain cultural morals in their children. In later years, as the HoDs interacted with others in the wider family, they learned how their behaviours affected other people and they would modify such accordingly (Kalat, 2008). Since identities are important to one's self-concept as they characterise the persons' desires and how the person wants others to see them and such become a value (Stets and Serpe's, 2013), parents formed the fulcrum of HoDs' cultural capital development that formed their character in later years.

Despite the fact that only eight (08) out of twenty-five (25) respondents said they had leadership experience at family level, all the HoDs started their character development at family level. The cultural capital, in form of inherent African family values inculcated in children through social training based on gender roles, helped HoDs to develop their human capital of love, care for the young ones, how to be responsible and accountable. The socialisation in these cultural values had a bearing in HoDs' adult lives as Hughes *et al* (2009) suggest that values that develop early in people's lives are difficult to change in a short time. From Aristotle's saying, "... for it is probable that virtuous parents will have virtuous offspring and that a man will turn out as he has been brought up" (Freese, 1926:101), the HoDs were morally nurtured by their parents. Since personified values remain the driving force in people's decision-making and actions taken (Carson, 1998) later in their life endeavours, the HoDs' moral character began to form from the guidance and nurturing provided by parents which in turn set the premise for the development of their decisional capital.

5.3.2 Reinforcement of Cultural Capital Through Hidden Curriculum

Schools as social institutions are renowned to perpetuate the dominant cultural capital of the society in which they are located (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012). Such a culture is instilled through the hidden curriculum (Dewey, 1933) that inculcates into learners' mores and morals of the school systems. In adolescence, popularity of children raises their self-esteem, makes them feel accepted, liked and admired by others (Wayne, 2010) but they can only become popular when they embrace the dominant school culture fostered through the school rules and regulations. There is, therefore, a strong connection among cultural, social and human capitals discussed below in the light of the findings.

At secondary school, children are in their adolescence stage the period in which their social and emotional development depends largely on their friendship. During this period, as Kalat (2008:185) asserts, "popular children have many friends and they associate with those they admire and most other children avoid 'Rejected' children". Being a school prefect is a prestigious position for most students, as they feel popular among their folks and such impacts positively on their self-esteem and also on their social development (Wayne, 2010). This too affirms that children high in dominant cultural capital develops high social esteem that enables them to easily develop other capitals (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012). The leadership responsibilities therefore, added the glamour to prefects' popularity and enhanced their self-esteem. In fact, most of them gladly described leadership roles they held while in school with high excitement as such might have revived their good memories. Such excitements are likened to psychological feelings that reveal identity salience and commitment that offer a greater chance of an identity being evoked and expressed through verbal or behavioural actions (Stets and Serpe, 2013). These findings therefore, align with Carter's (2003) views that cultural capital gives people the audacity of acceptability in a society among peers and other stakeholders and Gillies' *et al*/(2010) assertion that students who are able to

identify themselves with the school community and find a role within that supportive setting are highly likely to generate approved cultural capital.

The findings further affirm Dewey's (1933) argument that even when schools do not have specific programmes on moral education, they inculcate such through a hidden curriculum implemented through their school rules and regulations. Through the rules and regulations, the school administration infuses the school with a value system that is expected to provide norms and standards of behaviour expected to guide behavioural conducts of students. As HoDs were exposed to practicing the leadership moral virtues, they were being prepared to become responsible citizens in future (Kalat, 2008) when such were embraced, internalised and personified. The learning of leadership roles at school was done socially affirming that human capital thrives through social capital (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012).

In fact, commitment to an identity increases with increased popularity and the number of social interactions with members of the social network increase. Thus, these findings affirm Wayne's (2010) arguments that students who are recognised by being appointed as prefects develop positive self-image. Since recognition gives them the moral courage to venture into entrepreneurial activities, they are more likely to prosper in future careers (Dewey, 1909). This is in line with the identity theory (Stets and Serpe, 2013) assertion that the higher the status of individuals (high in dominant cultural capital) in the social hierarchy, the greater the influence they exert in social interactions than lower status individuals. Therefore, appointment into leadership positions made HoDs to develop positive evaluation of themselves emanating from admirations from fellow students, as their status was raised above their fellow students.

Evidently, the number of HoDs involved in leadership activities reduced from twenty at primary and secondary to only seven at university level. The fewer responses suggest a shift of focus towards personal interest (Kuppuswamy, 1991).

Their ability to make more informed decisions (decisional capital) about their future had matured as decisional capital is developed through accumulated experience, practice and reflection (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012). At tertiary level, students become more focused on their specific career advancement aspects and may not find extra-curricular activities interesting especially when such are not in line and beneficial to their career aspirations and advancement.

Given that the seven were either elected or volunteered to lead, is indicative of commitment to salient identities developed earlier and have a greater likelihood of being evoked across situations (Stets and Serpe, 2013). Saliency is evidenced by their willingness to provide a service to humanity (Mwanakatwe, 2013), and aligns with altruistic virtues recommended for effective leadership in education (Haydon, 2007). On this premise, it is justifiable to infer that cultural capital acquired at family level, strengthened through social capital at primary and secondary schools, fosters the development of decisional capital in learners at tertiary level.

5.3.3 Importance of the Developed Cultural Capital

As virtues create the moral compass for effective leadership (Munroe, 2014), and since good moral character is the existence of virtues that come from what a person believes in and maintains in their daily decisions (Pring, 2010), the HoDs had mother and father figures who inspired and influenced their moral character formation. This moral character is their cultural capital whose significance and likely impact is the focus of this section.

5.3.3.1 Altruistic and Affiliation Values

Haydon (2007) singled out altruistic virtues as the most relevant for educational leaders as they foster commitment to the ideals of education and the common good of others and these were inspired by Mother Figures that also inspired affiliation virtues. People who embrace altruistic values believe in actively helping others who are less fortunate (Hughes *et al* (2009) and are the adorable

characteristics of what constitutes effective leadership in learning institutions as they are "... the qualities necessary to the successful pursuit of a human practice" (Haydon, 2007:57). They are the qualities that enable leaders to nurture others and raise their performance to optimal levels as well as build followers' moral character (Cohen, 2010). The respondents were therefore being nurtured on valuing service to vulnerable persons from whom they don't expect repayments and that is being magnanimous, a virtue Aristotle highly valued (Freese 1926).

Since altruistic leaders care for everyone, particularly the most vulnerable or least in society like a shepherd (Eckerts and Rweyongoza, 2010), HoDs were learning the practices of servant leadership required for national patronage and servanthood (Mwanakatwe, 2013). By admiring altruistic virtues, HoDs were learning philanthropic action of effective leadership that involves caring, inspiring and persuading others to act for certain shared goals that represent the values, the aspirations and expectations of themselves and the people they represent (Philips, 1998). In fact, altruistic virtues are what is adorable in good people such as kindness and selflessness (Kelly, 1999) and cheerfulness, willingness, friendliness (Mwanakatwe, 2013) as they foster team building. The HoDs were therefore learning basic human values that make children to become good leaders.

The admired affiliation values were inclusivity, humbleness and understanding. People imbued with these values are renowned for creating effective relationships, networks and teams (Hughes *et al*, 2009) and mothers in particular demonstrated such by equitably providing for every member of their family without segregation. Teachers and religious leaders also cared for everyone equitably. Such moral character helps to foster social justice, effective work relations and teamwork. Leaders imbued with such virtues find working with others highly motivating and fulfilling (Hughes *et al*, 2009).

Social justice is vital in the spiritual development of children and can be enhanced in communities committed to consistency of moral purpose and action (Cormody

2016). Justice with courage enables people to do right things for goodness's sake (Freese, 1926). Justice is a virtue; because with it, people are able to assign to others their dues and this is affirmed by how mothers fended for their families while injustice takes away what dully and rightly belongs to others. Courage makes people perform noble acts in the midst of dangers and mothers too, showed courage by sacrificing for the wellbeing of their children and fending for them throughout their childhood. Courage is a necessary trait as it enabled mothers venture or persevere in fending for their children under difficulties even when such ability is not a common endowment of people (Drucker, 2001).

Being just and courageous, to which HoDs were exposed, is very important in making choices between competing sets of values and priorities and remaining committed to doing what is right not just what is expedient (Hughes et al, 2009) as it will take great moral courage to do what is right, in the face of adversity (Sergiovanni, 1992). Doing the right thing is sometimes harder, but is always worth the effort hence ethical leaders hold to a common set of moral principles and consistently use those principles to guide their decisions (Munro, 2014) and these are the esteemed higher order virtues (courage, integrity and perseverance) (Freese, 1926) Mothers exercised as they provided for the wellbeing of their children. Since courage is a trait that is acquired from early age and established through life experiences (Taysum, 2003), it is highly likely the HoDs personalised such virtues.

Another admired affiliation virtue, inclusivity, is not only preferred to be imbued in Zambian youths (Kelly, 1999) as a necessary trait for collaborative teamwork (Cohen, 2010) but also as a good value required for Zambian leaders to enable them unit the diverse seventy-two (72) ethnicities (Mwanakatwe, 2013). Inclusivity is also necessary in building relationships as leaders need the ability to mobilise others around what they want achieved through shared aspirations (Branson *et al*, 2016:131). They need to build effective relationship with everybody else with

whom they work and this is a trait demonstrated by and admired in mother figures by the HoDs.

5.3.3.2 Power and Traditional Virtues

From father figures, HoDs admired power values (Hughes et al, 2009) such as provision of family leadership, being independent, dedication and commitment to work and being focused. They also admired how their fathers led by example, with integrity, keeping promises and with high moral uprightiness. These virtues were also admired in extended family members and societal leaders.

Power values are exhibited through love for competition, commitment, need to be influential and the drive to make an impact (Hughes et al, 2009). The academic advancement of the HoDs is an indication that dedication and commitment in fathers significantly influence children's attitudes about their career prospects, successes and general outlook (Kalat, 2008). Through early interaction and socialisation with father figures, HoDs admired and acquired the cultural capital of dedication and commitment to work as such dispositions raised their self-esteem, made them feel proud about their fathers' outlook and standing in society, consequently propelling them through academic endeavours.

As such, these findings illustrate the importance of social capital that increases one's knowledge and access to other people's human capital and expands one's networks of influence and opportunity. The findings align with Gadamer's (1979:107) view that "only through others do we gain knowledge of ourselves". We learn through others. Meaningful interactions with others make us suspend our prejudices and interaction with others is an avenue to confront our highly or deeply held prejudices. The views of others help in understanding the full context hence the need to be open to other people's viewpoints to confront our prejudices. As Hargreaves and Fullan (2012:90) posit, "In families, social capital depends both on the physical presence of adults in the family and on the attention given by the

adults to the child”, therefore, with the presence of father figures, HoDs developed resilience as they knew they had admirable and trusted fathers from whom to seek advice and guidance.

Furthermore, fathers were admired for exhibiting traditional values (Hughes et al, 2009) of honesty, keeping promises and being morally upright. These virtues are renowned to foster effective leadership (Munroe, 2014). Leaders imbued with traditional values believe in family values and strict codes of conduct and value moral rules and standards (Hughes et al, 2009). Upholding moral uprightness helps in creating the desire to foresee and avert harmful future events (Taysum, 2019) as people with strong traditional values would like to behave according to and uphold institutional customs and standards of behaviour (Hughes et al, 2009). If indeed HoDs personified these virtues, then they acquired an important quality a true leader should possess, which is the moral force of a noble and stable character (Munroe, 2014) failing which, they become ineffective in their leadership.

Gardner (1990) in particular posits that leaders ultimately must be judged on the basis of the moral soundness of their character and not only the ability to achieve results. Burns (1978) equally maintains that authentic leaders behave morally right, guided by correct moral values that act like compasses, always pointing at the right way as they traverse through life. Fathers were admired for exhibiting good character, which is not only intrinsically desirable, but makes leaders happier and more satisfied with their lives (Arthur and Harrison, 2012). If leaders understand their moral compasses and know how to read them, they will not get lost, confused, or fooled by conflicting voices since morals become and remain their guiding principles (Munroe, 2014). Given that these values were also admired in extended family members and societal leaders, there are high chances for personifying these values by the HoDs who lived with father figures in their childhood.

5.3.4 Summary on Leadership Capital Development

The findings on the HoDs' leadership capital development revealed the critical role played by the environment in which they were raised. The key players in this environment were parents, the larger family in which they grew up and the institutions through which they socialised such as schools and places of worship.

The HoDs had Mother Figures that showed them altruistic and affiliation values and Father Figures from who they admired good moral character. These values were likely imbued in them since a good family produces a well-adjusted character in the child (Freese, 1926) and the character of mothers is of central importance (Kalat, 2008) – highlighting that family forms the first step in influencing the formation of person identities (Stets and Serpe, 2013) and in shaping attitudes (Kalat, 2018) and the behaviour patterns of children. These values and attitudes are at first external to the children but they are gradually internalised and incorporated into their personalities (Kundu, 2015). The family is therefore, the only institution which is an agency for child rearing, socialisation and for introducing the child to the culture of the society, thereby shaping the basic character structure that forms the child's personality and is more educational than any other personal interaction (Kundu, 2015). It is in the family where an individual first learns about what groups to disapprove, which religious group to associate with, what to consider right or wrong, and what to regard as virtue or vice. It is therefore in the family where cultural capital originates through social capital.

The findings therefore affirm Pring's (2010) statement that virtues generally emanate from society at large, family, the school one attends and the neighbourhood which values those virtues and incorporate them into its own form of life. Leadership character formation can thus be traced to the early childhood experiences and these findings compare very favourably with literature on the formation of personal values that later in life form leadership character (Kuppuswamy, 1991). Through the hidden curriculum (Dewey, 1933), school

administration complemented on the family moral education of the learners. This too, affirms the assertion that schools as social institutions promote and perpetuate the dominant cultural capital (Cochrane, 2006).

Since values develop early in people's lives and are difficult to change in a short time (Hughes et al, 2009) and individuals' self-definitions are influenced by the social structures within which they grow (Stets and Serpe's, 2013), the findings suggest embodiment of the admired values. As humans choose to do what they perceive to be right and that which they value and meaningfully value only that which they have experienced (Hume, 2009), the HoDs experienced various actions in their early lives and shared what they admired and considered virtuous, therefore, they were capable of personalising and living the admired values. Therefore, through socialisation in families, schools and religious institutions, HoDs developed their cultural capital essential for the development of their human capital to lead.

Through actions the role models proved the importance of their values setting an example for the HoDs and since "our actions and decisions are influenced by what we value and believe, as well as by self-interest" (Sergiovanni, 1992:21), and that people become the kind of persons they were moulded to become (Freese, 1926), it is highly probable that the Twenty-Five (25) HoDs embodied the virtues they admired and experienced. Based on Hume's (2008) views, we can infer that HoDs' life experiences shaped their belief systems and informed their reasoning and actions in their future endeavours.

5.4 Role Accession and Understanding

Despite HoD roles in universities being a mammoth and laden with huge expectations (Branson *et al*, 2016), the findings align with the assertion that appointments into those roles are not commensurate with appropriate preparations (Bush 2016). Contrary to Hargreaves and Fullan's (2012) assertion

that social capital gives people access to other people's human capital, expands their networks of influence and opportunity and helps them to rely on others for advice and guidance, the lack of direct socialisation (Burke and Stets, 2009) deprived HoDs the essential social capital to foster their smooth accession into and easy comprehension of the expectation of their roles. This section therefore discusses the findings in the light of factors that might have jeopardised smooth accession and understanding of the roles.

5.4.1 Grappling with Administrative Functions

Apart from some HoDs who had prior leadership experience on which they relied to handle the roles, the novices were shocked to find unexpected heavy workload such as frequent meetings and drafting correspondences, intricate organisational systems, and unfamiliar people management issues. Against their expectation and contrary to Bush's (2016) assertion, their teaching load did not reduce with the additional administrative roles for all the HoDs. The novices who were the majority (Seventeen), grappled with HoD roles, confirming Bush's (2016) description of culture shock and a shift into what they needed serious learning (Branson et al, 2016). Furthermore, the lack of courage and confidence made the novices feel inadequate hence esteeming themselves low when presiding over their former lecturers affirming the assertion that administrators inept in leading people are more prone to experiencing work pressures and increasingly complex workload (Lokman et al, 2016). Since most of them had difficulties in leading people, building networks and managing relationships, areas in which they were expected to excel (Groysberg and Slind's, 2012), and did not know that building effective relationships was critical in their role as middle leaders (Bush, 2016), the findings strongly suggest the need for formal and guided prior preparation for the roles.

Given the high number of novices, with no prior leadership experience, the University may have lacked enough qualified manpower to handle the HoD roles, a situation that sounds like a replica of what happened on post independent

Zambia, in the early 1960s. The newly independent Zambia urgently needed to fill up administrative positions in the public sector (Mwanakatwe, 2013) but faced a big shortage of qualified Zambians for positions in administrative roles (Kelly, 1999). This was the reason the Lockwood Commission of 1963 was set up (Lockwood *et al*, 1963) to recommend the establishment of university education that would produce qualified manpower. The situation does not seem to have changed in the case study. These findings, therefore, affirm Kelly's (1999:105) foresight that "Risks will be taken, as elsewhere, in promoting young and inexperienced men and women to responsible positions" as evidenced by 68% (17 out of 25) HoDs who found the role challenging, demanding, and stressful due to lack of prior preparations for administrative functions.

5.4.2 Converting Cultural Capital into Human Capital

Cultural capital, inherited from the family, is fundamental to one's success (Gray *et al*, 2010) as it is believed to directly contribute to children's skill development and academic achievements (Mikus *et al*, 2020:209). Bowen *et al* (2014) add that cultural capital acts as a gateway to children's future academic, social, and economic success. The HoDs' cultural capital most likely fine-tuned them towards success in their future endeavours as such were the virtues they had admired in their childhood role models and confirmed that their childhood role models enthralled them to progress academically. Professionally too, the HoDs perceived their roles positively most probably aided by their childhood developed altruistic cultural capital.

As each person sees, organises and interprets things based on their background of individual differences (Littauer and Sweet, 2011), Twenty-One (21) HoDs positively perceived their roles as an avenue to serve their organisation, provide leadership and as a learning opportunity. Those who perceived the roles as a service considered themselves as contributing to the advancement of the university interests in line with providing community services (University Act 1999)

and strengthening ethical standards of performance and such pertain to cultural capital of altruism, providing services for the common good. In fact, Gold *et al*, (2003:135) assert that successful school leaders are driven by their deeply held school values that enable them to create a clear sense of institutional purpose and direction. Since humans choose to do what they perceive to be right and that which they value and meaningfully value only that which they have experienced (Hume, 2009), these views personify HoDs' embedded cultural capital. As values are so deep-seated in people's personality but manifested through attitudes, opinions, behaviours and the like (Munroe, 2014), the HoDs' expressed perceptions were therefore the manifestations of how they valued their roles.

5.4.2.1 Work Relationships and Social Capital

Branson *et al* (2016) considered relationship building as a key success factor in HoDs' liaison role between university authority and their departments. In fact, one important aspect of leadership effectiveness at departmental level is the degree to which the HoD is able to foster such collegiality (Bryman, 2007). They need to build a culture of mutual trust and respect based on consensual decision making and mutual professional support among staff (Bryman, 2007). HoDs are expected to support collective development of programme of offerings, teaching and research within departments, and the development of the service component of academic work within and beyond the university (Branson et al, 2016). But the findings revealed that only few were 'relating well with all', while others 'related well with seniors only', with some 'having issues with colleagues' and a few more 'disregarding subordinates' as equals.

The ability to relate well with all was attributed to the good social environment created through reciprocity for those who were internally groomed while others cited effective teamwork, family upbringing and prior work experience. Good social environment and reciprocity can be explained from the identity salience described as the probability that one will invoke a specific identity across situations but with

the likelihood of more salient identities having a greater chance of being evoked and expressed (Stets and Serpe, 2013). Since identity meanings are the internal representation of people's external positions in the social structure in the form of roles and group memberships, maintaining identities correspondingly facilitates maintaining the social structures within which identities are embedded. This means, people are more likely to be comfortable in social environments that approve of who they are and in which they feel psychologically accepted and respected. As such, they would continue to behave in the manner approved by the social structures that resonates with their self-perception. Baron and Grimshaw (2010) are supportive of this assertion that people behave favourably towards those they like and to whom they are emotionally connected. Human nature is such that we have more favourable perceptions of those we like most, leading to higher tendency to perceive them in high esteem if we relate well and the converse holds (Armstrong, 2009). These findings align with Cochrane's (2006) view that social capital (social identity) is high among people when they relate effectively well and Hargreaves and Fullan's (2012) argument that cultural capital is influenced greatly by the strengths of the social relationships and cohesions among the people in a particular society, meaning that the degree to which people develop their cultural capital hinges on the strength of the developed social capital. This implies that the HoDs projected favourable behaviours towards others and others reciprocated favourably hence the creation of a conducive work environment.

Attributing good relations to family upbringing and prior work experience confirms that values acquired early in life become key in people's future life endeavours (Hughes *et al*, 2009). The findings affirm the importance of cultural capital in fostering the development of other capitals (Cochrane, 2006). However, these values were cemented by prior work experiences that were also cited as a success factor signifying the ability of humans to develop other capitals from the initial cultural capital.

HoDs who had issues relating with colleagues lacked effective communication, confidence about themselves and the general inability to build network of allies. The changed social context might have caused this failure of cultural capital to yielding positive relationships. Hence the argument by Cochrane (2006) that both cultural and human capitals develop highly with enhanced social networks, actual or potential resources linked to membership of the group among others. Given the changed realities, the HoDs may not have realised the importance and use of social power in effective relationship building and influencing upwards as well as across the organisational hierarchy (Branson *et al*, 2016). They might have also failed to understand the diversity of people they were dealing with in the workplace (Littauer and Sweet, 2011) and may not have seen supporting colleagues as an important action but as an intrusion (Ramsden, 1998).

These findings are at variance with the probable personification of affiliation values admired by the majority of the respondents in Mother Figures. If indeed they had personified affiliation values, they would have found working with others motivating, valuing meeting new people, networking and working well in a team environment (Hughes *et al*, 2009). Understanding these findings may be situated in social interactions explained from the perceptive of role identity as a shared set of meanings that define individuals in particular roles in society. As explained by Stets and Serpe (2013), people's behaviours continuously change in the course of social action as social structures change. Consequently, the meanings and definitions that underlie social interaction also undergo continuous reformulation, and those applicable at one time may not be applicable at subsequent times. Even if the identity (desire for affiliation) may not have changed, the social structures and the work environment had changed, from protected home and school environment to unprotected work environment. Given that the social structures (the rules in homes and schools) that supported affiliation virtues had changed, the new realities (diversity of expectations, behaviours and rules) within which

they now operated may not have been supportive since value identities are influenced by the realities of the social structures within which they are embedded.

The more leaders learn about people, in new contexts and changed social structures, the easier it becomes for them to figure out the right things to do to have influence. Such awareness enables them to communicate in clear, consistent, and simple ways that everyone in the organisation can rally around (Achua and Lussier, 2010) but the findings indicate otherwise. The HoDs needed to learn that each person is substantially different from all others in terms of their personalities, needs, demographic factors and past experiences and/or because they are placed in different physical settings, time periods or social surroundings (Littauer and Sweet, 2011). This diversity needed to be recognised and viewed as a valuable asset but this was a problem as the findings indicate.

Those who worked well with seniors only acted as a matter of reciprocity because seniors were positive and informally mentoring them. This too, is situated in the identity theory perspective elaborated by Stets and Serpe (2013) arguing that a person's actions do not simply follow the dictates of the core self but people employ creativity and self-control as they take up roles to be in tandem with the norms in the social networks, commensurate with their social status and in line with role expectations. Therefore, HoDs' lower social status and what seniors expected from them might have compelled them to creatively devise copying strategies (Hogg, 2001). They may have been playing impressive management tactics of adhering to dominant norms and demands while under high surveillance to avoid negative repression (Armstrong and Mitchel, 2017), compelling them to suppress aspects of their identity that were not in tandem with the normative boundaries. Impression management involves intentional acts of mainly upward influence to enhance or protect the self-interest of individuals or groups (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2002). The findings therefore, affirm the suppressive effects of the dominant cultural capital on the development of identities opposed to it.

The treatment of subordinates by some HoDs as nonentities or less equals, who are expected to receive instructions without questioning, is indicative of the existence of 'permission seeking' leadership culture (Adeyemi, 2017). The expressed desire to treat their subordinates as 'babies' and 'punishing them' if they did not cooperate would induce fear and make it difficult for them to refuse carrying out even unethical instructions. Consequently, subordinates would act with extreme caution to show loyalty (Kuada, 2010). The resultant passiveness of workers under such repressiveness does not foster productivity for individuals nor organisations (Poncian and Mgaya, 2015) instead, employees become very reluctant to question wrong practices for fear of negative reprisals. In fact, treating subordinates as less equals makes leaders lose credibility among subordinates (Kouzes and Posner, 2012) neither does it reflect personification of altruistic values (Hughes et al, 2009) many admired in their mother figures. Given that the dominant cultural capital seems to favour respect for authority, HoDs did not expect subordinates to behave contrary to the norm.

Since leaders accomplish the right things by mobilising subordinates and aligning them towards shared aspirations, building effective relationship becomes of essence (Groysberg and Slind, 2012). Therefore, the way leaders treat subordinates gives a complete picture of the nature of their leadership for it is the led who know what they look for and admire in their leaders (Branson *et al*/2016). In essence, these findings contravene the value placed on altruistic and affiliation virtues the HoDs admired in their childhood role models synonymous with collegiality management practices highly valued among academic leaders (Bryman, 2007). On this premise, the respondents cannot be considered to have demonstrated effective leadership.

5.4.2.2 *Subduing Personal will to the Dominant Culture*

Just as each society has its own unique and dominant culture (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012), so do universities as echoed by Hughes *et al* (2009) that each organisation has its unique corporate culture. Since culture is induced and perpetrated by the top leadership through their values, practices and expectations placed on subordinates (Kouzes and Posner, 2012), it defines the accepted values and reactions from employees (Sergiovanni, 1992). On this premise, executing instructions from seniors against one's will can be understood from the effect of predominant cultural capital in the organisation. To avoid being perceived or labelled incompetent or insubordinate, HoDs with 'not yet', and 'sometimes' responses, might have employed canning ways to avoid questioning wrong practices for fear of negative reprisals (Poncian and Mgaya, 2015) from seniors. Unfortunately, such behaviour indicates subduing personal values while pacifying seniors and suggests the existence of a 'permission seeking' leadership culture (Adeyemi, 2017) and aligns with masking up and self-preservation behaviours (Bullingham and Vasconcelos, 2013). Bush (2016) attributes pacifying behaviours to the existence of tensions among middle leaders that arise from simultaneously managing expectations from above and below.

The definite 'Yes' position, with majority of the HoDs (16 out of 25), affirmed Adeyemi's (2017) allegation that African leadership culture induces fear in subordinates due to high conservativeness that makes it difficult for subordinates to refuse carrying out even unethical instructions from seniors. This fear of the ramification for disobeying authority even when one was right suggests the existence of a strong power-distance culture in which relationships are based on ascribed status and authority is associated with the position one holds (Wanasika, 2011). In such cultures, employees respect authority above anything else (Gulhati, 1990) and strictly adhere to rules and regulations (Coulter and Robbins, 2007) to avoid negative reprisals. Circumventing such ordinances by any one may have far-

reaching negative consequences and such may explain compliant and identifications reactions to seniors' instructions. HoDs' reactions were therefore reasoned compulsion (Freese, 1926) because, despite the instructions being against their will, they willingly complied. The findings therefore, illustrate the paradoxical dilemmas middle-leaders face (Branson *et al*, 2016) as they are caught between satisfying line management's needs and the professional need for cooperation and collegiality within their departments.

It is obvious therefore, that the cultural contexts in which HoDs operated had a bearing (Haydon, 2007) on their actions, affirming Hollis' (2002) argument that social norms and structures set the boundaries limiting peoples' freedom to express their consciousness. This position is supported by identity theory that emphasises the effect of social structures on the manifestation of the real self (Stets and Serpe, 2013). As such, their professed beliefs were expected to be in tandem with organisational value system (Drucker, 2011) invalidating their values as their source of influence as they succumbed to acting against their will and toll authority lines. The findings therefore, align with Cochrane's (2006) assertion that people do not exist in isolation but interact under a framework defined by the predominate cultures in society that influences the deployment of their human capital.

While appreciating that HoDs most likely acted under compulsion, they may not be considered to be effective since they failed to adhere to their values to guide their decisions and actions (Munroe, 2014). Hughes *et al*, (2009) resonate that effective leaders commit to doing what is right not just what is expedient. The world today needs leaders who stand up for what is right and be opposed to what is wrong and institutions should be led on the basis of good morals (Carson 1998) hence the call for leaders with moral courage to stand-up and be counted on their firm moral principles.

The definite 'no' position revealed not only HoDs' courage but also confidence in their beliefs to stand up for what was right. Despite the high likelihood of the existence of a 'permission seeking' leadership culture (Adeyemi, 2017), this position indicates the ability of some HoDs to avoid blind loyalty (Kuada, 2010) amidst eminent repression (Poncian and Mgaya, 2015). With courage and confidence, HoDs can be able to use their values to exert influence and attain just goals and avoid harmful actions (Haydon, 2007). Their courage would enable them to perform noble acts and dispense justice in the midst of danger (Freese, 1926) as well as strengthen their resolve (Arthur and Harrison, 2012) to make a positive impact (Ashkenas and Manaville, 2019) in society. Evidently, this courage was gained from family learned virtues and consolidated through leadership experience. This 'no' position therefore highlights the strength of early childhood acquired cultural capital.

5.4.3 Effectiveness in HoD Roles Need Direct Socialisation

The essence of social capital is to foster the smooth accession into and easy comprehension of the HoD roles. Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) posit that social capital gives people access to other people's human capital, expands their networks of influence and opportunity and helps them to rely on others for advice and guidance. The findings affirm Gadamer's (1979:107) assertion, "only through others do we gain knowledge of ourselves". Meaningful interactions with others make us suspend our prejudices and interaction with others is an avenue to confront our highly or deeply held prejudices. The views of others help in understanding the full context hence the need to be open to other people's viewpoints to confront our prejudices since "knowledgeability and expertise are not simply inside our individual heads but are intimately tied to various aspects of relationships we have with people ..." (Knight and Trowler, 2001:51). Given the willingness of predecessors and former HoDs to render help to HoDs on acquiring the requisite human capital, affirms the preceding assertion. However, the non-availability of leadership preparation initiatives confirmed by 'no formalised

preparations and reliance on 'prior experience' positions, indicating the absence of systematic preparation (Bush, 2016) and formalised leadership learning opportunities (Branson *et al*, 2016) in HEIs, affirms lack of direct and institutionalised socialisation (Burke and Stets, 2009). The findings violate Bass' (2005) advice against allowing unguided leadership development and revealed the non-existence of capability training programmes to equip HoDs with the required competencies in people management, motivational strategies and developing a community of learners (Bryman, 2007). The findings affirm the existence of unguided on-the-job learning (Brodie and Partington, 1992).

HoDs who lacked prior preparations to equip themselves with requisite knowledge and skills to handle administrative and people management functions confirmed the propensity of appointments into HEIs' administrative roles without leadership acumen considerations (Brodie and Partington, 1992). The lack of requisite competencies made the job very difficult initially for many HoDs, compelling them to learn through the unguided on-the-job learning that might have contributed to their leadership ineffectiveness (Day *et al*, 2011).

The unconventional learning methods (Branson *et al*, 2016) HoDs used were informal feedback from seniors, colleagues and students. The helpful handover and willingness of predecessors to be consulted, guided few luck ones. In the absence of formalised training, and to guard against renowned potential of undermining the ability to lead effectively associated with unguided on-the-job experience (Kotter, 1999), many HoDs wished they were inducted at the point of appointment on how to run a department and formally mentored by their predecessors. In fact, one HoD emphasised, "... **training is good but continuous interaction with someone who had done the job before is much better**", conforming desirability for professional socialisation, aligning with Hargreaves and Fullan's (2012) argument that cultural and human capital develop effectively when social capital is high. This view is also echoed by Evans (2017)

asserting that many leaders prepare themselves based on what they consider effective leadership manifested by others with whom they have interacted.

Reliance on prior leadership to learn roles socially aligns with the propensity among academics to learn leadership from colleagues through their own personal initiatives that unfortunately makes them remain ignorant about what their roles entail, hence rendering them ineffective in their leadership endeavours (Evan, 2017). Consequently, many HoDs craved for formal mentorship and capacity development avenues to enable them know how to treat and work with people and understand the university context easily. The acknowledged skill deficiency in people management confirms Day's *et al*, (2011) fears that unprofessionally prepared HoDs are highly likely to have deficiencies in developing, mobilising, aligning and leading people effectively.

Even those who were internally groomed through acting or holding lower administrative positions such as Assistant Dean or Project Officer or Coordinator still craved for up-skilling in people management, which further affirms the need for formal leadership development (Day *et al*, 2011). Some stressed the need for counselling skills and how to treat staff firmly but fairly. This acclaimed leadership deficiencies caused by lack of guided professional development initiatives affirms that leaders are neither born nor made but are grown (Armstrong, 2009) through well-designed development programmes.

Skills deficiency in leadership affirms the claim that dealing with people is the biggest problem managers inept in leadership skills face the most (Hill, 2005) and McShane's (2009) assertion that many managers are not good at people management. These findings thus align with Hill's (2005) assertion that the most critical and difficult step in developing leaders is to foster a culture conducive to learning how to lead people especially in HEIs where leadership development is a daunting task (Branson *et al*, 2016). Prior preparation for HoDs is very important particularly in Africa where ill-prepared and unassisted leaders are purportedly

failing to fully comprehend their roles due to lack of exposure and carefully planned preparation to enable them meet the challenges they inevitably face (ALF, 1988). The HoDs lacked both Leader Development (awareness of the 'Self') and Leadership Development (knowledge and skills relating to HoD role) (Earley, 2020).

5.4.4 Balancing between Academic and HoD Functions

University HoDs, despite being appointed based on their academic prowess rather than leadership acumen, are expected to not only pay critical attention to ensuring effective departmental leadership but also maintaining research presence (Bryman, 2008). They should make research a priority and provide resources to sustain a strong research effort. Overall, they are expected to foster quality-learning outcomes by effectively leading teaching, learning and research, which is the *raison d'être* (Middlewood and Burton 2001) of HEIs. Evidently, from the findings, research had least priority and this aligns with Kelly's (1999) description of the early stages of university education in Zambia as being characterised with heavy teaching commitments leaving little time for research development. This lack of prioritised research work might have had a negative impact on the quality of teaching considering that the HoDs' teaching loads were not reduced.

Those that managed to balance cited prioritising teaching they considered mandatory, whose load did not reduce (Bush, 2016), and delegated part of their administrative functions to create time to attend to research work. They did not abandon their administrative responsibilities for discipline-based obligations (Hill, 2005). While delegation of administrative functions enabled them to have everyone involved and work as a team, some resorted to reporting early and working outside normal working hours during the week and on weekends to attend to their research activities. This commitment of working outside normal working hours is one of the virtues of transformational leadership (Waheed *et al*, 2019) that imbues high level of commitment in leaders to accomplish set tasks.

The inability to delegate administrative functions made some HoDs cancel or miss lectures while others had research shoved off completely as they had little or no time for research despite the renowned impact of research on informed teaching (Bush, 2016). Since clerical daunting administrative functions (Hill, 2005) occupied much of their time, it is equally doubtful if HoDs had time to evaluate the quality of teaching and learning in their departments (Rabbins, 1997) as they were reduced to mere administrative clerks. These findings therefore, align with Ramsden's (1998) assertion that administrative work is one of the most critical challenges faced by novice HoDs. Surprisingly, the university that was expected to produce graduates with expertise in administration (Kelly, 1999) had its HoDs equally challenged in executing administrative functions.

The challenges in handling administrative functions HoDs faced indicate the continued existence of shortage of qualified administrators Zambia faced at independence (Carmody 2016 and Kelly, 1999) and suggest the continued need for qualified administrators endowed with management and leadership acumen (Mwanakatwe, 2013) in the university. Without exposure and upskilling in administration, management and leadership functions, HoDs may continue to lack the capacity to deliver on institutions' mandate (Gulhuti, 1990). While it is highly expected of HoD to provide effective departmental leadership and to maintain research presence (Bryman, 2007), and effectively superintend over the *raison d'être* of HEIs (Middlewood and Burton 2001), expecting them to ably balance among the roles is expecting too much in the absence of direct socialisation (Burke and Stets, 2009) into departmental roles.

5.5 Leadership Consolidation Strides

The crux of effective leadership is the manifestation of internalised professional identities that comprises values, beliefs, knowledge, understanding, experiences and wisdom that inform praxis (Taysum, 2012) referred to as the "... part of the self specifically oriented to roles along a personal career trajectory" (Robertson,

2017:776). Effective leadership, therefore, starts with the self-awareness of one's cultural capital that provides individuals with a platform to judge their self-worth and maintain their self-esteem (Carter 2003) and this research affirms the development of altruistic, affiliation, traditional and power virtues (Hughes et al, 2009) that defines cultural capital and create potential for effective leadership in HEIs (Haydon,2007). The internalised cultural capital allows leaders to act ethically and confidently in their roles (Armstrong and Mitchell, 2017) and the findings do not indicate anything to the contrary. Therefore, the developed Cultural Capital, in terms of internalised attitudes, preferences, formal knowledge, behaviours among others (Mikus et al (2020), believed to foster the development of other capitals such as social, human, and decisional capitals (Cochrane 2006), is the gateway to people's future academic, social, and economic success (Bowen et al, 2014). On this premise, HoDs were expected to ably apply their family acquired virtues such as altruistic and affiliation in forming effective work relationships but this was not the case.

5.5.1 Failure to Develop Human and Decisional Capitals

Despite the university being a public funded institution, with government thwarting attempts to compel students to pay their tuition fees in full on registration, there was evident lack of developed requisite human and decisional capitals as many lacked resource mobilisation skills and strategies for alternative funding. There is therefore need for universities to consider developing capacities to generate their own resources (Brodie and Partington, 1992) through strategic resource mobilisation and management (Bryman, 2007), even though success may require universities to function autonomously.

The inability to create healthy work relationships seemed to be a perennial problem novice leaders face (Hill, 2005). Being adept at building effective relationships is a key success factor for HoDs (Bush, 2016) and the entire university (Ashley, et al 2016), especially the ability of relating well with people from diverse backgrounds.

Evidently, the HoDs lacked appropriate human capital in people management and creation of supportive alliances in line with Branson's *et al*, (2016) suggestion for HoDs to work closely with a network of peers and seniors, persuading them into their agendas. The cited ineptness in people management may have thwarted HoDs' abilities to develop their staff as well as effectively lead teaching and learning (Day *et al*, 2011). These findings indicate the lack of a well-developed social capital among the HoDs that would have given them access to each other's human capital through expanded collaborative network of influence and opportunities to rely on others for advice and guidance (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012).

HoDs' mainly collaborated through official school meetings, rarely through Interdisciplinary Committees, while others preferred to focus on their departments as such the findings do not align with the call for HoDs to create collaboration and effective teamwork (Hill *et al*, 2016). This is also indicative of lack of a well-developed social capital in the institution as majority of the HoDs interacted mainly through the mandatory school meetings with only few who collaborated with their peers on personal basis.

Furthermore, the acknowledged scarcity of resources induced negative collaborative intentions evidenced by some HoDs who felt compelled to collaborate with others preferring to focus on their own departments. Perceptions about offering superior programmes and contributing more than others as well as craving for autonomy permeated such attitudes. Instead of tensions arising from simultaneously managing expectations from above and below (Bush, 2016), potential source from these findings is lack of social capital. Without the Dean's directives and the mandatory nature of school meetings, most HoDs would only concentrate on the affairs of their respective departments.

Given this apparent lack of social capital, HoDs may not utilise collaborative teamwork efforts that guard against individualistic tendencies in managing change

and realigning departmental activities with the organisational strategy regularly (Cohen, 2010). Instead, such attitudes have high potential to discourage change initiatives and thwart team-working spirit (Ramsden, 1998), render leaders ineffective in having realistic sense of their weaknesses and limitations, ability to appreciate and accept complementary strengths in others, and unless they can subjugate their immediate interests to some greater goal, they would probably thwart organisational change initiatives (Kotter, 1996). These findings indicate the likelihood of change initiatives being thwarted at middle management level (Llyod and Wolstencroft, 2019).

The individualistic tendencies exhibited by some HoDs inhibits leaders to see the underlying causes and consequences of their actions, prevent them from seeing beyond their departments by looking at the objectives to which they were contributing and how their activities complemented those of others as they collaboratively navigated the overall university goals. In fact, such dispositions do not only negate inclusivity and participative decision-making processes that cause middle-leaders fail to effectively manage change initiatives (Girma and Matebe, 2018) but also thwart prospects of creating learning communities of professionals' (Ashley et al, 2016).

Notably missing collaborative initiatives were joint publications and presenting papers at conferences, offering consultancies to the larger communities and executing some joint projects that should have enhanced professional socialisation (Bush, 2016). Collaboration limited to school and interdisciplinary meetings only could thwart rapid organisational learning that continuously create a future in which everyone can keep learning how to learn together (Senge, 2006). As Senge (2006) suggests, successful organisations in the 21st Century would be learning organisations that master the full commitment of developing their capacity to learn through collaborative efforts as opposed to operating in silos, which is evident from the findings. As such, Armstrong (2009) recommends system thinking as it

helps with problems solving, relationship building and fostering interdependencies, an area in which many HoD seemed to lack competencies. In system thinking, there is emphasis on transactions across boundaries hence system thinking would have enabled HoDs and their departments to work openly and collaboratively with others across the university and benefit from professional socialisation (Bush, 2016).

5.5.2 Lack of Exhibited Professional Capital

Given the thwarted development of the requisite human capital for effective leadership, it is doubtful to expect that HoDs developed fully their professional capital (leadership identity) in terms of professional leadership work, capacity and effectiveness (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012). This failure is evidenced by the HoDs' inability to easily overcome the challenges they faced in accession and fully comprehending their HoD roles. Since "individuals ... that are most effective do not experience fewer problems ... they just deal with them differently" (Marzano *et al*, 2005:76), the HoDs failed to develop their human capital in terms of the knowledge and skills they needed to execute their HoD roles (Cochrane, 2006). They also failed in developing their decisional capital as they were not able to make well-informed decisions (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012) due to their limited leadership experience and knowledge base. The failure was largely attributed to the lack of effective collaboration (social capital). There is therefore, an apparent inability among all the HoDs to exemplify effective social, human and decisional capitals, which are key elements of professional capital.

Given that effective departmental leaders provide strategic leadership for their departments through collective departmental vision, ensure common direction and help faculty and administrative staff to develop a sense of ownership of the leader's vision (Bryman, 2007), the lack of well-articulated strategic linkage between departmental activities and university overall vision is equally indicative of lack of developed professional capital. The importance of the expressed views

notwithstanding, precise linkage between their thoughts and the university overall intent was not explained and that void has the potential to create incongruence between top management planning and the practical operational reality at departmental level (Davis and Davies, 2003).

Majority of the HoDs expressed only awareness about the existence of the overall university strategic plan but were less knowledgeable of its content as evidenced by their inability to precisely explain the linkage between their departmental plans with the overall strategic objectives they intended to achieve. Their non-involvement in the development of the overall university strategic plan as well cast doubts on how they could have successfully aligned their departmental plans with the overall objectives. These findings, therefore, indicate lack of profound strategic thinking (Gerry *et al*, 2014).

Strategic thinking is about the longer term and focusing on the more important ends in any situation and the pathways that may lead to attainment of the intentions (Lynch, 2000). According to Adair (2010), thinking can be classified as strategic when it focuses on the important rather than the urgent, the longer term rather than the short term, and all relevant elements in the equation but such was not demonstrated among the HoDs. Strategic thinking needs to be put to action, into a strategic plan, which was evidently missing. Once the ends and pathways are clear, corporate planning can start. It does not make sense to launch into a strategic planning exercise before the strategic thoughts have come to some working conclusion but this could have happened only if the HoDs' visions were widely shared, which was not the case. Even then, the strategic thinking should be corporate, done collectively and collaboratively and translated into specific long and short-term objectives, detailed plans, action programmes and budgets that are necessary to make the vision a living reality that is owned by every level of the organisation (Armstrong and Baron, 2010). This process was equally missing from the findings.

The above caution notwithstanding, the quest for increased avenues for revenue generation is a good starting point as Bryman (2007) posits that universities are expected to be strategic in resource mobilisation and use. HoDs being part of the university management team need to function more strategically by refining their skills in the formulation of strategy and the management of finances (Brodie and Partington, 1992) and for certain this is an area in which they need profound grounding. They are expected to do more with less, work with limited budgets in departments, conduct performance monitoring and recruit students from the international markets (Deem, 2006) and this is what they seem to be saying as exemplified through their quest for enhanced visibility, increased enrolments and revenue generation avenues. However, these thoughts are at variance with the traditional university systems that were managed through collegial practices of equals and relied hundred percent on government funding. These HoDs seem to embrace the new thinking, an indication of a paradigm shift - creating the future through strategic thinking (Cohen 2010). What is only lacking is how they linked their departmental activities with the overall university strategic plan.

The consolation from the findings however was how extensively HoDs shared and expressed their individual thoughts about what they wanted done to position their departments strategically. However, such thoughts needed to be aligned with the overall university strategic intent. Evidently also lacking from the finding is Hills' (2005) notion that leading strategically at any level in an organisation involves intentional and rational thoughts that focus on the analysis of critical factors that have potential impact on the organisation's vision and converting such thoughts into a well-integrated and linked set of activities.

HoDs were therefore not able to demonstrate the primary responsibility as leaders who think through the organisation's mission, set prioritised goals and standards to measure progress (Drucker, 2001) on how they are achieving their goals within the university's strategic framework. By employing the tenets of strategic planning,

HoDs would have been able to set the direction of their units and focus efforts consistently and coherently towards goal attainment (Bryman, 2007) and these findings affirms Brodie and Partington's (1992) view that University Departments carry out their activities with little review of their appropriateness and even less attempt to define clearly and explicitly the aims and objectives of what they do, hence validating Deem's (2006) call for HoDs to appreciate the value of opportunities to refine their skills in the formulation of strategy and the strategic management of departmental functions.

5.6 Contribution to Knowledge

The theoretical and conceptual arguments in this chapter contribute towards interpretations of the research findings. It is evident that moral capital development of leaders such as altruism are very critical (Haydon, 2007) in the effectiveness of educational leadership. How such are developed is the major contribution from this research.

HoDs' development of the 'self' (values, beliefs, motivations), called the Leadership Heart (Sergiovanni 1992) and cultural capital (Cochrane, 2006) is formed through family socialisation supplemented by the hidden curriculum (Dewey, 1933) in schools and religious institutions. These findings have amplified our understanding of how the culturally specified gender roles (Kuppuswamy, 1991) are inculcated into children. Through family social learning, children develop the values that form their character and parents constitute the foundation of such development.

The social responsibilities availed to children during their childhood enables them to easily comprehend the predominant culture of the society in which they are raised and socialised, which in turn enhances their acceptability among peers and other stakeholders (Carter, 2003). The key players in moral development of children are mothers, teachers and religious leaders who model altruistic and affiliation virtues and fathers and other male leaders in the wider society who

model traditional and power values. Children's desire to excel in future life endeavours emanates from moral virtues they admire in their fathers. Father's life styles and standing in society adds impetus to children's self-esteem. Therefore, cultural capital that describes the potential of a society and sets the aptitude or inclination of people of a particular society to behave in certain ways (Cochrane, 2006), formed the basis of human and social capital development of the HoDs.

The schools took-up the role of mothers, affirming Gillies' *et al* (2010) assertion that children who are able to identify themselves with the school community and find a role within that supportive school setting are highly likely to generate approved cultural capital that becomes the springboard for their future development and success. It is evident, therefore, that schools being social institutions, do not only promote and reward children whose behaviours are prototypical of the prominent and desired cultural values (Hogg, 2001) but also perpetuate the dominant cultural capital (Cochrane, 2006) through the hidden curriculum, by promoting children with prototypical behaviours into school leadership positions. Therefore, acceptable leadership virtues, propagated by families and schools, are not only socially imbedded but are reflective of the dominant cultural capital of a particular society (Cochrane, 2006). It is therefore, highly likely that children from minority communities, whose family-acquired cultural capital is not in tandem with the prominent societal culture may not be rewarded with leadership responsibilities in schools hence such may create the feeling in children of being social misfits and rejected (Kalat, 2008). Without any mitigation against such feelings, there is a danger of creating permanent social impairments on children from minority cultures who are likely to become less popular if they don't exhibit the predominant cultural capital according to Bourdieu and Passeron (1979) (Gray *et al*, 2010). Such impairment could include children's low self-esteem susceptible to jeopardising successes in their future endeavours as they become less popular and consequently develop the feeling of not being socially accepted, liked and admired by others (Wayne, 2010). The role of the

hidden curriculum (Dewey, 1933) should therefore be, to reinforce into learners the values that would make them become value adding to and acceptable citizens in society.

The findings thus affirm that people develop their personal values at young age from parents, teachers and other early childhood role models and such values represent their basic convictions about what is right and what is wrong (Coulter and Robbins, 2007). Moral Virtues (Cultural Capital) therefore, emanate from the family, the schools one attends and the neighbourhood that values those virtues, and incorporate them into its own form of life (Pring, 2010) and deliberately enforces such into its members. This position counters the assertion that morals are learned entirely through peer learning (Piaget, 1932) and agrees with Kohlberg's (1976, 1986) assertion that children's moral thinking is advanced through discussions with others who reason at a higher level and parents form the crux of social structures for moral development.

The importance of the developed good morals (cultural Capital) notwithstanding, effectiveness in a leadership role requires additional social and human capital to enable people to access their morals appropriately with the dominant cultural capital in the organisation (Cochrane, 2006) through direct socialisation (Burke and Stets, 2009). However, despite the presence of willing mentors, HoDs could not utilise such social capital to learn and understand their roles, therefore affirming the suppressive effects of the dominant cultural capital on the development of identities opposed to it. With formalised direct socialisation (Burke and Stets, 2009) into cultural capital, leaders would easily gain knowledgeability required to lead (Knight and Trowler, 2001). To be effective therefore, leaders need to be formally inducted into the organisational culture, systems, policies and the wider expectations of their roles as evidenced by 68% (17 out of 25) of the HoDs that experienced difficulties in comprehending their roles.

The HoDs' craving for upskilling in their acknowledged ineptness in requisite leadership competencies calls for the application of Schön's reflective principles of learning (Kinsella 2009) that enable people benefit from existing social capital. The findings therefore, underscore the significance of reflective experiential learning, that is customised and learner-centred (Ashley *et al*, 2016). In professional practice therefore, reflectivity is key for leaders' success (Kinsella 2010) and direct socialisation catalyses leaders' self-awareness, reflectiveness and resilience (Earley, 2020). Effective leadership, therefore, requires incumbents to develop the ability to align their morals (Cultural Capital) appropriately with role, relational and social identities and this fact underscores the essence of direct socialisation into institutional cultural capital (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012).

Premised on the preceding key findings, leadership development of HoDs should be part of a planned effort (Ashley, 2016). Therefore, applying the concepts of Social Identity Theory of Leadership (Hogg, 2001) to the Holistic Leadership Model (Taysum, 2003), combined with Hargreaves and Fullan's (2012) professional capital, insights from the study can be utilised to enhance the prospects of HoDs' quest to consolidate their leadership effectiveness.

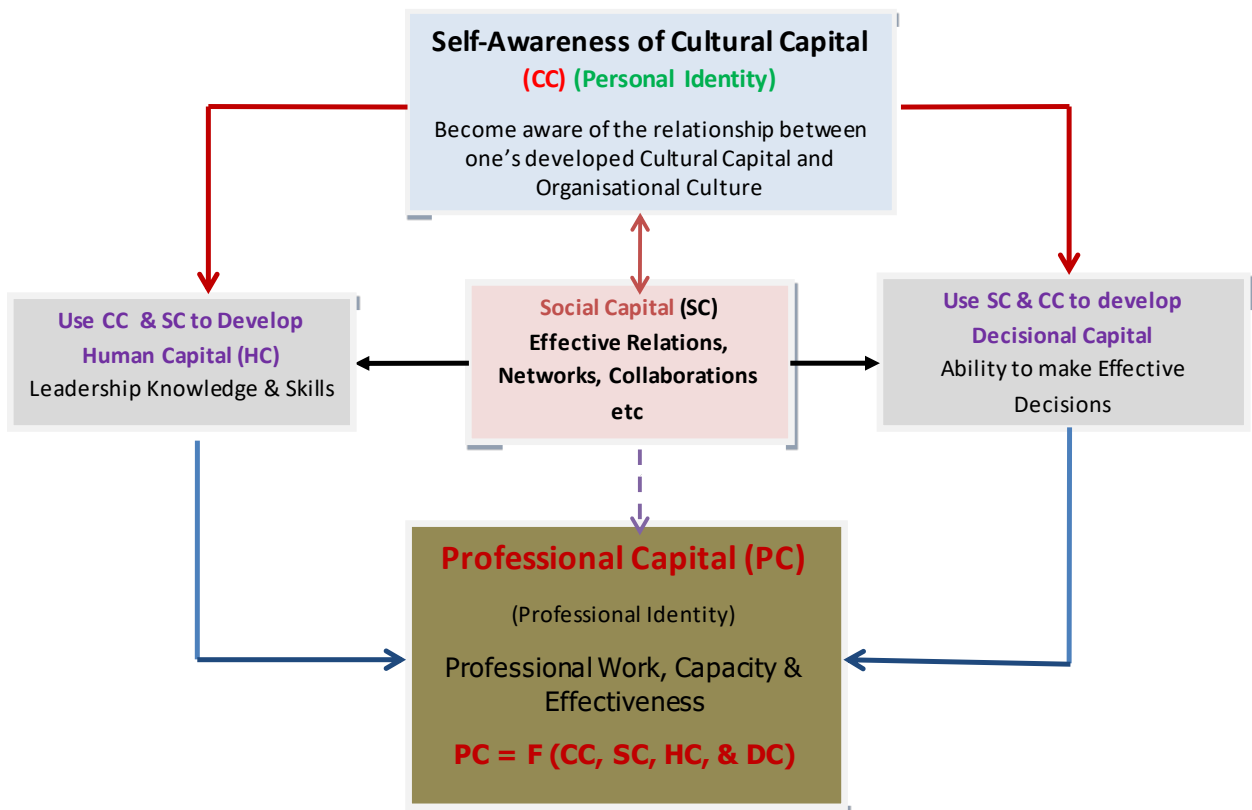
The Social Identity Theory of Leadership views leadership as a group process that arises from the social categorisation and depersonalisation processes associated with social identity (Hogg, 2001). In such social groups, leadership processes are strongly determined by prototypicality on which leadership influence is dependent. To be effective, leaders are expected to pay attention to how prototypical they are to remain in power, and how well they match task and situation specific leader schemas. Premised on the call to prioritise leader development (self-awareness of person identities and their ramifications) renowned not only for supplementing but also filtering and determining the effective development of ethical leadership (Earley, 2020), awareness of the Cultural Capital (Cochrane, 2006), situated in the first stage of Holistic Leadership Model – character formation, can be adopted. In

fact, personal values define the 'self' (Ganly, 2010) on which effective leadership is based and actions are determined (Rowitz, 1996).

Furthermore, effective leaders don't only know their core values but understand organisational values too, and treat everyone respectfully (Kreamer, 2011). They consciously attempt to become a living symbol of the corporate culture (Newstrom, 2008) by modelling the desired corporate behaviours. Success in this quest is premised on their genuine self-introspection. Such cultural capital allows leaders to act ethically and confidently in their roles (Armstrong and Mitchell, 2017), provides them with a platform to judge their self-worth and maintain their self-esteem (Carter 2003), and enhance their decisional capital through accumulated experience, practice and reflection (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012).

Given that cultural capital fosters the development of social capital and visa-versa (Cochrane, 2006), and social capital fosters the development of human and decisional capitals (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012), professional capital becomes the product of cultural, social, human and decisional capitals. However, without direct socialisation, social capital can be ineffective in fostering human and decisional capital. Furthermore, effective direct socialisation requires reflective experiential learning (Earley, 2020) as illustrated in figure 5.2 below.

Figure 5-2: Probable LDM for University HoDs



The above-suggested framework is premised on Bass’ (2005) assertion that every normal person has leadership potential to learn the major capacities and competencies in line with McClelland’s (1973) assertion that every human characteristic can be modified by training and experience. The model is an effective guide for universities to grow their leaders’ professional capital to avoid filling HoD positions with professors without requisite leadership competencies (Evans, 2017).

Leadership development should therefore, start with the leaders’ self-awareness of their developed cultural capital (Cochrane, 2006) and how such can be appropriately aligned with institutional culture through direct socialization (Burke

and Stets, 2009). Such socialisation should be enriched with Reflective Practice (Kinsella, 2009) to foster enhanced human and decisional capital development (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012). Therefore, Consolidated Leadership (Professional Capital -PC) becomes the function (F) of Cultural Capital (CC), Social Capital (SC), Human Capital (HC) and Decisional Capital (DC) [**PC = F (CC, SC, HC, & DC)**] catalysed through reflective experiential learning as shown in figure 5.2 above.

The following chapter concludes the thesis report by answering the research questions and making specific recommendations.

6. Chapter Six: Conclusion and Recommendations

In line with the quest for more studies and new ideas about the role of leadership in universities on how the personality of HoDs shapes how they interpret and play their roles and how headship shapes their personality (Ribbins, 1997), this chapter highlights the major findings on the development of professional capital among Zambian University HoDs. Concerning the limited empirical data on the nature of leadership in SSA (Bolden and Kirk, 2009), the research highlights key findings on HoDs' leadership capital development, accession into roles and consolidation of leadership roles. Limitations of the research are highlighted and recommendations on policy implications, professional practice and areas for further research are suggested.

6.1 Formation of Leadership Capital

Given that the 'heart of leadership' (Kouzes and Posner, 2012) hinges on the moral character of the leader (Munroe, 2014) - their cultural capital (Cochrane, 2006), the study explored HoDs' development of person identity (Burke and Stets, 2009) that forms leaders' interior world (Sergiovanni 1992) and their deep-seated disposition that becomes the foundation of their realities and forms the basis of their thoughts, judgements and actions (Pring 2010). This is what is referred to in this research as the leadership capital, the development of the 'Self' (values, beliefs, motivations and dispositions) that provides leaders with a platform to judge their self-worth and maintain their self-esteem (Carter 2003).

In line with the Identity Theory (Stets and Serpe, 2013), HoDs' development of their leadership capital formed through family socialisation supplemented by the hidden curriculum (Dewey, 1933) in primary and secondary school. Various roles of responsibility at primary and secondary schools availed to the HoDs created avenues to learn leadership morals of being responsible, accountable, obedient, caring, helping others and being courageous outside of their families. Such virtues

were nurtured through the hidden curriculum (Dewey 1933 and Sanktrook, 2006), peer socialisation and guidance from Teachers. Schools became a substitute for their homes and Teachers a substitute for their Mothers (Kundu, 2015).

Through early cultural social learning, HoDs developed the values that formed their character. The key players in their social development were mothers, teachers and religious leaders who modelled altruistic and affiliation virtues and fathers and other male leaders in the wider society who modelled traditional and power values. Moral Virtues (Cultural Capital) therefore, emanate from societies in which HoDs grew up that valued the virtues they admired and helped them inculcate such into their personalities (Pring, 2010). As Coulter and Robbin (2007) assert, leaders develop their personal values from the dominant societal culture that eventually come to represent their basic convictions about what is right and what is wrong in their lives (Cochrane, 2006).

Given that cultural capital develops early in people's lives (Hughes et al, 2009), that is personified when admired (Hume, 2009) and shapes practice and engage people in their moral reasoning (Sergiovanni, 1992) as they grow, HoDs' Leadership Capital formed mainly through childhood family socialisation into culturally specified gender roles supplemented by the hidden curriculum in primary and secondary schools.

6.2 Accession to and Understanding the Roles

The second research question focused on understanding how academics develop their requisite human and decisional capitals (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012) for effective departmental leadership. Despite having developed their cultural capital from early childhood, learning to lead effectively required HoDs to develop the ability to align their cultural capital appropriately with the dominant organisational culture, highlighting the significant impact of direct socialisation in the development of people's requisite human and decisional capitals to gain proficiency

in their roles. The presence of social capital (the wiliness of seniors and predecessors to help mentor incumbents) notwithstanding, HoDs needed direct socialisation (Burke and Stets, 2009) to the organizational culture, systems, policies, and the wider expectations of their roles through reflective practice (Kinsella, 2009). Evidently, the lack of guided leader and leadership development (Branson *et al*, 2016) caused many to fail to execute all their core functions equitably.

6.3 Evidence of Leadership Consolidation

In line with Day's *et al* (2011) assertion that HoDs appointed without prior grounding in leadership may not be exemplary in performing their leadership functions, the development of effective professional capital was not eminently evident. Given that effective departmental leaders provide strategic leadership for their departments through collective departmental visions, ensure common direction and help faculty and administrative staff to develop a sense of ownership of the leader's vision (Bryman, 2007), the lack of well-articulated strategic linkages between departmental activities and the university overall vision is indicative of the lack of developed professional capital.

This failure is evidenced by HoDs' inability to easily overcome the challenges they faced in accession and fully comprehending their HoD roles. Since "individuals ... that are most effective do not experience fewer problems, ... they just deal with them differently" (Marzano *et al*, 2005:76), the HoDs failed to develop their human capitals - the knowledge and skills they needed to execute their HoD roles (Cochrane, 2006) and decisional capital - their ability to make more informed decisions (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012). This was largely due to the lack of social capital (effective collaboration) that would have fostered the development of their human and decisional capitals.

HoDs were, therefore, not able to demonstrate the primary responsibility as leaders who think through the organisation's mission, set prioritised goals and standards to measure progress (Drucker, 2001) on how they are achieving their goals within the university's strategic framework. By employing the tenets of strategic planning, HoDs would have been able to set the direction of their units and focus efforts consistently and coherently towards goal attainment (Bryman, 2007). Therefore, these findings affirm Brodie and Partington's (1992) view that University Departments carry out their activities with little review of their appropriateness and even less attempt to define clearly and explicitly the aims and objectives of what they do, hence validating Deem's (2006) call for HoDs to appreciate the value of opportunities to refine their skills in the formulation of strategy and the strategic management of departmental functions. There is, therefore, an apparent inability among all the HoDs to exemplify effective social, human, and decisional capitals, that form the key elements of professional capital (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012).

It is evident therefore that, without direct socialisation, professional capital may not easily be developed and may lead to novices becoming susceptible, unable to effectively comprehend their roles and responsibilities. The lack of the necessary requisite capitals induced a lack of confidence, courage and positive self-esteem, and for others such created self-centredness and narrowness in their focus, failure to appreciate the importance of wider collaborations and understanding of the wider university strategic intent. The likelihood of executing activities with little review of their appropriateness was highly likely.

Consequently, they craved for reflective experiential learning (Earley, 2020) to develop requisite competencies to enable them execute their roles effectively. The findings, therefore, confirm that knowledgeability and expertise to lead effectively are closely tied to social relationships leaders develop with organisational members and profound understanding of the wider context (Knight and Trowler, 2001) in

which they are located and such learning is fostered by direct socialisation (Burke and Stets, 2009) into the dominant cultural capital.

However, these findings add to our understanding of how leadership moral virtues are developed and the inherent gaps in how academics develop their leadership Identity. The findings have added to our understanding of how academics should make necessary adjustments to fit into the leadership roles by developing their relational as well as social identities fostered by their cultural capital (Cochrane, 2006). The findings will, therefore, enable policymakers to devise guidelines to foster the professional development of academics into leaders that would effectively contribute towards offering quality education in universities.

6.4 Limitations.

Honest being one of the intellectual virtues (Pring, 2010) encouraged in academic research, this study has limitations that need to be acknowledged and should be considered in further research. The research used the interview as a single data collection method. Ideally, there was need for multiple data collection methods to triangulate the semi-structured interviews with documentary review and compare the findings with respondents' job descriptions. Possibly also a review of the strategic plan and other key policy documents would have provided alternative views. Limitation of the sampling to HoDs alone without counter perspectives from supervisors and subordinates needs to be acknowledged too. However, access to multiple data collection was not possible due to stringent ethical requirements by the approving authorities. Nevertheless, investigating HoDs, from different genders, disciplines and departments provided for different sources of evidence (Saunders et al, 2007).

Given the inductive approach to the research, the grounded theory would have facilitated the evolution of theory from the data that was gathered. In Grounded Theory, further coding and searching for some new insights would go on until such

a point when data would not be revealing any new concepts or categories (Saunders et al, 2007). Unfortunately, being geographically domiciled far away from the organisation the research was conducted, it became impossible to have a prolonged data collection period nor get permission for multiple access times to data collection. Despite these limitation, the findings have fundamental benefits for policymakers.

6.5 Recommendations for Professional Practice and Policy

Newby (2014) posits three major aims of educational research. One aim is exploring educational issues in details, the second is shaping policy and the third is improving practice. In response to the first aim, the discussion chapter has addressed the concerns about the lack of research providing insights on the HoD roles (Bryman 2007), in-depth research on leadership in most African countries (Eckert and Rweyongoza, 2010), and the generally limited information on the nature of leadership in SSA (Bolden and Kirk, 2009) creating knowledge gaps on understanding the nature of leadership development. This section attempts to address Newby's (2014) second and third purpose of educational research. To enable HoDs to contribute towards optimising the purpose of the university in the wider Zambian context, this section suggests policy issues to foster improved leadership development practices in HEIs.

Despite the challenges in the implementation of educational policies (Hargreaves, 2005) and having minimal successful changes in HEIs in SSA (Girma and Matebe, 2018), policies to guide the thinking and actions of top management and the entire organisation (Armstrong, 2009) on leader and leadership development are inevitable. With these findings affirming the lack of formal leadership preparation for academic leaders (Evans, 2017), HoDs require direct socialisation (Burke and Stets, 2009) to their roles to enable them develop the requisite human and decisional capitals (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012). Evidently, their culturally

acquired morals were inadequate in fostering their effective accession and consolidation of leadership effectiveness. Consequently, they craved for formalised development of their professional leadership capital that hinges on and can be fostered through direct socialisation and reflective appraisals (Burke and Stets, 2009). Without formal preparations for their roles, HoDs may not be exemplary in performing their core functions (Day *et al*, 2011).

Without formal leadership socialisation, HoDs would continue to face great difficulties in adapting to the demands of their roles. The university should, therefore, create a policy to formalise leadership development for HoDs in line with its vision, mission and values as well as the wider expectation of the country. In line with the Lockwood (1963) report's recommendation for Zambian Universities to produce skilled Administrators to manage the affairs of government in various sectors, universities MUST also develop programmes to produce skilled leaders for their administrative positions. They MUST not allow HoDs to develop their leadership capital haphazardly, as doing so is likely to leave the university with critical skill gaps and blind spots (Bass, 2005). HODs who are entrusted with steering the core functions of the University – leading teaching, learning and research (Crow and Møller, 2017), need to be effective administrators who are well imbued with effective management and leadership skills.

6.6 Recommendations for Further Research Areas

Obvious limitations in the process of the study can also be redressed by further research. Such would include research on the linkage between parenting and moral development to ascertain the actual behaviours and environments conducive for and effective in morale development for children at the family level. Furthermore, some responses in the research required follow-up investigations that would have been redressed through grounded theory research approach. The research theoretically discussed the impact of personal values on leadership but empirical research in such an area is required to validate the linkage.

In as much as the hidden curriculum perpetuates the existence of the predominant cultural capital, there is need to establish the linkage between school and societal culture. There is need to establish how children from minority social communities embrace the predominant cultural capital schools propagate, the degree of success in such endeavours, and their chances of getting into school leadership positions perceived as a reward for exhibiting predominant cultural capital.

Investigation into the leadership of HoDs against the quality of teaching and learning in their departments can shed more light on the specific competencies required for incumbents. Such research would establish the impact of the leadership of HoDs on learning outcomes and could be carried out by getting views from support staff, fellow faculty members who are not administrators and from the Dean of schools to where HoDs report.

The third area for research would be an investigation on the readiness of universities in growing leaders by assessing their existing systems of governance, prevailing cultures, and structures in terms of their suitability for growing leaders.

Research on the actual work of HoDs reviewed from their supervisors' and subordinates' perspectives would also create insights, especially when validated by triangulation with documentary review of HoDs' job descriptions and appointment letters. Such would clarify the degree of inclination of the HoD roles towards administration, management, and leadership.

Managing tensions is a major preoccupation for HoDs in their day-to-day work but such has not been sufficiently addressed in this research, both in literature and findings. Research on the causes of such tensions and probable mitigations would enrich the understanding of the environment in HoDs' work.

Despite respondents being from different disciplines and departments, their leadership capital development was affected by similar factors. In fact, almost half

of the respondents who had prior leadership experience did not have advantages over novices in professional leadership capital development. However, further comparative research based on gender differences might provide other dimensions on how male HoDs develop their leadership capital compared to their female counterparts. An ethnography research design to investigate women and men HoDs to understand how they make choices, develop their leadership capital, the meanings they give to their experiences, their feelings about their leadership practices, and how such affect their leadership development is an area for possible future research.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Various Disciplines in which HoDs were qualified

25 First Degree Holders Across 11 Disciplines	25 Master's Degree Holders Across 14 Disciplines	18 Ph.D. Holders in 17 Disciplines	2 Postgraduate Certificates in 2 Disciplines
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Civil Engineering 2. Nursing 3. Botany 4. Veterinary Medicine 5. BSc (Hon) 6. Public Health 7. BSc Geology 8. Chemistry 9. Zoology 10. Mathematics 11. Education 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Water Resource Engineering 2. Mining Equipment Engineering 3. Education 4. Nursing 5. MBA 6. MSc Geology 7. Medical Microbiology 8. Applied Ethics 9. Inorganic Chemistry 10. Numerical Analysis & Computing 11. Arts 12. Nursing 13. Veterinary Public Office 14. Human Resource Management 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Civil Engineering 2. Geographical and Earth Science 3. Mining Equipment Engineering 4. Agriculture Economics 5. Food Science 6. Animal Reproduction 7. Geology 8. Chemistry 9. Applied Mathematics 10. History 11. Medical Education 12. Veterinary Epidemiology & Public Health 13. Linguistics 14. Psychology 15. Management 16. Diagnostic Veterinary Medicine 17. Human Resource Management 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Postgraduate in Actuarial Science- Leicester University 5. Human Resource Management

Appendix 2: Background Information Form

May you kindly complete filing in the proforma below

1. Length of service in an HoD Position (Tick What is appropriate)

Below 1yr	Between 1 & 3yrs	Between 3 & 5yrs	Between 5 and 7yrs	Above 7yrs

2. Qualifications attained (Tick what is appropriate)

	First Degree	Master's Degree	Professional Doctorate	PhD	Other
Tick					
State the Field	See Excel Worksheet	See Excel Worksheet	See Excel Worksheet	See Excel Worksheet	See Excel Worksheet

3. Previous employment History

	Government	Private Sector	NGO	Faith Based Org	Other
Managerial Level					
Non-Managerial level					

Appendix 3: Consent Form

School of Education
University of Leicester
15 University Road
Leicester. LE1 7RH.

Informed Consent Form

**This form must be used if you wish to participate in this
Education research.**

Dear potential Research Participant,

As part of a research investigation, I would like to interview you in the research on “how University Heads of Departments come to consolidate their Leadership roles” for about one hour.

Any views expressed would be given in confidence, and any quotes used would be anonymised. Data will be stored securely on a password-protected computer, and backed up in accordance with the Data Protection Acts 1998 and 2003.

It is important to note that you can withdraw from the research at any time.

If you are willing to take part in this research, would you please sign below. If you would like to ask any questions concerning this process, please feel free to email me on cm185@le.ac.uk.

Signature:

Date:

Print name:

Appendix 4: Interview Schedule

My name is Chaltone Munene, working for ESAMI based in Arusha, Tanzania. I am conducting a Semi-structured qualitative interview schedule exploring on 'how Head of Departments come to consolidate their leadership roles in the context of Zambian Universities'. Any views expressed would be given in confidence, and any quotes used would be anonymised. Data collected will be stored securely on a password-protected computer, and backed up in accordance with the UK Data Protection Acts of 1998 and 2003. The Research is being conducted in partial fulfilment of acquiring a PhD Degree from The Leicester University in the United Kingdom.

QUESTIONS

1. What do you enjoy about being a HoD? (Warm-up)
2. Did you have any early leadership experience as a young person?
Prompt: eldest child responsible for siblings; Captain of a school team; School responsibilities?
Probe: can you give me a concrete example of that please?
3. Who have been your role models as a young person that shaped your early leadership experiences?
Prompt: Mother, Father, Religious leader etc!
Probe: Can you give me a concrete example of that please?
4. What was special about your role models that enabled you shape your leadership?
Prompt: Their values, actions, behaviours etc
Probe: Can you please explain what you really admired and why?
Probe: How did what you admired about your role models help shape your leadership?
5. How would you describe your initial experience as a HoD?

Prompt: Very stressful, demanding, confusing etc

Probe: Would you explain to me some memorable experience(s) please?

6. Were your prior expectations of the role of a HoD in line with what you found when you first started executing your HoD duties?

Prompt: Experienced surprises, felt inadequately prepared, role conflicts, challenges to get instructions accepted etc

Probe: Can you please give me a specific example?

7. How do you manage balancing among teaching, researching and providing leadership to your staff?

Prompt: Use delegation, we work as a team etc

Probe: Can you give me a concrete experience of that please?

8. How do you describe your working relationship with colleagues, seniors and subordinates?

Prompt: Initially challenging, difficult to work with colleagues, superiors are supportive etc

Probe: Can you give me a concrete experience of that please?

9. What preparations have you received in your HoD roles?

Prompt: Exposed to various training on leadership and Management, professional socialization, coaching and mentoring from supervisors etc

Probe: Can you give me a concrete example?

Probe: Would you have loved to be prepared differently?

10. Have you ever carried out instructions from your seniors that were against your will?

Prompt: positioned between strategic goals and personal values that might clash

Probe: Can you give me concrete examples of that please.

11. What problems do you encounter most often as a HoD?

Prompt: Being overwhelmed with work, competing demands from colleagues and supervisors, building teamwork, effective relationships?

Probe: Give me a specific example

- 12.** How do you work with other departments in delivering the overall University goals while navigating your department's interest?

Prompt: work in joint committees, we have regular interdepartmental meetings etc

Probe: can you give me a concrete example of that prompt?

- 13.** How have you come to understand the wider expectation of your roles in your positions as a HoD?

Prompt: Through feedback from superiors, colleagues etc

Probe: Can you give me a concrete example?

- 14.** How do you think of positioning your departments towards achieving the overall organisational intent?

Prompt: Developing a strategic plan in line with the overall strategic plan

Probe: Give a concrete example of the measures you are taking

- 15.** How would you assess yourself as a HoD?

Prompt: Require more time to learn the roles, Average, Doing well etc.

Probe: Give an example to justify your own assessment

Appendix 5: Research Participants' Information Sheet

This form must be used if you wish to participate in this Education research.

1. Who is conducting the Research?

The principal researcher is Chaltone Munene, a 48-year-old male Zambian, working for The Eastern and Southern African Management Institute (ESAMI) and based at ESAMI Headquarters in Arusha, Tanzania. The researcher is a PhD student at the University of Leicester, UK.

2. What is the research about?

This research aims at investigating the formation of the leadership character of the University Heads of Departments (HoDs), their accession to the role of HoD, consolidation of their role as HoDs and the necessary experiences to profoundly consolidate their leadership roles. Specifically, the research aims to establish;

- a. How HoDs form their leadership character and how they were inspired into taking up leadership positions,
- b. Accession to the role of Head of Department and how HoDs come to understand their leadership roles,
- c. Factors and practices that exemplify HoDs' consolidation of their leadership roles.

3. Why is the research being conducted?

The research focuses on understanding the formation of leadership character, necessary alignments and adjustments for HoDs as middle-leaders on ascendance into their positions, and the challenges they need to overcome in order to consolidate their roles. The research is in pursuit of learning the leadership praxis in terms of how intentions are formed, choices made or arrived at and the actions eventually taken (Taysum, 2012). As Ribbins (1997) argues, human development

practitioners need new ideas about the role of educational leadership in universities especially in establishing the leadership character and how it is formed and shaped. The above arguments are in line with Aristotle's assertion that "... for it is by examination of the past that we divine and judge the future" (Freese, 1926:105). The research is therefore an avenue to understand HoD's accession to the role, what the role entails and how they might contribute to optimising the purpose of the Higher Educational Institutions (HEIs) in relationship with societal institutions, the public and governance structures, and their consolidation in the role. The knowledge would help inform possible recommendations for identifying future HoDs' succession planning, and how to support HoDs access and consolidate their roles.

4. Why have you been invited to take part?

You have been purposively selected as a HoD in your institution to voluntarily participate and share your leadership lived journey through this research in line with the research questions indicated above on question number two.

5. What would we like you to do?

The researcher would like to have a conversation with you for about an hour at your convenient time and place. The conversation will focus on the three research questions stated above. You will be given the interview transcript for you to review and you have the right to withdraw from the interview at any time.

6. How will information be collected and captured?

The main method of data collection is through a semi-structured interview. The researcher will do all the paper work including bringing to the interview lots of paper and taking notes during the interview.

7. What will happen to the information that will be collected?

Any views expressed during the interview would be given in confidence, and any quotes used would be anonymised. Data will be stored securely on a password-

protected computer, and backed up in accordance with the UK Data Protection Acts 1998 and 2003.

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Appendix 6: Ethics Approval

University Ethics Sub-Committee for Criminology and School of Education

17/04/2018

Ethics Reference: 13276-cm185-ss: education, school of

TO:

Name of Researcher Applicant: Chaltone Munene

Department: Education

Research Project Title: An Investigation into how Heads of Departments come to consolidate their leadership roles in the context of Zambian Universities

Dear Chaltone Munene,

RE: Ethics review of Research Study application

The University Ethics Sub-Committee for Criminology and School of Education has reviewed and discussed the above application.

1. Ethical opinion

The Sub-Committee grants ethical approval to the above research project on the basis described in the application form and supporting documentation, subject to the conditions specified below.

2. Summary of ethics review discussion

The Committee noted the following issues:
We have now approved this application. Best wishes.

3. General conditions of the ethical approval

The ethics approval is subject to the following general conditions being met prior to the start of the project:

As the Principal Investigator, you are expected to deliver the research project in accordance with the University's policies and procedures, which includes the University's Research Code of Conduct and the University's Research Ethics Policy.

If relevant, management permission or approval (gate keeper role) must be obtained from host organisation prior to the start of the study at the site concerned.

4. Reporting requirements after ethical approval

You are expected to notify the Sub-Committee about:

- Significant amendments to the project
- Serious breaches of the protocol
- Annual progress reports
- Notifying the end of the study

5. Use of application information

Details from your ethics application will be stored on the University Ethics Online System. With your permission, the Sub-Committee may wish to use parts of the application in an anonymised format for training or sharing best practice. Please let me know if you do not want the application details to be used in this manner.

Best wishes for the success of this research project.

Yours sincerely,

Matthew Tonkin
Chair

Appendix 7: Respondents' pseudonyms

Respondent	Pseudonym	Respondent	Pseudonym	Respondent	Pseudonym
Z1	Tembo	Z10	Mwelumuka	Z19	Mweemba
Z2	John	Z11	Kyaliweme	Z20	Mbofwana
Z3	Harry	Z12	Mweshi	Z21	Chipego
Z4	Mulenga	Z13	Lusekelo	Z22	Mukwemba
Z5	Mwansa	Z14	Tukiya	Z23	Mononoki
Z6	Oliya	Z15	Bupe	Z24	Lubeka
Z7	Chabota	Z16	Shadrack	Z25	Mangimela
Z8	Joshua	Z17	Caiaphas		
Z9	Bweupe	Z18	Mwala		

Appendix 8: Authorisation Letter



THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA OFFICE OF THE REGISTRAR

Great East Road | P.O. Box 32379 | Lusaka 10101 | Tel: +260-211-251 593
Fax: +260-1-253 952 | Email: registrar@unza.zm | Website: www.unza.zm

6th April 2018

Mr Chaltone Munene
C/o Eastern and Southern Africa Management Institute (ESAMI)
P.O Box 3030
Arusha, TANZANIA

Mobile: 091 039370
Emcm185@le.ac.uk

Dear Mr Munene

**RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A PHD RESEARCH THROUGH INTERVIEWS
AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA**

I write in response to your letter dated 3rd April 2018 on the above subject matter.

This serves to inform you that permission has been granted to conduct a semi-structured interview research on 'How Zambian University Heads of Departments come to Consolidate their Leadership Roles' at the University of Zambia.

Please be guided accordingly.

Yours faithfully
THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA


Sitali Wamundila (Mr.)
REGISTRAR

cc: Vice-Chancellor
Deputy Vice-Chancellor
Director, Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies

Appendix 9: Sample Question 3 & 4 First Analysis:

HoDs' Role models that shaped their early leadership experiences and what they admired about the Role Models.

Rsp dt	Mother	Father	Extended Family	Teacher/Lecturer	Religious Leaders	Societal Leaders
Z1	My mother was the family anchorage. She was a woman of the people – always consulted.	My father was the eldest in his family. He never allowed begging-Begging was an insult. He always left enough for us to live on. After work, you are supposed to be at home and not going out searching for anything. We stayed as a family warmly. My father was the only one who married outside our tribe. He taught himself how to write.				
Z2						Dr. Kaunda was the first President

						of Zambia. I never met him, only head about him. I liked the confidence people had in him – the night without the president... how people rallied behind him. I liked how he pronounced values of humanism and how he lived and how he ruled.
Z3				I liked Mr. Malisen Paul at secondary school, lecturer for civics. He was smart and systematic way of doing things. I liked how he was organising his work. I liked a Mr Muleya also. Admired his power he was welding. I believe in objectivity.		

				Generally I like the American system. I learnt under white control – they are articulate in doing things. I like honest.		
Z4		My father was a role model. He taught me many skills. He taught me that the only way for success was education. He said it was an equalizer for both humble and well to do people. He stood out in the community and church. He was a deacon and elder in the church. He lived an exemplary life. Had good character, uprightness & honest. Had good values & his behaviour were morally upright. He was quite sober. His decisions were morally sound.				

Z5	<p>Mother - was a leader in church and women group. In academic area; senior in the nursing fraternity, a biomedical scientist. I liked the way she taught – the first professor in Nursing. She was dedicated to duty. Hardworking; she believed she could do anything. She believed in girl education. I liked her commitment to duty – her level of commitment to meeting students’ needs.</p>					
Z6	<p>Not really but maybe my mother - She got pregnant with me in 11th grade and managed pull through, educated me & many of her siblings. She</p>					

	became the sole provider in the family.					
Z7		I like my dad. My father was an independent worker who knew what he- inner resource.				Nelson Mandela.. He fought for freedom without destroying anything. He offered himself as a sacrifice – this is leadership, to serve others like Christ. Ben Carson is also my model. He thought he was a nobody.
Z8		My father was very dedicated and a committed family and dedicated church person. He was true to his word and had the zeal for work and was willing to help people. He was committed to work & zeal. His will to help people. He		Schoolteachers - I come from a poor family in the rural area. So I looked up to them. They nurtured me. During holidays I would stay with them. Progressive-In the rural areas they were a limelight. They had zeal to mentor others. They open to help. When	Missionaries of Africa - The priests and local parish. Outstanding was Antonn Kessel – a parish priest. He is still around. They were committed to work and	

		never seemed to way down.		without fees, they would help.	willingness to help others for no pay.	
Z9	None. Separated from Mom when dad died.	None	None	None	None	None
Z10	Dad died when I was in grade 6. He died when we were all relatively young and mum took up the leadership of the family				The catholic priests. I just wanted to follow their footsteps.	
Z11	My mother would fend for others beyond the nuclear family. She was always there for us – working hard always, put a smile on her face. She always wanted to assist. I learnt from her inclusiveness no matter what a person was. Even up to now, she knows how people and how to get well	My parents were my role models				When we had TV, I admired journalists, both on TV & radio

	with different people.					
Z12	My mother was my role model. She took good care of the 8 of us – preparing us going to school. She was humble. I admired her humility. She never segregated between us her children and other dependents in the house. When I got married, I applied my mother’s character. I treated all my dependants equally. I did not show partiality. Mother’s leadership style influenced me.					
Z13	My mother was a teacher. I can’t think of anybody else who was better than her. I Admired her integrity in dealing with issues.					

	<p>“Sometimes teachers would do funny things when her daughter is in her class. Some teachers would favour their children but she did not.”</p> <p>She made me admire teaching. I have always been above board in dealing with staff and students.</p>					
Z14			<p>Grandfather was my model. He taught me how a man should behave. Inspirational teacher – self-discipline and control & patience and how to approach others. Had self-confidence & problem solving hard working & helping others. He was loving & caring about others.</p>		<p>I also learnt from religious leaders- Hindu religion. I also admired religious leaders’ values such as loving and caring about others – positive thoughts such as yoga meditation</p>	

Z15	<p>A lot of what I do I trace it back and owe it to my mother. She was the key player in my school. She was a teacher. She would coach us in maths and science. She always told me to focus on education. She taught me to focus on education. I was a stepchild in that family. I was in grade 8 when she told me that education would make me independent. I stopped asking for school fees when I was in 2nd year at UNZA. Mum gave me all her allowances including her transport. I told her you have done a lot – she had other kids & responsibilities. I learnt to think of</p>					
-----	---	--	--	--	--	--

	<p>others first from my mother. I also learnt the aspect of focus. If you don't have focus/vision, you are done.</p> <p>Leadership implies you need to manage resources and priorities. My mother would always ask me to bring a budget. She would veto everything. She never allowed luxury. She taught me how to prioritise & work with what we have. Then it looked a simple thing but has helped a lot.</p>					
Z16				<p>My secondary school mathematics teacher inspired me a lot. He made me choose to study engineering. His understanding of maths was</p>		

				inspirational. He encouraged me to go far and I hoped to live up to that. He had a good family.		
Z17	Mum was opposite from Dad. To make things work you need to push people like my mother would do	I lent patience from my father. He taught me a lot of things. My father taught me patience that is helpful when leading people. Understand people as individuals.		At primary school one teacher had keen interest in me. At secondary school, we had expatriate teachers who inspired me. At the university there was role modelling – SDA. I do a lot of music that I picket from fellow students. I SDA I learnt what really patience is. So, I have learnt to meet and take people as they are.		
Z18			My uncle was a council secretary and used to come to school and give talks. He was particular with time. One day my brother and I were			

			late for school and found the gate closed when he was giving a talk. That incident taught me that in leadership you don't have to segregate. Leaders should be principled while applying fairness.			
Z19		He was a church leader – served in many positions. He never missed an appointment. I never saw him abscond from work. He never stayed at home when he was expected to be at work. I picked this as a value. He at church, he never went late nor missed. He attached value to time.				
Z20	None	None	None	None	None	In this position I see and learn from others

Z21	It is difficult to say. We grew up working hard – instilled in us by parents.	It is difficult to say. We grew up working hard – instilled in us by parents.				
Z22	My mother also inspired me. She is a very strong person. She used to encourage me that whatever challenges I face I can pull through. My mother was very strong even in the midst of challenges. She managed to provide us all her children. She ensured we had an education. She also ensured we were a united family and had an identity. I attribute who I am to my mother. She made me believe that everyone should have an equal opportunity.					I admired one foreign community person who commanded a lot of respect from Zambians who were living in Swaziland. His life seemed organised. I admired his educational attainment. Had a good family. I admired how his children were organised and respectful and assertive. He used to run a Gym. He was physically fit. He was in control and managed to bring order in the

						community not through command but through his character.
Z23	Admired the way parents led our home and providing guidance to us the children. They knew our strengths and weaknesses, and they would take advantage of that and help us accordingly. They would call us separately and rebuke us. Though rarely publicly to set an example each one of us. They appreciated us and rewarded us. They had good morals and were respected in the community. They became a reference in my life. They made sure we learned good	My dad was so was my mum. They were protective but would guide and give us room to exercise what we knew. I always trace back to what dad was telling me. Even when I am managing my family, I refer back to dad.				

	behaviours from home, before we would learn from others outside home.					
Z24		My father was. He was focused and persistent. He was never discouraged by anything. He was also innovative, generated new ideas. These attributes made me progress – because of his values. I became the youngest general in the Army. The values have made me be a mentor to students and colleagues.				
Z25	Mother. She was caring for all us.					
Total	13	10	2	4	3	4

Appendix 10: Question Q3 and Q4 Second Analysis Using Proforma

2. Theme and title for research question 3 & 4: HoDs' Role models that shaped their early leadership experiences and what they admired about the Role Models

2.1 Summary: There were six sets of role models that emerged from the 25 respondents. There were some respondents who indicated having had more than one role model in their childhood. One respondent having had no role model while another said they learn from colleagues but had no role model. From the remaining twenty-three (23), mothers topped the list with 13 followed by fathers that got 10, Extended family members got 2, religious leaders got 3, while teachers/lecturers and societal leaders were each cited by 4 respondents.

2.2 Representative quotes of 17 participants who mentioned mothers as their role models – Their mothers were family anchorage, hardworking, were encouraging them to prioritise education, family providers, inclusive and not segregated against others, were humble with high integrity, faced challenges with courage and were very understanding and caring.

Quote Participant (Z1): Considered the mother as the family anchorage describing her as a woman of the people as many people consulted her on many things.

Z6 said 'She is a strong woman. She managed to educate my siblings and I. She was the sole provider in the family'. Z11 said "My mother would fend for us all including people beyond the nuclear family. She was there for us, hardworking and always put a smile on her face. She always wanted to assist. I learnt from her inclusiveness no matter what a person was". Z5 considered the mother, as a leader in church and women group. 'My mother was hardworking. She believed in girl education.' Z6 said, 'She is a strong woman. She managed to educate my siblings and I. She was the sole provider in the family'. Z10 said, 'After dad's death My mother took up the leadership of the family'. Z11 also said 'My mother would fend for us all including people beyond the nuclear family. She was there for us, hardworking and always put a smile on her face. She always wanted to assist. I learnt from her inclusiveness no matter what a person was.' Z12 said 'She took good care of the twelve of us – preparing us throughout our schooling. She was humble. I admired her humility. She never segregated between us her biological children and other dependents.' Z13 said 'She was a teacher. I can't think of anybody who was better than her. Admired Her integrity in dealing with issues. "Sometimes teachers would do funny things when her daughter is in her class. Some teachers would favour their children but she did not'. Z15 said 'She always told me to focus on education. She would emphasise that education will make me independent. I learnt to think of others first from my mother. I also learnt the aspect of focus. If you don't have focus/vision, you are done. Leadership requires prioritizing the use of resources. My mother would always ask me to bring a budget before she would give me any money. She would veto everything. Prioritizing has helped me a lot in my life'. Z22 said 'She is a very strong woman. She used to encourage me that whatever challenges I face I can pull through. My mother was very strong even in the midst of challenges. She managed to provide us all her children. She ensured we had an education. She also ensured we were a united family and had an identity ... She made me believe that everyone should have an equal opportunity'. Z23 cited both mother and father saying 'I Admired the way parents led our home and providing guidance to us the children.

2. Theme and title for research question 3 & 4: HoDs' Role models that shaped their early leadership experiences and what they admired about the Role Models

They knew our strengths and weaknesses, and they would take advantage of that and help us accordingly.'

2.3 Representative quotes of 10 representatives who cited their fathers as their role models. What they liked about their fathers included the following; family leadership, exemplary living, good character such as honesty, moral uprightness, sense of independence, dedication and commitment to work, patience, keeping promises, being focused and persistent.

Z1 said, 'He never allowed begging - considered such as an insult. He instructed us to always return home from school and never allowed wondering about doing unconstructive things.' Z2 said 'He taught me that the only way for success was education- He said education was an equalizer for both the humble and the well to do people. He stood out in the community and church. He lived an exemplary life. He had good character, uprightness and honest. Had good values and his behaviour were morally upright.' Z7 said 'My father was an independent worker who knew what he wanted. He had inner resources.' Z8 said, 'My father was very dedicated and a committed family and church person. He was true to his word and had the zeal for work and was willing to help people'. Z17 said 'I lent patience from my father. My father taught me patience that is helpful when leading people. A leader needs to understand people, as individuals but to make things work you need to push people like my mother would do.' Z19 said 'He never missed an appointment. I never saw him abscond from work. He never stayed at home when he was expected to be at work. I picked this as a value.' Z23 cited both father and mother saying 'My dad was so was my mum. They were protective but would guide and give us room to exercise what we knew.' Z24 said 'He was focused and persistent. He was never discouraged by anything. He was also innovative, generated new ideas. These attributes made me progress – because of his values. I became the youngest general in the Army. The values have made me be a mentor to students and colleagues.'

2.4 Representative quotes about extended family members as role models.

Z14 cited his grandfather has his role model saying 'He taught me how a man should behave. He taught self-discipline, self-control, patience and how to approach others. I admired grandfather's behaviour and actions, self-confidence and problem solving and hard work and helping others.' Z18 cited his uncles saying, 'My uncle was a government council secretary and used to come to our school to give talks. He was particular with time. One day my brother and I were late for school and found the gate closed when he was giving a talk. That incident taught me that in leadership you don't have to segregate. Leaders should be principled while applying fairness.'

2.5 Representative quotes about teachers and lecturers as role models.

Z3 Cited the secondary school teacher for Civics describing the teacher as 'smart and he had a systematic way of doing things – how he organised his work. He also liked his being honest. Z8 said, 'I come from a very humble family in the rural area. So, I looked up to them for direction with admirations as they were among persons who lived a better life according to rural village standards. They mentored me. I stayed with them during holidays. I admired progressiveness in teachers. They were a limelight in the rural area. They had the zeal to mentor others. They were willing to help without being paid.' A secondary school mathematics teacher inspired Z16. 'He made me choose to study engineering. His understanding of mathematics was inspirational. He encouraged me to go far and I hoped to live up to that.'

2.6 Representative quotes about religious leaders as role models.

Z8 cited priest as role models saying 'They were committed to God's work and also willing to help others for no pay. Willingness to mentor'. Z10 of cited priests saying 'I just wanted to follow their footsteps.' Z14

2. Theme and title for research question 3 & 4: HoDs' Role models that shaped their early leadership experiences and what they admired about the Role Models

admired Hindu leaders saying, "I ... admired religious leaders' values such as loving and caring about others – positive thoughts such as yoga meditation".

2.7 Representative quotes about societal leaders as role models.

Z2 admired the Dr. Kaunda, the first Zambian Post Independence president. The respondent said, 'He liked the confidence people had in Kaunda. He admired how Kaunda pronounced the values he believed in, how he lived and ruled the country.' Z5 admired the way of teaching of a senior at work saying 'she was the 1st professor in Nursing. I admired values and dedication to duty and to commitment to meeting students' needs.' Z27 admired Nelson Mandela saying 'He fought for freedom without destroying anything. He offered himself as a sacrifice – this is leadership, to serve others like Christ.' Z22 said 'I admired one foreign community person who commanded a lot of respect from Zambian who were living in Swaziland. The leader was organised, had a good family. I admired how his children were organised and respectful and assertive. He was in control and managed to bring order in the community not through command but through his character.'

Write 200 words of how these N participants' quotes are similar or different.

Parents both mother and father have been highly cited as the role models for the respondents. However, mothers clearly standouts in the role modeling of the respondents. Their mothers were family anchorage, hardworking, were encouraging them to prioritise education, family providers, inclusive and not segregated against others, were humble with high integrity, faced challenges with courage and were very understanding and caring. What they said about their fathers as role models included such values as family leadership, exemplary living, good character such as honesty, moral uprightness, sense of independence, dedication and commitment to work, patience, keeping promises, being focused and persistent. Mothers and fathers were admired for different reasons. For example, Mothers were admired for being humble while fathers for being honesty; mothers were admired for being courageous but caring while fathers for being penitent but focused. Integrity and good morals seem to cut across mothers and fathers. From Table 1 below and in comparison with Hughes et al (2009:179) table also shown below, it is evident that mothers were admired for altruistic and affiliation and a bit of power values; fathers were admired mostly for Power values followed by traditional values and less of altruistic values; Extended family members were liked for Power values and a bit of tradition values; teachers/lecturers role modeled Mostly altruistic and affiliation and a bit of power values; religious leaders modeled Mostly altruistic values; and role models from society at large were admired Mostly for Power values followed by traditional values and less of altruistic. Therefore, we can see that mothers, teachers/religious leaders exhibited altruistic and affiliation values while fathers, extended family members and societal leaders were admired for power and tradition values. The power values in mothers could be attributed to circumstances of single parenting in the cases such as lose of the father. **Seventeen out of 25 respondents liked altruistic values. The critical question is whether the respondents are actually living the values they admired in their role models or not. This is the question I wish to be answered in the next segment of the data analysis.**

2. Theme and title for research question 3 & 4: HoDs' Role models that shaped their early leadership experiences and what they admired about the Role Models

Write 100 - 200 words about how this connects to the literature on leadership and Management of departments e.g., HoDs. Your quotes that are presented first in this template, and therefore your data driven findings, then connects to the literature.

From the responses on this question, it is encouraging to note that more than half of the HoDs admired altruistic values. This is in line Haydon (2007) who singled out altruistic values as the most relevant virtual for educational leaders. Educational leaders should show commitment to the good of others. Leaders who tenaciously value altruism believe in helping others who are less fortunate and are motivated to help the needy and powerless and to improve society and believe in social justice (Hughes et al, 2009). With that assertion that values develop early in people's lives and are difficult to change in a short time (Hughes et al, 2009) we may anticipate that these admired values were actually imbued in the leaders who echoed them. "Before you can be a leader of others, you need to know clearly who you are and what your core values are. Once you know that, then you can give those values a voice and feel comfortable sharing them with others" (Kouzes and Posner, 2012:17). Therefore, we expect that these admired values are also exhibited in the leadership lives of the HoDs. This is in tandem with Aristotle's saying "... for it is probable that Virtuous parents will have virtuous offspring and that a man will turn out as he has been brought up" (Heinemann and Sons, 1926:101). Learning from King Jr, Carson (1998:105) asserts that "when you are aware that you are a symbol, it causes you to search your soul constantly – to go through this job of self-analysis, to see if you live up to the high and noble principles that people surround you with, and to try at all times to keep the gulf between the public self and private self at a minimum". "Outstanding leaders base their hopes for the future on what they have learned through assessing their past experiences. Through personifying change they inspire others to master its terrors." (Ramsden, 1998:12). Going by the view of self-interest according to Aristotle, as the prime driver of human action, we can say that human beings do things that provide them with the greatest gain of help us incur the most minimal loss (Kouzes and Posner, 2012). Leaders' deeds are far more important than their words when subordinates want to determine how serious leaders really are about what they say. Words and deeds must be consistent. Exemplary leaders set the example by aligning actions with shared values. Through their daily actions, they demonstrate their deep commitment to their beliefs and those of the organisation. Leading by example is more effective than leading by command. If people see that you work hard while preaching hard work, they are more likely to follow you. One of the best ways is to prove that something is important is by doing it yourself and setting an example.

Appendix 11: Classification of Values by Hughes et al (2009)

S/N	Value Type	Examples
1	Recognition	E.g., Politicians; They want to stand out and be the centre of attention. They value fame, visibility, and publicity, and are motivated by public recognition and seek jobs where they will be noticed.
2	Power	These are people who enjoy competition and being seen as influential and drive hard to make an impact. They value achievement and accomplishment and are motivated to work in jobs where they can achieve, get head and succeed.
3	Hedonism	These are people who prefer having fun and entertaining others. They are motivated by pleasure, variety and excitement. They would like to work in entertainment, hospitality, recreation, spots, sales or travel industries.
4	Altruistic	Such as health care and educational leaders. They believe in actively helping others who are less fortunate. They are motivated to help the needy and powerless and to improve society and they believe in social justice.
5	Affiliation	Such leaders find working with others motivating. They value meeting new people, networking, and working in a team environment.
6	Tradition	Examples are Religious Leaders and military people. They believe in family values and codes of conduct and value moral rules and standards. They would like to behave according to the institutional customs and standards of behaviour.
7	Security	These are bureaucratic leaders who are motivated to work in stable, predictable, and risk-free environments. They tend towards minimising uncertainty and avoid criticism.
8	Commerce	These are business inclined leaders who are motivated by financial success. They are constantly on the lookout for new business opportunities and are concerned about wealth and material possessions.
9	Aesthetics	Such leaders incline more towards experimentation, artistic expressions and creative problem solving. They place more importance on appearance or quality than on quantity.
10	Science	These include research and development leaders who enjoy digging into problems, and keeping up to date on technology. They prefer analysing data to get at the truth.

Appendix 12: Summary of Values Respondents admired in their Early Childhood role Models (Q4)

Mother	Father	Extended Family Member	Teacher/Lecturer	Religious Leaders	Society Leaders
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Family anchorage – AL 2. Hardworking - P 3. Encouraging or Motivating – AL 4. Family unifying figure – AL/AF 5. Provider for the family – P 6. Coaching children- AL 7. Inclusivity - AF 8. Fairness – AF/AL 9. Humbleness - AL 10. Integrity - T 11. Courage to face and overcome challenges - P 12. Understanding – AL/AF 13. Caring –AL/AF 14. Focused – P 15. Willing to assist –AL 16. Treating all equally – AL/AF 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Family leadership - P 2. Leading by example - T 3. Good character; T 4. Honesty - 5. Moral uprightness 6. Independent - P 7. Dedicated to work – P 8. Commitment to work - P 9. Patience - AL 10. Keeping promises - T 11. Focused - P 12. Persistent – P 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Self-discipline - p 2. Self-control - T 3. Patience - Al 4. Good behaviour - T 5. Problem solver - P 6. Hardworking - P 7. Respect for time - P 8. Principled but fair – P/AF 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Professionalism in teaching - P 2. Caring for students – Al/AF 3. Meeting students’ needs - AL 4. Good living - P 5. Progressiveness in their career - P 6. Willing to help - AL 7. Encouraging – AL 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Commitment to God’s work - T 2. Willing to help - AL 3. Caring - AL 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Principled-living the values - P 2. Dedicated to work - P 3. Providing service - AL 4. Organised - P 5. Good family - P 6. Good character - P
Mostly altruistic (AL) and affiliation (AF) and a bit of power (P) values	Mostly Power (P) values followed by traditional (T) values and less of altruistic (AL)	Mostly Power (P) values and a bit of tradition (T) values	Mostly altruistic (AL) and affiliation (AF) and a bit of power (P) values	Mostly altruistic (AL)	Mostly Power (P) values followed by traditional (T) values and less of altruistic (AL)

Appendix 13: Sample First Analysis - Question 5

How would you describe your initial experience as a HoD?

Resp	Quote	Category
Z1	Did not answer but said he is head of his clan and had wider experience outside the country but was recently appointed to assist in the leadership of the department and was acting Dean.	Ok because of previous leadership role
Z2	He said ‘it was demanding – a lot of work’. Responding to memorandums that came at short notice given the number of hours that were required to produce the required information. Another issue was meetings in which he did not know what to include on the discussion agenda.	Demanding; A lot of work
Z3	‘Work is demanding but manageable.’ His worst experience was demanding instructions from the top on short notice. You would have no time to consult. Thus, there are communication hitches. “We have other responsibilities outside work and as such consolidating the information required to respond creates a lot of pressure.	Demanding Instructions from top that are time constrained
Z4	Quiet demanding, leading and giving directions to others. You need more time and good planning. You must be knowledgeable, be ahead of others. This requires reading widely to understand the roles. E.G., students need results on time. The difficult is that the scripts are usually very bulky and many with different components that should be marked by different lecturers. Success requires constant reminders. Keeping to deadlines is a very big challenge.	Demanding in providing leadership and keeping to deadlines. Requires broad knowledge and reminders
Z5	Very demanding - A lot of deadlines. Required to complete many documents/process results. The demand was always stressful but sometimes fulfilling when students appreciated help rendered. E.g. In 2016, the school of medicine was splitting into four schools. There was shadow management in the four schools. I needed to show many others how to do their work – orient them to their responsibilities.	Demanding with a lot of deadlines to meet
Z6	It was stressful I guess. I did not like it at all! The transition from academia where I was free	Stressful with mandatory none

	but to be confined in an office – it's mandatory to be in the office. I don't see what would make such a job more enjoyable. I have issues with administrative work. People who study administration are better placed to handle administrative work or secretaries should be administrative assistants. Our secretaries are stenographers! Their role is to receive visitors and then sit at their desks doing nothing!	enjoyable administrative work to complete.
Z7	It was a big challenge. I did not understand how the university works. I had not served for more than 4 years before I got appointed as a HoD. I had a lot to learn and the work was very demanding initially.	Challenging as the work was demanding initially
Z8	I was plunged into uncharted territory. I remember an instance when I was seated in the office not knowing what to do. It is a lonely office. Other lecturers would be gone but you are expected to be in the office even when you don't know what to do. I can say the job was confusing but not demanding.	Confusing because I did not know what to do
Z9	There is high demand because it is a new setup, new environment for me, new place. Not stressed but enjoying organising exams.	Demanding since it is a new job in a new environment
Z10	I am close to four years now as a HoD. Initially, it was a mixture of excitement and a bit of being scared. My senior colleagues were my lecturers. So, to provide leadership was intimidating on my part.	Intimidating to lead former lecturers
Z11	I did not feel adequate. I did not know what changes I would bring. I hoped I would do my best. I was very apprehensive when making presentations – used to be anxious.	Felt Inadequate to lead due to lack of confidence
Z12	It was very stressful. I am very new in the university. I was a leader at high school. There are professors in this university. How to handle them was a challenging perception. I thought of refusing taking up the role. I was not sure of the leadership style to adopt. My memorable experience was to be served with high respect by the secretary other others who are professionals.	Stressful due to the perception of how to lead professors
Z13	It was ok. Sometimes demanding. I was assistant Dean for undergraduate the role that helped me settle in well as a HoD. It enabled me understand examination issues - grading lines.	Demanding but ok because of prior position of Assistant Dean

	This gave me a wider view when I became a HoD. Even now I understand issues much better.	
Z14	It was a promotion at the age 34 years. It was a success, enjoying the post. I am getting help from seniors and colleagues. Supported throughout the hierarchy.	Enjoyable because it was a promotion
Z15	Before I was appointed a HoD I was an Assistant Dean for research and I used to Act as a HoD but I was not directly involved with staff discipline issues. Even then I come to realize that it is the most challenging in the university. I have thought of developing a strategic plan but there are a lot of huddles – unknown. It is extremely challenging especially with finances. All academic staff are in the departments and they need to be facilitated by HoDs and not the Dean or Vice Chancellor. Our department is very big with 22 lecturers, 6 technical staff, 9 part-time tutors. I face a lot of disciplinary issues. We also have a number of postgraduate programmes. We are one of the biggest and busiest hence we have a lot demanding personnel issue.	It is challenging attending to the needs all academic staff
Z16	I am a graduate of this department and have acted as HoD before. The previous HoD happily handed over role to me. The Previous HoD recommends and if you are not ready you can decline.	It was fine due to prior acting experience and smooth handover
Z17	Not always easy! Academics need freedom, anything to the contrary they would react. The most difficulty is when they don't do anything and keep quiet. It took me a bit of time to understand this behaviour. E.g. many of them agreed to review the curriculum but not even one has started. But they have no problem with lecturing.	It is challenging as it took time to understand the behaviour of academic staff
Z18	It was a bit challenging – schedules of meetings, managing exams, preparing budgets etc. Most of the things were not in place but I had to attend to them.	It was challenging due to meetings, budgeting and managing exams
Z19	I had just returned from my PhD and had no intentions for administrative work but research – heat the iron while it was hot. The appointment destabilised me – had not planned for it! Though it was a short-lived uncertainty. Here HoDs are elected, not appointed by the Dean. You are asked to share your vision and I was not given	Destabilising due to lack of psychological preparedness for the position

	that opportunity. I went as an opposed after my colleague withdrew from the race.	
Z20	I was excited and I wanted to do something better than my predecessor. That gave me the drive.	Excited to work harder than the predecessor
Z21	I took a while to juggle my administration responsibilities with research and teaching. I came in when it was a very busy period. I was very heavily involved in research so I found it difficult to combine with administrative work-divided attention.	Challenging to combine research and administration work
Z22	There were a lot of grey areas. We don't undergo administrative training. So what we do is based on one's own imaginations. You have to learn how to draft memos, so we thus relay on secretaries. We have no one to sit us down on what to do. But I now know. In the beginning there were a lot of uncertainties but over time I have been learning through meetings.	Challenging due to administrative work for which we are not prepared
Z23	I took it as recognition of responsibility. There was some excitement; I appreciated that you can make some contribution to the department.	Excited as it was considered as a recognition
Z24	I was commandant of the defence school – we were the pioneers. We were producing medical students with military training. I am used to challenges because of the brigade training. I am faced with the task of developing the curriculum afresh – giving it the Zambian perspective. There is therefore need for more research and gather new materials. Given my leadership background, I have used my team to develop the new curriculum.	It was ok due to previous leadership experience
Z25	He said, “it was an excitement initially but the challenge was to comprehend the role. I found senior colleagues in grade and years of work experience. I was he was young but enthusiastic for the job but I had a mentor who was guiding me.”	Exciting with availability of senior colleagues ready to help

Eight (8) respondents described their initial experience as fine, exciting or enjoyable. Some considered the experience as a promotion or as recognition for their responsibilities. Others said they had prior leadership experience both within the university and outside. Experience within the university was in two types; having been an assistant Dean or acting in the HoD position. Other reasons advanced were the availability of senior colleagues who were ready to help and smooth hand over.

Five (5) described their initial experience as demanding. Major reasons advanced included new job and environment, meeting deadlines, instructions from the top and a lot of work.

Six (6) other respondents described their early experience as challenging instead of demanding. Demanding has a negative connotation while challenging would imply some bit of excitement and positive in how someone views their work and hence one would be willing to exert more efforts on the job. What they found challenging were meeting the needs of all academics, learning the behaviours of the academic staff, attending to meetings, exams and budgeting, combining research and administrative work with limited training in administration.

Six (6) respondents described their first experience as stressful. One respondent described the experience as destabilising due to lack of psychological preparedness while another was scared to lead professors, the third one lacked confidence and felt inadequate for the position, the fourth said it was intimidating to lead former lecturers, the fifth felt confused due to lack of the requisite job knowledge and the sixth felt stressed as the administrative issues were not enjoyable.

Appendix 14: Sample Second Analysis Using Proforma – Question 5

How would you describe your initial experience as a HoD?

5. Theme and title for research question 5 which is: How would you describe your initial experience as a HoD?
1.1 Summary: From the twenty-five respondents, eight (8) described their initial experience as fine, exciting or enjoyable, five (5) described their initial experience as demanding, six (6) respondents described their early experience as challenging instead of demanding and another six (6) described their first experience as stressful.
5.2 Representative quotes of Eight (8) respondents who described their initial experience as exciting or enjoyable
Quote Participant (Z23) who said, “I took it as recognition of responsibility. There was some excitement; I appreciated that you can make some contribution to the department.” Seven others echoed similarly.
Z13 said, “It was ok. Sometimes demanding. I was assistant Dean for undergraduate the role that helped me settle in well as a HoD. It enabled me understand examination issues - grading lines. This gave me a wider view when I became a HoD. Even now I understand issues much better.” Z14 said, “It was a promotion at the age 34 years. It was a success, enjoying the post. I am getting help from seniors and colleagues. Supported throughout the hierarchy.” Z16 said, “I am a graduate of this department and have acted as HoD before. The previous HoD happily handed over the role to me. The Previous HoD recommends and if you are not ready you can decline.” Z25 said, “it was an excitement initially but the challenge was to comprehend

5. Theme and title for research question 5 which is: How would you describe your initial experience as a HoD?

the role. I found senior colleagues in grade and years of work experience. I was young but enthusiastic for the job but I had a mentor who was guiding me.”

Quote 2, Z2 said “A lot of work! Responding to memorandums that came at short notice given the number of hours that were required to produce the required information.” There were 4 others who described their initial experience as demanding.

Z3 said, “Work is demanding but manageable.’ ... You would have no time to consult. Thus, there are communication hitches. We have other responsibilities outside work and as such consolidating the information required to respond creates a lot of pressure.” His worst experience was demanding instructions from the top on short notice. Z4 said, “Quiet demanding, leading and giving directions to others. You need more time and good planning. You must be knowledgeable, be ahead of others. This requires reading widely to understand the roles. E.G., students need results on time. The difficult is that the scripts are usually very bulky and many with different components that should be marked by different lecturers. Success requires constant reminders. Keeping to deadlines is a very big challenge.” Z5 said, “Very demanding - A lot of deadlines. Required to complete many documents/process results. The demand was always stressful but sometimes fulfilling when students appreciated help rendered. E.g., In 2016, the school ... was splitting into four schools. There was shadow management in the four schools. I needed to show many others how to do their work – orient them to their responsibilities.” Z9 said, “There is high demand because it is a new setup, new environment for me, new place. Not stressed but enjoying organising exams.”

Quote 3 Z7 said, “It was a big challenge. I did not understand how the university works. I had not served for more than 4 years before I got appointed as a HoD. I had a lot to learn and the work was very demanding initially.” Five others responded in a similar way.

Z15 said, “Before I was appointed a HoD position, I was an Assistant Dean for research and I used to Act as a HoD but I was not directly involved with staff discipline issues. Even then I come to realize that it is the most challenging in the university.... It is extremely challenging especially with finances. All academic staff are in the departments and they need to be facilitated by HoDs and not the Dean or Vice Chancellor... I face a lot of disciplinary issues. We also have a number of postgraduate programmes. We are one of the biggest and busiest hence we have a lot of demanding personnel issues.” Z17 said, “Not always easy! Academics need freedom, anything to the contrary they would react. The most difficulty is when they don't do anything and keep quiet. It took me a bit of time to understand this behaviour. E.g., many of them agreed to review the curriculum but not even one has started. But they have no problem with lecturing.” Z18 said, “It was a bit challenging – schedules of meetings, managing exams, preparing budgets etc. Most of the things were not in place but I had to attend to them.” Z21 said, “I took a while to juggle my administration responsibilities with research and teaching. I came in when it was a very busy period. I was very heavily involved in research so I found it difficult to combine with administrative work- divided attention.” Z22 said, “There were a lot of grey areas. We don't undergo administrative training. So, what we do is based on one's own imaginations. You have to learn how to draft memos, so we thus relay on secretaries. We have no one to sit us down on what to do. But I now know. In the beginning there were a lot of uncertainties but over time I have been learning through meetings.”

Quote 4: Z6 said, “It was stressful, I guess. I did not like it at all! The transition from academia where I was free but to be confined in an office – it's mandatory to be in the office. I don't see what would make such a job more enjoyable. I have issues with administrative work. People who study administration are better placed to handle administrative work or secretaries should be administrative assistants. Our secretaries are stenographers! Their role is to receive visitors and then sit at their desks doing nothing!” Five others responded in a similar way.

Z8 said, “I was plunged into uncharted territory. I remember an instance when I was seated in the office not knowing what to do. It is a lonely office. Other lecturers would be gone but you are expected to be in the office even when you don't know what to do. I can say the job was confusing but not demanding.” Z10 said, “I am close to four years now as a HoD. Initially, it was a mixture of excitement and a bit of being scared. My

5. Theme and title for research question 5 which is: How would you describe your initial experience as a HoD?

senior colleagues were my lecturers. So, to provide leadership was intimidating on my part.” Z11 said, “I did not feel adequate. I did not know what changes I would bring. I hoped I would do my best. I was very apprehensive when making presentations – used to be anxious.” Z12 said, “It was very stressful. I am very new in the university... There are professors in this university. How to handle them was a challenging perception. I thought of refusing taking up the role. I was not sure of the leadership style to adopt. My memorable experience was to be served with high respect by the secretary other than others who are professors.” Z19 said, “I had just returned from my PhD and had no intentions for administrative work but research – hit the iron while it was hot. The appointment destabilized me – had not planned for it! Though it was a short-lived uncertainty. Here HoDs are elected, not appointed by the Dean. You are asked to share your vision and I was not given that opportunity. I went as an opposed after my colleague withdrew from the race.”

Quote 5 P25 said ‘I don't enjoy – There is a lot of work’.

This is similar to what P16 said:

Quote P6

This is similar to what P17 said:

Quote P7

This is similar to what P8 said

Quote _P8 etc.

Write 200 words of how these N participants’ quotes are similar or different.

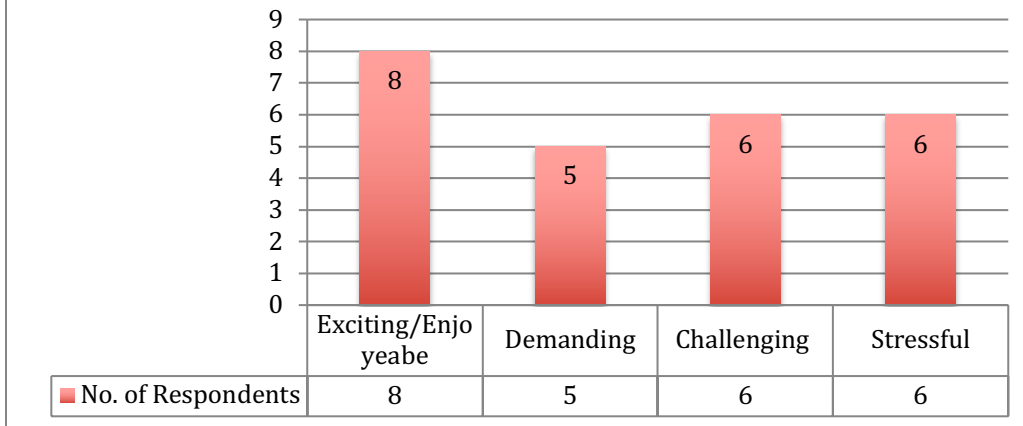
From the responses it is evident that fewer HoDs (8 of them) found their initial experience exciting while the rest found the roles demanding, challenging and stressful. Those who felt excited on their initial experience of their roles had their prior leadership experience; support from former HoDs and their supervisors, the Deans. Smooth handover seems to have also played a bigger role in making the job exciting at the beginning. The majority who found the roles non-exciting were faced with administrative responsibilities for which they were not prepared and others were first timers in the role having had no prior experience in leadership and administrative roles. The difference in the description of their initial experience points toward lack of prior experience or leadership training and psychological preparedness. Those straight from completing their higher studies were also at pains to find their footing in the roles, in which some felt inadequate while others esteemed themselves low when they found themselves presiding over seniors and professors most of whom where their former seniors and former lecturers. It seems that the HoD position is used as part of the initial leadership development stage as many of these HoD had no prior leadership experience when they were first appointed. People need confidence to lead especially when they are new in the positions and that would take well-grounded preparations to assist them raise their confidence and self-esteem.

5. Theme and title for research question 5 which is: How would you describe your initial experience as a HoD?

Write 100 - 200 words about how this connects to the literature on leadership and Management of departments e.g., HoDs. Your quotes that are presented first in this template, and therefore your data driven findings, then connects to the literature.

Just like the inertia was high in the early 1960s during the post independent Zambia to fill up administrative positions in the public sector, the situation does not seem to have changed even in the university of study. The newly independent Zambia was eager to have Zambians appointed to most of the key administrative across all sectors (Mwanakatwe, 2013). At that time there was a big shortage of local Africans who had attained higher education and experience at upper levels of administration in government and business (Kelly, 1999: 105). This was the reason the Lockwood commission of 1963 was set up (Lockwood et al, 1963). The commission recommend for creation of a university to produce manpower to meet above demand. In the same line the university of study seem to have a similar demand of creating administrators in their HoDs as the findings shows that filling of these administrative position in the university seem to be done without prior adequate preparations. As Kelly (1999:105) argues "risks will be taken, as elsewhere, in promoting young and inexperienced men and women to responsible positions" and this seem to be happening in the HEI of study as 17 out of 25 respondents found their initial experience demanding, challenging and stressful due to lack of prior preparedness especially in administrative functions. To avert this situation there is need for effective on-the-job training once young graduates are appointed into administrative roles. There is therefore need to revisit the 1963 Lockwood Commission report on the recommendations that university must be geared to serve the real needs of the nation (Lockwood, et al, 1963). In the past, the idea had prevailed that new universities established in Africa required entering into some 'special relationship' with a long-established university in order to ensure that the new African university gained confidence of the academic world. In the case of HoD leadership development, it requires proper internally developed development programmes that would include attachment, mentorship and exposure to leadership and administrative under the guidance of seniors. The findings affirm the literature proposition that there is little or no capability training programmes that exist within HEIs to equip HoDs with the required competencies to lead teaching and learning, motivate followers and develop a community of learners (Bryman, 2007). These findings are also supported by the postulation that appointments to Head of Department are made on the basis of academic distinction, not qualities of leadership/management per se (Brodie and Partington, 1992:1). These findings also affirm the lack of systematic preparation programmes for leaders in HEi Bush's (2016), professional development for HoDs does not seem to be eminent (Brodie and Partington, 1992) in HEIs asserting that HoDs learn through on-the-job experience, formalised leadership learning opportunities in HEI are rare (Branson et al, 2016), and that HoDs emerge from faculty ranks and are appointed on the basis of academic distinction rather than leadership potential (Brodie and Partington, 1992).

Description of the initial experience as HoDs



Appendix 15: Key concepts deciphered from literature

Lead Authors	Key Concepts
Sergiovanni (1992) on moral Leadership	Describing the 'leadership heart' as the person's interior world, comprising values, beliefs, motives, dispositions, which become the foundation of their realities that form the basis of their thoughts and actions
Pring (2010): Philosophy of Educational Research	People's judgement and actions stem from their deep-seated depositions
Munroe (2010): The Power of Character in Leadership	Leadership effectiveness stems from leaders' virtues that underpin their behaviours and actions
Robertson (2017): Transformation of Personal Identity	Regards leaders' personal values as the filter of their leadership identity
Cochrane Phoebe (2006).	Cultural capital being the aptitude or inclination of people to behave in certain ways, underlies human and social capital and describes the potential of a society. Both cultural and human capitals develop highly with enhanced social networks, actual or potential resources linked to membership of the group among others.
Hogg (2001): A Social Identity of Leadership	Leadership is a group processes that is strongly determined by prototypicality on which leadership influence is dependent (bound by common values)
Burke and Stets (2009): Identity Theory	Identities define who we really are. The development should create self-awareness that would help them learn how to grow and become effective by understanding person, role and social identities
Ganly, 2010 and Rowitz, 1996)	Awareness of the 'self', taking what one believes in and then translating such into action
Crow and Møller, 2017	Person Identity filters the development of leadership identity
Bowen et al, (2014) and Cochrane (2006) on Cultural Capital.	Cultural Capital believed to foster the development of other capitals such as social, human, and decisional capital
Ashkenas and Manville, 2019. Fitting personal values to a context	Leaders need to understand their own values and their situational context in order for them to align their values with those of their organisations

Earley, 2020. Leader and Leadership Development	Hence the suggestion to focus on both leadership and leader development with the former defined as the knowledge and skills relating to occupational role development while the later refers to the development of the person
Hughes et al, 2009	Various values leaders exhibit. Altruistic virtue the most preferred to be possessed by educational leaders
Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012	The key elements of professional capital – Social, Human and Decisional Capitals
Adair, 2005. Leadership Development	Current leadership practices disadvantages leaders in developing their social attributes that are part of the defining features of leadership identity
Burke and Stets, 2009. Identity Theory	Given that individuals don't easily “put on” and “take off” their morals as they move on from a role or group to another, leadership development should be studied holistically.
Crow and Møller, 2017. Contemporary leadership Development Practices	Contemporary development practices focus more on task related competencies and less on the leadership morals Making most leaders become technically oriented and focusing more on the processes and results without understanding their moral dispositions; Nor understanding principles of educational dispositions
Tubin, 2017. Leadership Identity	This holistic understanding is referred to as ' leadership identity ' and constitutes the meanings leaders attach to their roles on personal, relational and collective levels
Taysum 2003. Holistic Leadership Model	Adoption of the Holistic Leadership Model to holistically investigate leadership journeys of HoDs.
Ronald Barnett and Roberto Di Napoli. Changing Identities in Higher Education	Academic leaders are now expected to executed previously specialised administrative and managerial roles.
Knight T. Peter & Trowler R. Paul (2001). Departmental Leadership in Higher Education	Knowledgeability and expertise for effective leading at HoD level is closely tied to various aspects of the relationships leaders have with others in the organisation and profound understanding of the wider context